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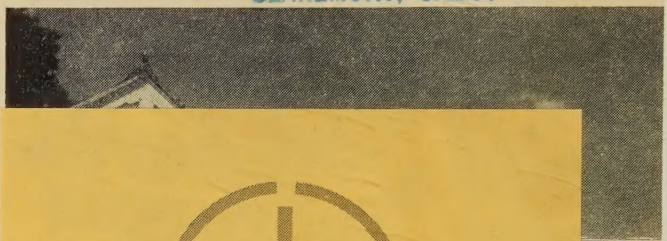

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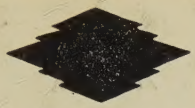

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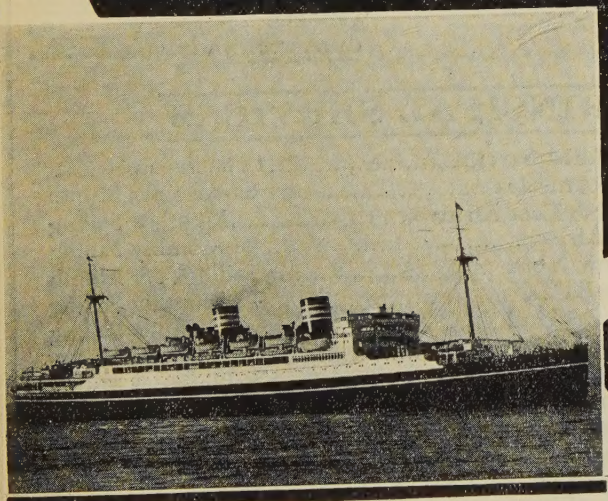

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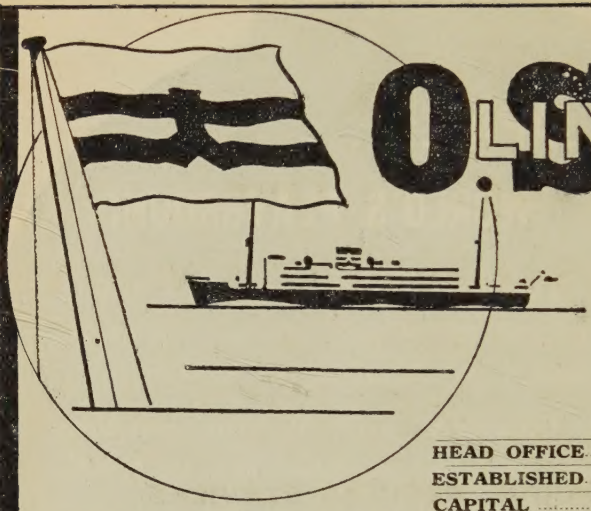

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Preface

In the compilation of The Japan Year Book, 1937, care has been taken to preserve the features which characterized the preceding editions, while adding some new ones. All the chapters have been gone over thoroughly and revised so as to bring the material up to date and to insure greater balance as between the various sections. In this attempt some sections and even chapters have had to be entirely or partially re-written.

Both in selection and classification of material the original plan used in the previous editions of the Year Book has been followed as the most convenient one to present this country as it is before the reader.

The reader will notice that the types used in the present edition are smaller but neater than those used in the previous editions. This secures economy in space, which in its turn means more material than before inserted in the 1937 edition.

It is with pleasure that the editor acknowledges with thanks the assistance he has received from many friends, especially from officials of the Government, in supplying material for the publication.

Tokyo, September, 1937 K. Inahara, *Editor*

JAPANESE WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

Weights

Kan (Kwan)=1,000 mommé = { 8.26733 lb. (Avoir.) / 10.04711 lb. (Troy) } =3.75000 kilogrammes

Mommé = { 0.13228 oz. (Avoir.) / 0.12057 oz. (Troy) } =3.75000 grammes

Kin=160 mommé = { 1.32277 lb. (Avoir.) / 1.60754 lb. (Troy) } =0.60000 kilogamme

Koku (fish)=40 kan

Metric system,

Kilogramme= 2.20459 pounds (Avoir.)=0.26667 kan
Gramme =15.43210 grains (Avoir.)=0.26667 mommé
Ton =1,000 kilogrammes=2,204.6 pounds
Gross Ton =1,016.064 kilogrammes=2,240 pounds

Measures of Length

Ri=36 cho=2,160 ken =2.44030 miles=3.92727 kilometres
Ken=6 shaku =5.96516 feet=1.81818 metres
Shaku=10 sun =0.99419 foot=0.30303 metre
Shaku (cloth measure)=1.25 shaku
Tan (a roll of cloth) =about 35 shaku

Metric system,

Kilometre=0.62137 mile=3,280 feet 10 inches=9.16667 cho

Measures of Surface

Square ri=1,296 cho=5.95505 sq. miles=15.42347 sq. kilometres
Cho (chobu)=10 tan=3,000 tsubo=2.45064 acres=99.17355 ares
Tsubo (bu)=3.95369 sq. yards=3.30579 centiares
Ko (Formosa)=2,934 tsubo

Metric system,

Hectare=10,000 m^2=2.471 acres=1.00833 cho
Are=100 m^2=119.6 sq. yards=30.25000 bu
Sq. kilometre=0.386 sq. mile=247.10 acres=0.06484 sq. ri.

Measures of Capacity

Koku=10 to=100 sho=1,000 go = { 4.96005 bushels (U.S.A.) / 5.11902 ,, (U.S.A.) / 47.95389 gallons (U.S.A.) / 39.6804 ,, (British) } =1.80391 hl.

Koku (capacity of vessels)=10th of a ton
Koku (timber) =about 1 cubic foot×10
Shakujimé (timber) =about 1 cubic foot×12
Taba (fagot, etc.) =about 3×6×6 feet

Metric system,

Hectolitre { 2 bush., 3.35 pecks (Dry) / 26.42 gal. (Liquid) } =5.54352 sho

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MAP OF JAPAN

(In Separate Envelope)

THE IMPERIAL COURT

At the heart of the Japanese nation and at the head of the Japanese State is the Emperor,[1] known to the people as the Tenshi, the Son of Heaven, or Tenno, Heavenly King. Though the ancient title Mikado persists in foreign countries, it has lost currency in Japan itself except in poetry or on very formal occasions.

The Imperial Dynasty of Japan is the oldest reigning family in the world, Japanese history dating its earthly origin from 660 B. C. The present Emperor is the 124th of the line.

H.I.M. THE EMPEROR

His Imperial Majesty HIROHITO, Emperor of Japan, 1st son of the late Emperor Taisho, was born in the Aoyama Palace, Tokyo, on April 29, 1901, and shortly afterwards was entrusted for bringing up to the family of Count Kawamura (Sumiyoshi),[2] a retired Admiral. Upon the Count's death in 1903, the Imperial Prince entered the Imperial Palace, with Marquis Kido (Takamasa) and later Mr. Kinsaku Maruo, chamberlain at the Aoyama Palace, in charge of his affairs. At the age of 7, he entered the elementary department of the Peers' School. In 1912, the year of his father's accession to the Throne, he was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Army and Sublieutenant, 2nd Class in the Navy and decorated with the Grand Cordon of the Chrysanthemum.

On completion of the elementary course in the Peers' School in 1914, he continued the study of various subjects in a special school instituted for the purpose under Admiral Togo. Promotion to the ranks of Lieutenant in the Army and Sub-lieutenant, 1st Class in the Navy came the same year; to Captain and Lieutenant in 1916, and to Major and Lieutenant-Commander in 1920. Ending his special studies in 1921, His Majesty toured Europe, the first Crown Prince to do so.

Because of the Emperor Taisho's illness, he was appointed Regent on November 25, 1921. Two years later, his ranks in the defence services were raised to those of Lieutenant-Colonel and Commander. Marriage to Princess Nagako took place on January 26, 1924. In 1925, he was promoted to the ranks of Colonel in the Army and Captain in the Navy. On the demise of the Emperor Taisho, December 25, 1926, he succeeded to the Throne, and the new era was named Showa, meaning Light and Peace. Formal installation took place in Kyoto on November 10, 1928, and the grand ceremony of making offerings to the Imperial Ancestors was held on November 14 and 15.

H.I.M. THE EMPRESS

Her Imperial Majesty NAGAKO, Empress of Japan, was born on March 6, 1903, 3rd child and 1st daughter of the late Imperial Prince[1] Kuni (Kuniyoshi), in his residence at 1, Roppongi-machi, Azabu-ku, Tokyo. She entered the elementary department of the Peers' School for Girls in April, 1909, and advanced to the higher course in March, 1915. Shortly after becoming Crown Princess-elect on January 17, 1918, she left the Peers' School for Girls and engaged in special study at home. Imperial sanction was given for marriage to the Crown Prince in June of the same year, and their betrothal took place on September 28, 1922. At that time she was decorated with the 1st Order of Merit. She was proclaimed Crown Princess on the day of the marriage,

1 For the powers of the Emperor, see Chapter IV, and Articles I—XVII of the Constitution (Appendix).

2 The personal names of members of the Imperial Family and Peers are parenthesized.

1 Prince (Shinno or O) means Prince of the Blood except when the name is followed by the word Peer in brackets, thus [Peer]. For the difference between Shinno and O see the Imperial House Law, Chapter VII, Art. XXXI (Appendix).

January 26, 1924, and Empress on December 25, 1926.

H.I.M. THE EMPRESS DOWAGER

Her Imperial Majesty SADAKO, the Empress Dowager, was born on June 25, 1884, 4th daughter of the late Prince Kujo (Michitaka) [Peer], a Court noble of the first rank. She entered the Peers' School for Girls in 1890 and advanced to the higher course six years later, leaving in 1899. Her marriage to Crown Prince Yoshihito, later the Emperor Taisho, took place on May 10, 1900. She was proclaimed Crown Princess on that day; Empress on July 30, 1912, and Empress Dowager on December 25, 1926. Her Majesty now resides in the Omiya Palace, Akasaka-ku, Tokyo.

H.I.H. THE CROWN PRINCE

H. I. H. Prince TSUGU-NO-MIYA (Akihito) was born on December 23, 1933, and is Heir-Apparent.

OTHER CHILDREN OF THE EMPEROR

H. I. H. Princess TERU (Shigeko) was born on December 6, 1925, and entered the elementary department of the Peers' School for Girls in 1932,and advanced to the middle school course in 1936.

H. I. H. Princess TAKA (Kazuko) was born on September 30, 1929, and entered the elementary department of the Peers' School for Girls in 1936.

H. I. H. Princess Yori (Atsuko) was born on March 7, 1931.

H. I. H. Prince YOSHI-NO-MIYA (Masahito) was born on November 28, 1935.

BROTHERS OF THE EMPEROR

H. I. H. Prince CHICHIBU (Yasuhito), Major in the Infantry, was born on June 25, 1902, 2nd son of the late Emperor Taisho. The name Atsu was given to him at first. In 1909, he entered the Peers' School and on completion of the second year of the middle course in 1917 was enrolled in the Central Military Preparatory School. This course he finished in 1920, when he joined the 3rd Infantry Regiment, Azabu-ku, Tokyo, as a first private. Later in the same year, he entered the Military Academy, completing the regular course in 1922.

On attaining his majority in 1922, he took the name Chichibu and by Imperial order founded a new house. He was decorated with the Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum in the same year and promoted to the rank of Second Lieutenant, attached to the 3rd Infantry Regiment. After becoming Lieutenant in May, 1925, he went abroad, studying at Oxford University until the illness of the Emperor Taisho compelled his return to Japan in January, 1927. While in England, he was decorated by the late King George V with the Grand Cross of the Royal Victorian Order.

Marriage to Miss Setsuko Matsudaira, born on September 9, 1909, niece of Viscount Morio Matsudaira and 1st daughter of Mr. Tsuneo Matsudaira (at present Minister of the Imperial Household), took place on September 28, 1928. The Imperial Prince was promoted to the rank of Captain in 1930 and to that of Major in 1935. After a course in the Military Staff College and a term as Company Commander in the 3rd Infantry Regiment, he was attached to the General Staff, then removed to Hirosaki as Battalion Commander in the 31st Infantry Regiment on August 1, 1935. The Prince and Princess left Yokohama on March 18, for London where they represented the Throne at the Coronation of King George VI of Great Britain, which was held on May 12, 1937. His residence is at Omote-cho, Akasaka-ku, Tokyo.

H. I. H. Prince TAKAMATSU (Nobuhito), Lieutenant-Commander in the Navy, 3rd son of the late Emperor Taisho, was born on Jaunary 3, 1905. At first he was named Teru. He entered the Peers' School in 1911 and left in 1920 to enroll in the Naval College. On graduation four years later, he was granted the name of Takamatsu and founded a new house to revive that of the late Imperial Prince Arisugawa, which had become extinct.

In 1925, on appointment as Sublieutenant, 2nd Class in the Navy, he was ordered to take up duties aboard the battleship Fuso. At the same time, he was decorated with the Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum. Promotion to the rank of Sublieutenant, 1st Class came in 1927.

On February 4, 1930, he married Miss Kikuko Tokugawa, 2nd daughter of the late Prince Tokugawa (Yoshihisa)[Peer], who was born on December 26, 1911. The mother of the Princess was the 1st daughter of the late Imperial Prince Arisugawa, whose house Imperial Prince Takamatsu revived. In April of the same year, the Imperial Prince and his consort started on a tour of the world, partly to return the courtesies shown by the late King George V of England in sending a mission to Japan to present the Order of the Garter to the Emperor. They returned to Japan in June, 1931, and took up residence in a new house at Takanawa, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

The Imperial Prince, now a Lieutenant-Commander, is attached to the office of the Naval General Staff.

H. I. H. Prince MIKASA (Takahito), 4th son of the late Emperor Taisho, was born on December 2, 1915, and was named Sumi. He entered the Peers' School in 1922 and left in 1932 to enter the Military Academy. On graduation from the Academy in June, 1936, he was attached to the 15th Cavalry Regiment. On attaining his majority in 1935, he was granted the name of Mikasa and founded a new house. A special residence is maintained for him in the park of the Aoyama Palace.

OTHER PRINCES

KAN-IN. The present and 6th head of the House is H. I. H. Prince Kan-in (Kotohito), Field Marshal, who was born on November 10, 1865, the 16th son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Kuniiyé), and adopted in 1867 by the Emperor Komei, the immediate predecessor of the Emperor Meiji. Ordered to France in 1882 for military studies, he remained there until 1891. After participation in the wars with China and Russia, his rise in the Army was rapid, and in 1912 he was appointed General and member of the High Military Council. In 1916, he was ordered to Russia for returning courtesies to the Russian Grand Duke's visit. The Imperial Prince became a Field Marshal in 1919, accompanied the Crown Prince to Europe in 1921 and headed the commission in charge of the Enthronement in 1928. In December, 1931, he was appointed Chief of the General Staff.

His consort, H. I. H. Princess Kan-in (Chiyéko), whom he married in 1891, was born on June 30, 1872, 2nd daughter of the late Prince Sanjo (Sanétomi) [Peer], a Court noble of the first rank.

The heir is H. I. H. Prince Kan-in (Haruhito), Captain in the Cavalry, the 2nd son, who was born on August 3, 1902. He was graduated from the Odawara Middle School in 1921, appointed Lieutenant in 1927, promoted to the rank of Captain in 1932 and in the same year, following a course in the Military Staff College, appointed a member of the Directors of the Research Section of the Cavalry School. On July 14, 1926, he married Princess Ichijo (Naoko), 4th daughter of the late Prince Ichijo (Saneteru) [Peer], a Court noble of the first rank, who was born on November 7, 1908.

The House of Kan-in was founded in 1718 by Prince Naohito, a son of the Emperor Higashiyama. The residence is at Nagata-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

HIGASHI-FUSHIMI. The House is extinct except for H. I. H. Princess Higashi-Fushimi (Kanéko), consort of the late Imperial Prince Higashi-Fushimi (Yorihito), who married her on February 10, 1898 and died in 1922. She was born on August 29, 1876, 1st daughter of the late Prince Iwakura (Tomosada) [Peer]. The residence is at Tokiwamatsu-cho, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo.

FUSHIMI. The 23rd head of the House is H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroyasu), Admiral of the Fleet, who was born on October 16, 1875, 1st son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Sadanaru). Ordered to Germany in 1889, he studied there for five years. He was appointed Admiral in 1922, a member of the High Military Council in 1925, Chief of the Naval General Staff in February, 1932, and Admiral of the Fleet in April of the same year.

His consort, H. I. H. Princess Fushimi (Tsuneko), was born on September 23, 1882, 9th daughter of the late Prince Tokugawa (Yoshinobu) [Peer]. They were married on January 9, 1897.

The 1st son and heir, H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroyoshi), Commander in the Navy, was born on December 8, 1897, and graduated from the Naval College in 1917 and is the Commander of the Third Destroyer Flotilla. He married, on December 23, 1919, Tokiko, 3rd daughter of the late Prince Ichijo (Saneteru) [Peer], who was born on June 20, 1902. Their 1st son, H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroaki), was born on January 26, 1932. Their first daughter, H. I. H. Princess Fushimi (Mitsuko), was born on July 28, 1929.

The second daughter, H. I. H. Princess Fushimi (Yoshiko) was born on February 14, 1933.

The third daughter, H. I. H. Princess Fushimi (Ayako) was born on February 11, 1934.

The House of Fushimi was founded by a great-grandchild of the Emperor Gofushimi. The residence is at Kioi-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

YAMASHINA. The 3rd head of the House, H. I. H. Prince Yamashina (Takehiko), Lieutenant-Commander in the Navy (1st reserve service), was born on February 13, 1898, 1st son of the late Prince Yamashina (Kikumaro). He was appointed Sublieutenant, 2nd Class in the Navy in August, 1919, and on July 19, 1922, married Princess Kaya (Sakiko), who died in the great earthquake the following year. The Prince now leads a retired life in his residence at Fujimi-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

His step-mother, H. I. H. Princess Yamashina (Hisako), was born on Feb-

ruary 7, 1874, 3rd daughter of the late Prince Shimazu (Tadayoshi) [Peer].

The House of Yamashina was founded in 1864 by the late Prince Yamashina (Akira), 1st son of H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Kuniiyé), who had earlier entered the priesthood and taken the name Kanshuji.

KAYA. The 2nd head of the House, H. I. H. Prince Kaya (Tsunenori), Lieutenant-Colonel in the Cavalry, was born on January 27, 1900, 1st son of the founder, the late Prince Kaya (Kuninori). He was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Cavalry in 1920 and is now Lieutenant-Colonel and Commander of the 10th Cavalry Regiment. On March 9, 1934, he left Tokyo, with his consort, for a tour round the world and returned to Tokyo on September 18 of the same year.

On May 3, 1921, he married Toshiko, who was born on May 16, 1903, 5th daughter of the late Prince Kujo (Michizané) [Peer], a Court noble of the first rank. They have six children: H. I. H. Prince Kaya (Kuninaga), born on April 21, 1922; H. I. H. Prince Kaya (Harunori), born on July 3, 1926; H. I. H. Prince Kaya (Akinori), born on August 17, 1929; H. I. H. Prince Kaya (Fuminori), born on July 12, 1931, H. I. H. Prince Kaya (Munenori), born on November 24, 1935 and H. I. H. Princess Kaya (Michiko), born on July 29, 1923.

H. I. H. Princess Kaya (Yoshiko), consort of the late Imperial Prince Kaya (Kuninori), was born on December 7, 1865, 1st daughter of the late Marquis Daigo (Tadayori).

The House of Kaya was founded in 1892 by the late Prince Kaya (Kuninori), 2nd son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko). The residence is at Sanbancho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

KUNI. H. I. H. Prince Kuni (Asaakira), Lieutenant-Commander in the Navy, 3rd of the line, was born on February 2, 1901, 1st son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Kuniyoshi). His consort, H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Tomoko), whom he married on January 26, 1925, was born on May 18, 1907, 3rd daughter of H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroyasu). There are four children: H. I. H. Prince Kuni (Kuniaki), born on March 25, 1929; H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Masako), born on December 8, 1926; H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Asako), born on October 23, 1927; and the third daughter, H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Michiko) was born on September 4, 1933.

H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Chikako), consort of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Kuniyoshi), mother of H. I. M. the Empress, was born on October 19, 1879, 7th daughter of the late Prince Shimazu (Tadayoshi) [Peer].

H. I. H. Prince Kuni (Taka), Chief Priest of the Grand Shrines of Isé, 5th son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko), was born on August 17, 1875. His consort, H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Shizuko), whom he married on March 9, 1907, was born on September 25, 1884, 1st daughter of the late Viscount Minasé (Takasuké). There are three children: H. I. H. Prince Kuni (Iyéhiko), born on March 17, 1920; H. I. H. Prince Kuni (Norihiko), born on November 19, 1922, and H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Kuniko), born on May 18, 1917.

The House of Kuni was founded in 1875 by the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko), 4th son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Kuniiyé). The residence is at Miyashiro-cho, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo.

NASHIMOTO. H. I. H. Prince Nashimoto (Morimasa), Field Marshal, was born on March 9, 1874, 4th son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko); ordered to inherit the Nashimotos, December 2, 1885; entered Central Military Preparatory School, 1886; graduated from Military Academy, May 27, 1898; Second Lieutenant, January, 1899; Captain, March 1901; sent to Europe for study, 1903; returned home and immediately sent to the front at the Russo-Japanese War, 1904; again in Europe for study, August 1906—July, 1909; Lieutenant-General and Commander of the 16th Division, August, 1917; High Military Councillor, November, 1919; General, August, 1923; Field Marshal, August, 8, 1932.

His consort, H. I. H. Princess Nashimoto (Itsuko), whom he married on November 28, 1900, was born on February 2, 1882, 2nd daughter of the late Marquis Nabéshima (Naohiro). The residence is at Mitaké-cho, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo.

ASAKA. H. I. H. Prince Asaka (Yasuhiko), Lieutenant-General, was born on October 2, 1887, 8th son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko). He founded the House of Asaka in 1906, was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Army in 1908, studied in Europe from 1922 to 1925 and is now a member of the High Military Council.

There are two children: H. I. H. Prince Asaka (Takahiko), Lieutenant in the Infantry, 1st son, born on October 8, 1912; and H. I. H. Princess Asaka (Kiyoko), 2nd daughter, born on August 2, 1919. The residence is at Shirokané Dai-machi, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

HIGASHI-KUNI. H. I. H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Naruhiko), Lieutenant-

General, was born on December 3, 1887, 9th son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko). He founded the House of Higashi-Kuni in 1906, was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Infantry in 1908, studied in France from 1920 to 1927, was given command of the 3rd Infantry Regiment of the Imperial Guard Division in 1928, was promoted to command of the Nagoya Brigade in 1930, Commander of the Fourth Division in 1934; High Military Councillor, 1935–.

H. I. H. Princess Higashi-Kuni (Toshiko), his consort, whom he married on May 18, 1915, was born on May 11, 1896, 9th daughter of the Emperor Meiji. There are three sons: H. I. H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Morihiro), 1st son, born on May 6, 1916; H. I. H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Akitsuné), 3rd son, born on May 13, 1920, and H. I. H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Toshihiko), 4th son, born on March 24, 1929. The residence is at Ichibei-cho, Azabu-ku, Tokyo.

KITASHIRAKAWA. H. I. H. Prince Kitashirakawa (Nagahisa), Lieutenant in the Artillery, 4th of the line, was born on February 19, 1910, only son of the late Imperial Prince Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa), who died in Paris in 1923. His consort, H. I. H. Princess Sachiko, whom he married on April 26, 1935, was born on August 26, 1916, second daughter of Baron Yoshikuni Tokugawa.

H. I. H. Princess Kitashirakawa (Fusako), consort of the late Prince Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa), 3rd of the line, was born on January 28, 1890, 7th daughter of the Emperor Meiji. One of her three daughters remains in the House: H. I. H. Princess Kitashirakawa (Tayéko), 3rd daughter, born on April 15, 1920.

The House of Kitashirakawa was founded in 1870 by the late Imperial Prince Kitashirakawa (Tomonari), 8th son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Kuniiyé). The residence is at Takanawa Minami-cho, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

TAKÉDA. H. I. H. Prince Takéda (Tsuneyoshi), Captain in the Cavalry, 2nd of the line, was born on March 4, 1909, only son of the late Imperial Prince Takéda (Tsunéhisa). He married Miss Mitsuko, second daughter of Prince Sanjo (Kinteru) [Peer], on May 12, 1934.

H. I. H. Princess Takéda (Masako), consort of the late Imperial Prince Takéda (Tsunéhisa), was born on September 30, 1888, 6th daughter of the Emperor Meiji.

The House of Takéda was founded in 1906 by Prince Takéda (Tsunéhisa), 1st son of the late Prince Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa). The residence is at Takanawa Minami-cho, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

Korean Royalty

Treatment equal to that accorded members of the Imperial House is given to members of the Royal House of Chosen, and a Civil List of ¥1,800,000 for their maintenance is included in the budget of the Chosen Government-General.

H. H. Prince RI (Gin), Colonel in the Infantry, head of the House of Shotoku-kyu since the death in 1926 of his brother, Prince Ri (Seki), former Emperor, was born on October 20, 1897, 7th son the late Grand Prince Ri (Kei). He studied at the Peers' School in Tokyo and the Military Academy in preparation for a military career. He was promoted to the rank of Colonel on August 1, 1935, and appointed Commander of the 59th Infantry Regiment.

H. H. Princess RI (Masako), whom he married in 1920, was born on November 4, 1901, 1st daughter of H. I. H. Prince Nashimoto (Morimasa). On promotion to the rank of Captain in 1923, the Prince was attached for a time to the Headquarters of the General Staff and in 1927–28 he and Princess Ri made a year's tour of Europe. They have a daughter Ri (Kyu) who was born on December 29, 1931.

H. H. Princess IN, consort of the late Prince Ri (Seki), was born on September 19, 1894, 1st daughter of Marquis In Taku-yei.

In Keijo, the capital of Chosen, the residence of this branch of the Royal House of Chosen is the Garyudo, and in Tokyo its residence is at Kioi-cho, Kojimachi-ku.

H. H. Prince RI (Ken), Captain in the Cavalry, heir of the retired Prince Ri (Ko), was born on October 28, 1909. On graduation from the Military Academy in 1930, he was appointed Lieutenant in the Cavalry, and was promoted to the rank of Captain on August, 1, 1936.

H. H. Princess RI (Yoshiko), whom Prince Ri (Ken) married in 1931, was born on October 6, 1911, 1st daughter of Captain Yutaka Matsudaira, of the Navy. Their first son, Ri (Chu), was born on August 14, 1932, second son Ri (Ki) was born on March 4, 1935.

H. H. Prince RI (Ko), 5th son of the late Grand Prince Ri (Kei), father of Prince Ri (Ken), was born on March 30, 1877. His consort, H. H. Princess Kin, whom he married in 1893, was born on December 22, 1880, 1st daughter of the late Baron Kin Shi-ei.

H. H. Prince RI (Gu) Lieutenant in

the Artillery, 2nd son of Prince Ri (Ko), was born on November 15, 1912, and in 1917 was made successor to the late Prince Ri (Shun), who had died heirless.

H. H. Princess RI (Sanshu), whom Prince Ri (Gu) married on May 3, 1935, was born on November 11, 1914, granddaughter of Marquis Boku-Ei. They have on child Prince Ri (Sei) who was born on April 23, 1936.

H. H. Princess RI, consort of the late Prince RI (Ki), was born on July 10, 1883.

H. H. Princess Kin, consort of the late Prince Ri (Shun), was born on July 8, 1878, 1st daughter of Kin Zai-tei.

Former Princes

In accordance with the Imperial Household Law, Princes of the Imperial Family may be created peers, either by order of the Emperor or at their own wishes, with family names to be granted by the Emperor. The following table shows those living who have renounced membership in the Imperial Family :

Name	Princely Father	Year of Change
Marquis Komatsu (Teruhisa)	Late Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	1910
Marquis Yamashina (Yoshimaro)	„ Yamashina (Kikumaro)	1920
Marquis Kwacho (Hironobu)	Fushimi (Hiroyasu)	1926
Marquis Tsukuba (Fujimaro)	Late Yamashina (Kikumaro)	1928
Count Katsuragi (Shigemaro)	„ „ „	1929
Count Higashi-Fushimi (Kunihidé)	„ Kuni (Kuniyoshi)	1931
Marquis Otowa (Tadahiko)	Asaka (Yasuhiko)	1936
Count Fushimi (Hirohidé)	Fushimi (Hiroyasu)	1936

Former Princesses

The following table shows Princesses of the Imperial Family and the Royal House of Chosen who have married into the families of Peers :

Name	Princely Father	Consort	Year of Marriage
Ayako	Late Kuni (Asahiko)	Late Viscount Takenouchi (Koretada)	1892
Yeiko	„ „ „ „	Viscount Higashizono (Motoharu)	1899
Teiko	„ Fushimi (Sadanaru)	Marquis Yamanouchi (Toyokage)	1901
Sadako	„ Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	Count Arima (Yoriyasu)	1903
Mitsuko	„ „ „	Count Kanroji (Osanaga)	1904
Suzuko	„ Kuni (Asahiko)	Count Mibu (Motoyoshi)	1906
Takeko	„ Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	Viscount Hoshina (Masaaki)	1911
Shigeko	Kan-in (Kotohito)	Kuroda (Nagamichi), heir of Marquis	1914
Yukiko	Late Kaya (Kuninori)	Machijiri (Kazumoto), heir of Viscount	1915
Hiroko	„ Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	Count Futaara (Yoshinori)	1915
Yukiko	Kan-in (Kotohito)	Viscount Ando (Nobuaki)	1915
Yasuko	Late Yamashina (Kikumaro)	Asano (Nagatake), heir of Marquis	1920
Satoko	„ Kuni (Kuniyoshi)	Count Otani (Kocho)	1924
Nobuko	„ „ „	Sanjo-nishi (Kin-osa), heir of Viscount	1924
Noriko	Nashimoto (Morimasa)	Count Hirohashi (Tadamitsu)	1926
Hanako	Kan-in (Kotohito)	Marquis Kwacho (Hironobu)	1926
Tokukei	Late Ri (Kei)	Count So (Takeyuki)	1931
Kikuko	Asaka (Yasuhiko)	Nabeshima (Naoyasu), heir of Marquis	1931
Mineko	Late Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa)	Tachibana (Tanekatsu), heir of Viscount	1933
Ayako	„ Takeda (Tsunehisa)	Sano (Tsunemitsu) heir of Count	1934
Sawako	„ Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa)	Viscount Higashizono (Motobumi)	1935

Palaces, Gardens, etc.

Imperial Palace The residence of the Emperor covers an area of about 531 acres in Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo. Originally built in 1457 by a provincial general, Dokan Ota, who named it Yédo Castle, it became the headquarters of the Tokugawa Shogunate in the 16th century and was greatly extended. With the transfer of the capital from Kyoto to Tokyo in 1869, the second year of the Meiji Restoration, it was selected as the Imperial Residence and renamed Tokyo Castle. Much of it was destroyed in the great fire of 1873. The present palace, built between 1880 and 1888, cost ¥3,968,000. On completion, the name was changed to Kyujo, or Imperial Palace.

Other Palaces (1) Kyoto Palace. Situated in Kamikyo-ku, Kyoto it was the Imperial Residence for 1,075 years, from 794 A. D., when the capital was moved from Nara to Kyoto, until 1869, when the seat of government was transferred to Tokyo. In accordance with the Accession Law, the ceremony of ascension to the Throne is always held here. The grounds cover about 229 acres.

(2) Aoyama Palace. Situated in Akasaka-ku, Tokyo, the palace was formerly the residence of the Lord of Tamba, but in 1873 the late Empress Dowager Yeisho made it her home. Within its large park is the residence of the Imperial Prince Sumi.

(3) Omiya Palace. Also within the park of the Aoyama Palace, it is the residence of the Empress Dowager, mother of the reigning Emperor.

(4) Shinjuku Imperial Garden. At Naito-Shinjuku-machi, Yotsuya-ku, Tokyo, the garden was originally the site of the residence of the Lord of the Takato Clan in Shinano, but in 1879 it came under the control of the Imperial Household Department and in 1906 was given its present name. Here are held the spring and autumn Imperial garden parties.

(5) Akasaka Detached Palace. Also on part of the former property of the Lord of Kii, in Akasaka-ku, Tokyo, it was made a detached palace in 1872 and became a temporary residence of the Imperial Family from 1873 to 1889 during the construction of the present Imperial palace. Royal and princely visitors from abroad are guests here while in Tokyo.

(6) Hama Detached Palace. Situated in Tsukiji, Kyobashi-ku, Tokyo, its grounds were used by the Shoguns in feudal times for falconry and are now the scene of Imperial duck-hunting parties.

(7) Kasumigaseki Detached Palace. Formerly the residence of the late Imperial Prince Arisugawa, it is located behind the Foreign Office in Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

(8) Nijo Detached Palace. Originally Nijo Castle, in Nakagyo-ku, Kyoto, it was made a detached palace in 1884.

(9) Katsura Detached Palace. Located at Katsura, Ukyo-ku, Kyoto, it was formerly the residence of Prince Katsura [Katsura-no-miya] and became a detached palace in 1883.

(10) Shugakuin Detached Palace. Widely known for its beautiful garden, it was built by the Tokugawa Shogunate in the reign of the Emperor Gomizunoo at what is now Shugakuin, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto, and was made a detached palace in 1883.

(11) Hakoné Detached Palace. On Lake Ashi in the Hakoné region, it was seriously damaged in the 1923 earthquake and has been left unrepaired.

(12) Muko Detached Palace. At Suma, Kobé, it became a detached palace in 1908.

(13) Hayama Imperial Villa. Because of its proximity to Tokyo, at Hayama-machi, Kanagawa prefecture, it is a favourite retreat, especially in the winter. Here the Emperor Taisho died in 1926.

(14) Taté-ishi Rest-House. It is located at Nishiura-mura, Miuragun, Kanagawa prefecture.

(15) Numazu Imperial Villa. The palace is at Agehara-machi, Numazu, on Suruga Bay, Shizuoka prefecture.

(16) Nikko Imperial Villa. Nikko-machi, Tochigi prefecture, is the location.

(17) Tamozawa Imperial Villa. This also is at Nikko-machi, Tochigi prefecture.

(18) Shiobara Imperial Villa. The palace is at Shiobara-machi, Tochigi prefecture, a district noted for its maples.

(19) Ikao Imperial Estate. This estate or preserve is at Ikao-machi, a mountain resort in Gumma prefecture.

(20) Nasu Imperial Villa. Mountain views are the main attraction of Nasumura, Nasu-gun, Tochigi prefecture, where the palace is situated.

(21) Nagara River Preserve. This preserve for ayu lies in Gujo-gun, Mugigun and Inaba-gun, Gifu prefecture.

(22) Yédo River Preserve. There are two parts, one in Higashi-Katsushika-gun, Chiba prefecture, and the other in Minami-Saitama-gun and Kita-Katsushika-gun, Saitama prefecture. The preserve abounds in water-hens, herons, snipes, quails, white swans, wild geese, ducks, plovers, pheasants, water-rails, etc.

(23) Jintsu River Preserve. This preserve for trout, salmon and other fish is located in Nei-gun and Kami-Niikawa-gun, Toyama prefecture.

In 1930, the Nagoya Detached Palace was donated to Nagoya city; and the Odawara Imperial Villa and Shizuoka Imperial Villa were abolished, part of the latter being granted to Shizuoka city. In 1931, the Atami Imperial Villa and Kamakura Imperial Villa were abolished and the former was sold to Atami-machi.

Miyanoshita Imperial Villa was abolished, December, 1933, and given to H. I. H. Imperial Prince Takamatsu.

Imperial Household Finance

The Civil List is appropriated by the National Treasury and no approval of

the Diet is necessary except when an increase in it is required. At present, it amounts to ¥4,500,000, any deficiency in it being met by an outlay from the Imperial property. The Board of Imperial Auditors is located in the Imperial Household Department and its present Director-General is Mr. Yahachi Kawai. Prince Saionji, Baron Ikki and Count Makino are financial advisers to the Imperial Household.

The total Imperial Household expenditure is estimated at approximately ¥20,000,000 annually and is met by the Civil List, and by receipts from the Imperial forests, Imperial estates and other Imperial property.

The Naidaijin-fu

The Naidaijin, Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals, who has been so called from olden times, is a dignitary of the Imperial Household with the function of keeping the Imperial and State Seals and of administering matters regarding Imperial decrees and documents of the Imperial Household. He is a State functionary of the Shinnin rank, or one appointed directly by the Emperor, and is assisted by three secretaries in the execution of his duty.

Present Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals is Mr. Kurahei Yuasa.

The Imperial Household Department

The Imperial Household Department is divided into the office of the Minister of the Imperial Household and ten principal subsidiary offices, namely, the Secretariat of the Minister, the Board of Chamberlains, the Board of Ceremonies, the Imperial Family and Peerage Board, the Imperial Mausolea Bureau, the Imperial Archives Bureau, the Court Physicians Bureau, the Imperial Treasury Bureau, the Maintenance and Works Bureau, and the Imperial Stables Bureau, and is charged with the conduct of affairs pertaining to the Imperial Household. There are, in addition to those above mentioned, such other institutions as follows coming under the supervision of the Minister of the Imperial Household :

The Office of H. I. M. the Empress' Household,
The Office of H. I. M. the Empress Dowager's Household,
The Board of the Imperial Auditors,
The Imperial Forests and Estates Board,
The Imperial Poetry Bureau,
The Imperial Museums (at Tokyo and Nara),
The Peers' School,
The Peers' School for Girls,
The Temporary Board for the Compilation of the History of the Emperor Meiji.

Since 1884, it has been placed outside the pale of the administrative system, so that the Minister is in no way affected by any Cabinet change.

The present and preceding Ministers of the Imperial Household Department are :

Name	Time of Appointment
Late Prince Hirobumi Ito	Dec., 1885
Late Marquis Hisamoto Hijikata	Sept., 1887
Viscount Mitsuaki Tanaka	Feb., 1898
Late Prince Tomosada Iwakura	June, 1909
Viscount Chiaki Watanabé	April, 1910
Baron Takatada Hatano	April, 1914
Late Baron Yujiro Nakamura	June, 1920
Count Nobuaki Makino	Feb., 1921
Baron Kitokuro Ikki	Mar., 1925
Kurahei Yuasa	Mar., 1933
Tsuneo Matsudaira	Mar., 1936

The Peerage

The modern system of the Peerage, with its five grades of Prince, Marquis, Count, Viscount and Baron, dates from 1884, but prior to this there was a well-established aristocracy. Up to the time of the Meiji Restoration, there were two groups, the Court Nobles, called Kugé, most of whom were descendants of younger sons of Emperors, and the Feudal Lords, called Daimyo or Tonosama, most of whom had attained their standing through military prowess. With the Restoration, these were amalgamated under the name of Kwazoku (Peerage), meaning the "Flowers of the Nation". In 1884, an Imperial edict was issued establishing the five grades of the present Peerage, and to the members of the Kwazoku were added subjects who had assisted in the work of the Restoration. In the first list there were 11 Princes, 24 Marquises, 76 Counts, 376 Viscounts and 382 Barons.

When Chosen was annexed in 1910, 67 Koreans of distinction were selected to become Peers, six Marquises, three Counts, 22 Viscounts and 45 Barons.

The families of the Peerage stood as follows on April, 1936 :

Grade	Number of Families	Korean Peers
Prince	19	—
Marquis	41	7
Count	109	3
Viscount	377	17
Baron	410	33
Total	956	60

Decorations

To recognize and reward persons who render distinguished and meritorious service to the State, orders of merit and decorations were created in 1875 and supplemented in later years. The orders of merit, of which there are nine—the Grand Order and numerical orders from 1st to 8th—are only nominal and serve to indicate the class of decoration to which a holder is entitled. The decorations themselves are of seven kinds :

Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum There are two kinds, the Collar of the Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum and the Grand Cordon of the Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum, both reserved for those given the Grand Order of Merit. The first, the highest Japanese decoration, is a gold chain or necklace from which is hung a small medallion representing a chrysanthemum, to which is fastened a large sunburst flanked with chrysanthemum flowers and leaves. The second is marked by the same medallions, but worn at the left hip at the bottom of a cordon or ribbon of red with purple edges hung from the right shoulder.

Rising Sun and Paulownia This is a single decoration, combining the devices of two lesser orders, known as the Grand Cordon of the Imperial Order of the Rising Sun with Paulownia Flowers which is awarded only to holders of the 1st Class Order of Merit. From a cordon of red with two white stripes, worn over the right shoulder and falling to the opposite hip, are suspended a small medallion showing paulownia flowers and leaves and a larger medallion, below it, of a double-rayed rising sun flanked with paulownia flowers.

Rising Sun There are six classes, from the Grand Cordon of the Rising Sun, to which holders of the 1st Class Order of Merit are eligible, to the 6th Class Order of the Rising Sun, which holders of the 6th Class Order of Merit may receive. Foreigners in the employ of the Government are often awarded this decoration, usually the 3rd, 4th, 5th or 6th class, after long and meritorious service. This decoration may, but not necessarily, carry an annuity.

Paulownia Two classes exist, sometimes referred to as the 7th and 8th classes of the Order of the Rising Sun. The Order of the Blue Paulownia is for holders of the 7th Order of Merit, and the Order of the White Paulownia for holders of the 8th Class Order of Merit.

Sacred Treasure Known as the Imperial Order of the Sacred Treasure. Of this order there are eight classes. The medallion represents the Mirror and Gem of the Imperial Regalia, and the cordon is of light blue with two orange stripes.

Precious Crown Its full name is the Imperial Order of the Precious Crown. The eight classes of this order are bestowed on women only, who were barred from receiving any other decoration until 1919, when they were also made eligible for the Order of the Sacred Treasure. The medallion shows the Precious Crown, with cherry blossoms and bamboo, and the cordon is of yellow with two scarlet stripes.

Golden Kite Purely a military order, known as the Imperial Military Order of the Golden Kite, this has seven classes. The cordon is green with two white stripes. It carries a life annuity, fixed in 1916 at ¥1,500 for the 1st Class ; ¥1,000, 2nd Class ; ¥700, 3rd Class ; ¥500, 4th Class ; ¥350, 5th Class ; ¥250, 6th Class, and ¥150, 7th Class. This is granted to the family for one year following the recipient's death, or, if he has died within five years of being decorated, until the end of that period.

Holders of any decorations who are sentenced to death, penal servitude or imprisonment for more than three years are deprived of decorations, accompanying diplomas and, if any, annuities. They may also be ordered to surrender them if guilty of acts of dishonour, depending on the circumstances.

Cultural Decoration Creation of the cultural order to be awarded to those who have made outstanding contributions to science, arts, literature or other fields of culture was announced on February 11, 1937. There are no grades or classes in the decoration. The devise consists of three replicas of the Sacred Jewels, symbolizing philanthropy and virtue, placed in the centre of a white tachibana blossom, (a kind of mandarin orange, Citrus tachibana Tanaka), and the decoration is suspended from a light purple ribbon worn around the collar.

Medals of Honour The Medal with Red Riband is conferred on persons who

risk their lives in rescuing others; the Medal with Green Riband on those who distinguish themselves for filial piety, feminine virtues, devotion to the aged and loyalty to masters; the Medal with Blue Riband on those who aid public and private undertakings by important discoveries or inventions; the Medal with Dark Navy Blue Riband on those who contribute money or property for public welfare; and the Medal with Yellow Riband, divided into two classes, gold and silver, on persons who help undertakings connected with coast defence. Cups of gold or wood or monetary gifts are sometimes granted simultaneously to the recipients.

Court Rank

Court rank is specially conferred on persons who distinguish themselves in service to the State, peers and their heirs, officials and army and navy officers. There are 16 grades, from the senior grade of the first rank to the junior grade of the eighth rank, and all affairs pertaining to them are administered by the Imperial Family and Peerage Board in the Imperial Household Department in accordance with the Court Rank Act, promulgated in 1926.

There were 251,502 holders of Court rank at the end of 1935, divided as follows:

First	Senior	—	Junior	1
Second	,,	31	,,	64
Third	,,	436	,,	803
Fourth	,,	1,910	,,	4,095
Fifth	,,	9,232	,,	12,430
Sixth	,,	14,823	,,	19,078
Seventh	,,	32,853	,,	62,230
Eighth	,,	91,470	,,	2,046

Stick Granted to the Aged

In the 12th century, Toshinari Fujiwara, a Court noble, was granted on the celebration of his 90th birthday a stick for use in Court by the Emperor Gotoba. This honour, known as Kyuchuzuyé or Hatozuyé because the stick has a pigeon top, is today bestowed on Court dignitaries and officials and officers of high rank who have passed the age of 80 in recognition of signal service to the Court and the State, though it is marked by a monetary gift in lieu of an actual stick. Living holders follow:

Prince Saionji (Kimmochi)
Count Kiyoura (Keigo)
Baron Kuratomi (Yuzaburo)
Count Tanaka (Mitsuaki)
Viscount Kaneko (Kentaro)
Viscount Kurino (Shinichiro)
Viscount Ishiguro (Tadanori)
Baron Yamamoto (Tatsuo)
Sakamoto (Kinnosuké)
Baron Uryu (Sotokichi)

Court Artists

For the promotion and encouragement of fine arts, representative artists are chosen by a special committee in the Court and their appointment as Court artists is made by the Minister of the Imperial Household. The artists may produce objects of art for the Court or present opinions upon Imperial enquiries on questions pertaining to arts. Koun Takamura died in October, 1934 and new members were appointed in December, 1934, and the present Court artists are as follows:

Sculptor	Choun Yamazaki
Painters	Seiho Takeuchi
	Gyokudo Kawai
	Taikwan Yokoyama
	Yukihiko Yasuda
	Kansetsu Hashimoto
	Keigetsu Kikuchi
	Eisaku Wada
	Saburosuké Okada
	Takeji Fujishima
Architect	Iwajiro Sasaki
Metal Carver	Kamezo Shimizu
Metal Worker	Shushin Kâtori
Ceramist	Hazan Itaya

State Funerals

There had been no special provision for the State Funeral for honoured personages, although it had been held several times since the 16th year of Meiji, or 1883. The Government, however, issued the State Funeral Ordinance as an Imperial Order in 1926. According to the Ordinance, the State Funeral is held with distinguished rituals, its expenses being borne by the National Treasury. There are two kinds of State Funeral, i.e. the one for Imperial Personages and the other for the subjects. The former is still divided into two, the first one is called the Grand Funeral and is for the Emperor, the Great Empress Dowager, the Empress Dowager and the Empress, while the second one is called the Imperial Funeral and is for the Crown Prince, the Crown Princess, the Emperor's grandson and his consort, the Regent Imperial Prince or Emperor's daughters or children. Both the Grand and Imperial Funerals are held under special ritual according to the

Provisions of the Imperial House Funeral Ordinance.

The State Funeral for the subjects is held in honour of those who contributed distinguished services to the country by the special order of the Emperor and the ritual and order of the Funeral is fixed by the Premier with the Imperial sanction.

State Funerals have been accorded to the following since the beginning of the Meiji Era :

Prince Iwakura (Tomomi) [Peer]	1883
Prince Shimazu (Hisamitsu) [Peer]	1887
Prince Sanjo (Sanetomi) [Peer]	1891
Prince Arisugawa (Taruhito)	1895
Prince Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	1895
Prince Mori (Motonori) [Peer]	1896
Prince Shimazu (Tadayoshi) [Peer]	1897
Prince Komatsu (Akihiko)	1903
Prince Ito (Hirobumi) [Peer]	1909
Prince Arisugawa (Takehito)	1913
Prince Oyama (Iwao) [Peer]	1916
Grand Prince Ri (Kei)	1919
Prince Yamagata (Aritomo) [Peer]	1922
Prince Fushimi (Sadanaru)	1923
Marquis Matsukata (Masayoshi)	1924
Prince Ri (Seki)	1926
Marquis Togo (Heihachiro)	1934

Imperial Interest in Social Work

On various occasions of great importance in the Imperial Household, grants of money are made from the Privy Purse for social welfare, instances of which follow :

Year	Occasion	Purpose or Recipient	Amount in Yen
1897	Empress Dowager Yeisho's Funeral	—Charity	400,000
1912	Emperor Meiji's Funeral	—Charity	1,000,000
1914	Empress Dowager Shoken's Funeral	—Charity	600,000
1915	Emperor Taisho's Enthronement	—Charity	1,000,000
1924	Prince Regent's Wedding	—Promotion of social works	1,000,000
	,,	—Encouragement for the poor to send children to school	1,000,000
1925	Emperor Taisho's Silver Wedding	—Young Men's and Women's Ass'ns	750,000
	,,	—Cultural Bodies in the Colonies	250,000
1927	Emperor Taisho's Funeral	—Charity	1,500,000
1928	Demise of Princess Hisa, the Emperor's daughter	—Protection of the young	50,000
1929	Emperor's Enthronement	—Charity	1,500,000
1934	Birth of the Crown Prince, Akihito	—Protection of mothers and the young	750,000

Since 1879, it has been the custom of the Imperial House to make monetary contributions when there are floods, fires, railway accidents, violent winds, shipwrecks, earthquakes, famines, volcanic eruptions, mine explosions, etc. Immediately after the great earthquake and fire of 1923, a grant of ¥10,000,000 was made for relief.

A fund of ¥1,500,000 in 1911 for extension of medical treatment to the poor was used to found the Saisei-kai, the Imperial Charity Association, which continues active today. Additional money for this work was included in the grant of ¥3,000,000 in 1932 for relief of the poor, and it was extended to the Colonies by a grant of ¥300,000 to the Overseas Ministry.

With the ¥1,000,000 granted on the occasion of the wedding of the present Emperor, Viscount Kiyoura, Premier at the time, established the Keifuku-kai, Beatitude Association, for promotion of social work done by private bodies. On every Kigensetsu, the anniversary of the foundation of the country, which takes place on February 11, Imperial grants are made directly to public and private social welfare organizations. At first limited to such organizations as the Japan Red Cross Society, the Women's Patriotic Association, the Imperial Association for the Support of Soldiers, the Salvation Army, the Fukuden-kai (Charity Association) Orphanage and the Tokyo Asylum, these grants have been greatly increased since 1921 and now go even to superior private bodies in Chosen, Taiwan, Karafuto, the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Sea Islands.

In 1932, a grant of ¥1,500,000 was made to the Association for the Promotion of Learning through the Education Minister.

Since the days of the Emperor Meiji, it has been customary for the Emperor, while travelling in the provinces to supervise the grand military and naval manoeuvres or on observation tours, to send representatives to various welfare organizations to present money or other gifts.

Also since the beginning of the Meiji Era, the Emperor, the Empress, the Empress Dowager and the Imperial Princes and Princesses have frequently visited

charity hospitals, schools for the blind and dumb and other social welfare institutions. Many such organizations have Princes and Princesses of the Blood as presidents. The present Empress Dowager is particularly interested in the relief of lepers and in 1930 granted funds to all bodies engaged in this work.

Court Rituals

GRAND RITUALS. The Grand Rituals are those conducted by the Emperor personally, with Princes and Princesses of the Blood, Court dignitaries and officials and officers of high rank in attendance. Brief descriptions follow :

Genshisai, the celebration of the auspicious origin of the Imperial Throne at the beginning of the year, is performed on January 3 by the Emperor at the Three Shrines in the grounds of the Imperial Palace, the Kashikodokoro, where the Sacred Mirror is installed, the Koreiden, the shrine of the Imperial Ancestors, and the Shinden, the sanctuary of Shinto deities.

Kigensetsusai, to celebrate the ascension to the Throne of the Emperor Jimmu, is performed by the Emperor at the Three Shrines on February 11. In the evening sacred music and dances are given in a pavilion in front of the Koreiden.

Shunki-Koreisai, for the worship of preceding Emperors and Empresses and Princes and Princesses of Imperial lineage, takes place in the Koreiden on the day of the vernal equinox.

Shunki-Shindensai, performed on the same day in the Shinden, is to offer thanks to the Gods of Heaven and Earth for their blessings and to petition for their continuance.

Jimmu-Tennosai, which takes place in the Koreiden, marks the anniversary of the demise of the founder of the country, the Emperor Jimmu, on April 3. To his mausoleum is dispatched on the same day a Court official representing the Emperor to make offerings. At fixed intervals, the Emperor personally conducts the rite at the mausoleum.

Shuki-Koreisai and Shuki-Shindensai are identical in form and purpose with the vernal equinox rituals but take place on the day of the autumn equinox.

Kannamé-no-Matsuri, the ritual of offering thanks for the harvest and new rice to the soul of the Imperial Ancestress, Amaterasu-Omikami, which takes place in the Grand Shrines of Isé on October 16 and 17, is duplicated in the Kashiko-dokoro at the Imperial Palace on October 17.

Niinamé-no-Matsuri, conducted between November 23 and 24, is marked by the Emperor partaking of new rice after offering it to the Imperial Ancestress, Amaterasu-Omikami, and all the Gods of Heaven and Earth. The same ritual, when performed at the Emperor's enthronement, is called Daijo-sai.

Taisho-Tennosai marks the anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Taisho, the Emperor's father, and is celebrated in the Koreiden on December 25. In the evening, sacred music and dances are performed in a pavilion in front of the shrine. A court official representing the Emperor is sent on the same day to the mausoleum of the Emperor Taisho to make offerings, a rite which the Emperor himself performs at fixed intervals.

ORDINARY RITUALS. These are Court rituals which the Emperor does not conduct personally, but which he attends with the Princes and Princesses of the Blood, Court dignitaries and officials and officers of high rank.

Saitansai, held at dawn on January 1 at the Three Shrines, is for worship of the Imperial Ancestors and the Gods offering thanks to them for the grace of Heaven and supplicating for its continuance.

Komei-Tennosai marks the anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Komei, great-grandfather of the Emperor, and is held in the Koreiden on January 30. The rite of presenting offerings at his mausoleum is performed on the same day.

Kinensai, held on February 17 in the Three Shrines is the ritual of praying for a bountiful harvest and for the continued prosperity and well-being of the Imperial House and the nation. A Court official representing the Emperor is dispatched on the same day to the Grand Shrines of Isé to make offerings and offerings are also presented at various other shrines.

Ninko-Tennosai, marking the anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Ninko, great-great-grandfather of the Emperor, is performed on February 22 in the Koreiden. Offerings are made and a ritual conducted at his mausoleum on the same day.

Tenchosetsusai, held in the Three Shrines on April 29, the birthday of the Emperor, is the ritual of praying for the longevity of His Majesty.

Meiji-Tennosai is observed in the Koreiden on July 30 to mark the anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Meiji, grandfather of the Emperor. Of

ferings are made and a ritual performed at his mausoleum on the same day.

Meijisetsusai is held on November 3 to praise the great achievements of the Emperor Meiji, to remember his high virtues, to invigorate and develop the spirit of the national revival in the Meiji Era and to pray for increased national prosperity.

Kashikodokoro-Mikagura, a sacred dance, is held in the Kashikodokoro in the middle of December. As no definite date is fixed, an auspicious day is named every year by Imperial order.

OTHER RITUALS. The Imperial Court also observes several rituals not specified in the Court Ritual Act :

Shunsai, Tenth-day Ceremony, is held on the 1st, 11th and 21st of every month except January 1, the Emperor observes the ceremony for the Gods more elaborately than on the usual days.

Futsukasai and Mikkasai are performed on January 2 and 3, with the New Year's Day Ceremony. These are observed with specially elaborate rituals.

Joyasai, New Year's Eve Ceremony. At the end of the year the Emperor gives thanks to the Gods for their benevolence throughout the year and prays for blessings in the coming year.

Yo-ori, the rite for purification of the person of the Emperor, is held in the Phoenix Hall of the Imperial Palace on June 30 and December 31.

O-harai, held on the same days as Yo-ori, is a similar rite for the purification of all officials and officers from sins committed unconsciously.

SPECIAL CEREMONIES. Two special ceremonies at the Imperial Court are worthy of note :

Kosho-Hajimé, or the ceremony of delivering lectures in the Court at the beginning of the New Year, takes place in the presence of the Emperor and Empress, Princes and Princesses of the Blood and Court dignitaries in the Phoenix Hall. Usually three lecturers are chosen, with three others held in reserve, from the nation's most erudite scholars of Japanese classics, Chinese classics and Western learning to lecture on subjects related to their specialties.

Utakai-Hajimé, or the Imperial New Year Poetry Party, is usually held in the middle of January in the presence of the Emperor and Empress, Princes and Princesses of the Blood and high Court dignitaries. Though long in existence, it became one of the most important annual ceremonies in 1869. A few months in advance, the Imperial Household Minister announces the theme for the waka, or tanka, poems of 31 syllables, to be submitted. For the honour of having a poem read in the ceremony, anyone may compete. In addition to those by subjects, poems by the Emperor and Empress and other members of the Imperial Family are read.

CHAPTER I

GEOGRAPHY

Position and Extent

The Japanese Empire, wholly within the Asiatic half of the North Pacific, consists of Japan proper and various colonies. At the time of the Meiji Restoration, 1868, there were the four large continental islands of Honshu, or Hondo, usually known as the Mainland, Kyushu, Shikoku and Hokkaido, or Yezo, and 4,068 adjacent islands of smaller size. Russia ceded the long chain of islands called the Chishima, or the Kuriles, in 1875. The Ogasawara-jima, or Bonin Islands, were formally annexed in 1877, and the Ryukyu, or Loochoo Islands, in 1879, though both groups had been earlier under Japanese control. All these areas today constitute Japan proper.

The Colonies The first colony, Taiwan, or Formosa, with the adjacent islands called the Bokoto, or Pescadores, was ceded by China in 1895 following the Sino-Japanese War. The Russo-Japanese War brought Karafuto, or the southern half of the island of Saghalien, and, in Manchuria, the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone. Chosen or Korea, was annexed in 1910. The mandated Caroline, Mariana and Marshall Islands, former German possessions in the South Seas, were received by Japan at the Versailles Peace Conference, 1919. With the exception of the Aleutians, the northern half of Saghalien, the Philippines, North Borneo, Hawaii and a few small scattered islands, including Guam, the Empire spreads over all the islands in the Pacific north of the equator.

The most northern part of the Empire, the island of Araito in the Chishima, touches 50° 55′ N. Lat. The southern extreme is in the mandated Caroline Islands, 1° 01′ N. Lat. To the west, the Bokoto extend to 119° 18′ E. Long., and to the east, the mandated Marshall Islands reach 172° 10′ E. Long.

Length and Width If the South Sea Islands, the Kwantung Leased Territory the South Manchuria Railway Zone and the continental peninsula of Chosen are omitted, the Empire is a semi-circle of islands extending in latitude from 21° 45′ N. to 50° 55′ N., approximately 3,330 kilometres, and in longitude from 119° 18′ E. to 156° 30′ E., with a maximum width of about 320 kilometres.

Area

The Home Ministry's investigation puts the total area of the Empire at the end of March, 1935, at 681,280.93 square kilometres, distributed as shown in the following table :

	Area in sq. km.
Grand Total	681,274.75
Japan proper	382,545.42
Honshu	230,532.32
Shikoku	18,772.83
Kyushu	42,078.99
Hokkaido	88,775.04
Ryukyu	2,386.24
Chosen	220,768.65
Taiwan	35,834.35
Bokoto	126.86
Karafuto	36,090.30
Kwantung Leased Territory	3,462.45
South Sea Mandated Islands	2,148.80
S. M. R. Zone	297.92

Japan proper occupies 56.6 per cent of the total area, while Chosen occupies 32.6 per cent., Taiwan 5.3 per cent. and Karafuto 5.3 per cent. each.

The area of each prefecture in Japan proper arranged in the order of size follows :

AREA OF PREFECTURES
(In sq. km.)

			%
1.	Hokkaido	88,775.04	23.2
2.	Iwate	15,235.31	4.0
3.	Fukushima	13,781.61	3.6
4.	Nagano	13,626.13	3.6
5.	Niigata	12,578.05	3.3
6.	Akita	11,663.86	3.0
7.	Gifu	10,494.70	2.7
8.	Aomori	9,630.92	2.5
9,	Yamagata	9,325,76	2.4
10.	Kagoshima	9,103.81	2.4
11.	Hiroshima	8,436.52	2.2
12.	Hyogo	8,322.85	2.2
13.	Shizuoka	7,769.91	2.0
14.	Miyazaki	7,738.85	2.0
15.	Kumamoto	7,437 75	1.9
16.	Miyagi	7,273.75	1.9
17.	Kohchi	7,103.62	1.8

			%
18.	Okayama	7,046.48	1.8
19.	Shimane	6,624.60	1.7
20.	Tochigi	6,436.59	1.7
21.	Gumma	6,335.87	1.7
22.	Oita	6,333.87	1.7
23.	Ibaraki	6,090.99	1.6
24.	Yamaguchi	6,082 11	1.6
25.	Mie	5,765.28	1.5
26.	Ehime	5,667.26	1.5
27.	Aichi	5,081.14	1.3
28.	Chiba	5,062.09	1.3
29.	Fukuoka	4,939.70	1.3
30.	Wakayama	4,723.48	1.2
31.	Kyoto	4,621.20	1.2
32.	Yamanashi	4,465.87	1.2
33.	Fukui	4,264.48	1.1
34.	Toyama	4,257.42	1.1
35.	Ishikawa	4,192.42	1.1
36.	Tokushima	4,143.22	1.1
37.	Nagasaki	4,075.98	1.1
38.	Shiga	4,050.93	1.0
39.	Saitama	3,802.68	1.0
40.	Nara	3,688.60	1.0
41.	Tottori	3,489.48	0.9
42.	Saga	2,449.03	0.6
43.	Okinawa	2,386.24	0.6
44.	Kanagawa	2,352.81	0.6
45.	Tokyo	2,144.80	0,6
46.	Kagawa	1,858.73	0.5
47.	Osaka	1,813.63	0.5
Total		382,545.42	100.0

Atmospheric Conditions

The average atmospheric pressure of 1935 was highest in Chosen, Manchuria and China, recording 761–763 mm., the highest being 763.3 mm. of Tsinan. The meteorological stations in the Main Island recorded about 761 mm. as in the previous year, and in Hokkaido, Karafuto and the South Sea Islands the pressure was lower in general, the lowest being 756.8 mm. at Truk. It was mostly above 760 mm. in Formosa and Loochoo.

In the same year, the mean temperature rose higher than 20° C. in Nasé of Kyushu, Formosa, Loochoo, Bonin and South Sea Islands, the highest being 26° 9′ at Palau. In Shikoku, Kyushu and the districts which face the Pacific Ocean, ending with the Tokyo Gulf at the northernmost, it was about 16°; in the districts west of Kyoto in the Main Island 15°; in the eastern mountainous districts 10°–13°, in the north-eastern districts 10°; in Hokkaido mostly 5°, except 8° at the southern end; and in Karafuto 3°, the lowest being 0.3′ at Shisuka. In Chosen, it was 10°–14° in the south and 3° at the most northerly border. In Manchoukuo it was about 10°. The highest record was 35° 7′ at Taito in Formosa, 37° 5′ at Saga in Kyushu, and the lowest 28° 0′ below zero at Asahigawa in Hokkaido, 32° 2′ below zero at Shisuka in Karafuto.

In 1935 places where the annual quantity of precipitation was more than 3,000 mm. were Hachijo Island, Odaigahara and Palau. In the Main Island it was 1,000–2,000 mm.; in Hokkaido 900–1,000.; in Karafuto 600–1,000 mm.

The average velocity of the wind does not vary much in the plains, being from one metre to three metres per second; but at Ibuki-yama, the Boko Islands, Shana, Hachijojima, Niigata, and Choshi it was more than 5 metres. Shana, Tsukuba, Hakoné, Ibuki, Uwajima, and Ishigaki experienced a maximum velocity of more than 30 metres per second.

The Kansai Typhoon in 1934. A record typhoon raged throughout the south-western half of Japan on September 21, 1934, velocity of which was reported to have exceeded 60 metres per second. According to the investigations made by the Home Ministry, it affected 35 prefectures. In Osaka prefecture the dead numbered 1,624 and the wounded together with the missing numbered 5,729. Houses totally damaged numbered 9,937. The total casualties numbered 2,499 dead, 8,399 wounded and 568 missing. Houses damaged totalled 376,350, of which 34,576 collapsed entirely. The number of school buildings damaged was 289.

Meantime, the damages wrought on workshops in Osaka prefecture were estimated at ¥30,000,000 covering 1,200 in number. These workshops were confined to those which employ more than five operatives. If, therefore, to the above damages are added damages inflicted upon small-scale workshops the total damages are undoubtedly far greater than described in the above.

Meteorological observations in 1934 are given in the following table.

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS

(1935)

Meteorological Stations	Situation of Stations North Latitude Degrees	East Longitude Degrees	Altitude of Barometer m.	Average pressure mm.	Temperature Average Degrees	Difference between Average year Degrees	Maximum Degrees	Minimum Degrees
Nemuro	43.20	145.35	26.7	759.0	5.9	+0.3	27.3	−12.6
Sapporo	43.04	141.21	16.9	759.3	7.4	+0.4	30.2	−18.5
Aomori	40.49	140.47	5.3	760.1	9.1	−0.1	30.4	−20.6
Tokyo	35.41	139.46	5.8	760.8	14.1	+0.2	33.8	− 4.5
Niigata	37.56	139.03	8.2	761.0	13.0	+0.4	33.0	− 3.8
Nagano	36.40	138.12	420.4	761.3	10.8	−0.1	34.4	−11.9
Nagoya	35.10	136.58	52.4	761.2	14.2	−0.2	37.2	− 5.7
Kyoto	35.01	135.44	42.9	761.7	14.3	+0.5	37.0	− 5.4
Osaka	34.39	135.26	6.2	761.2	15.2	+0.1	36.7	− 5.1
Sakai	35.33	133.14	2.9	761.4	14.5	+0.3	35.5	− 3.6
Hiroshima	34.23	132.27	30.4	761.8	14.4	−0.3	33.5	− 3.4
Kohchi	33.33	133.32	42.1	761.3	15.7	+0.1	34.5	− 3.7
Nagasaki	32.44	129.52	133.0	761.5	15.8	+0.2	34.2	− 2.7
Naha	26.12	127.39	29.5	760.2	22.0	0.0	31.5	10.0
Keijo (Seol)	37.34	126.59	87.0	762.3	11.4	+0.5	33.5	−16.9
Taihoku	25.02	121.31	9.3	760.0	22.1	+0.4	35.5	2.4
Odomari	46.39	142.46	37.3	758.8	3.0	+0.1	24.4	−22.6
Dairen	38.54	121.38	97.3	762.8	11.0	+0.8	32.4	−15.9
Palau	7.20	134.29	31.8	756.9	26.9	+0.1	31.2	−22.1

Meteorological Stations	Average Humidity	Quantity of Precipitation Total	Difference between Average year	Maximum	Wind Average Velocity	Maximum Velocity	Clear Days	Rainy Days
	%	mm	mm.	mm.	m-sec.			
Nemuro	77	1,208.4	+230.3	68.6	4.7	23.6	37	179
Sapporo	78	1,290.2	+248.4	66.8	3.1	19.3	24	217
Aomori	80	1,665.0	+299.6	187.9	4.0	19.7	22	220
Tokyo	72	1,656.8	+101.2	163.6	2.9	15.1	61	142
Niigata	74	1,700.8	− 82.2	55.3	5.3	26.4	13	233
Nagano	77	927.7	− 63.4	44.3	2.5	12.7	34	164
Nagoya	77	1,910.7	+255.3	158.8	3.2	15.1	56	134
Kyoto	75	1,935.4	+371.8	281.6	1.8	10.9	30	157
Osaka	74	1,632.7	+285.9	183.2	2.7	13.8	49	130
Sakai	75	1,890.6	− 60.9	95.8	2,4	13.2	36	197
Hiroshima	76	1,766.0	+253.3	99.6	2.5	16.4	53	136
Kohchi	75	3,435.9	+760.9	184.4	1.6	17.2	66	148
Nagasaki	73	2,120.6	+171.8	169.0	3.4	24.1	43	148
Naha	81	2.269.4	+153.8	100.8	5.5	27.3	12	208
Keijo (Seoul)	66	1,202.3	− 59.8	179.3	2.8	15.6	75	102
Taihoku	82	2,211.8	+ 99.6	122.2	3.1	28.8	22	199
Odomari	84	837.3	+105.5	62.5	4.7	28.4	37	156
Dairen	62	640.6	+ 30.9	70.3	5.1	19.5	113	61
Palau	81	3,428.3	−531.8	223.1	2.2	12.9	2	273

Geological Formation

The Japanese islands lie at the east end of the Eurasia Continent, spreading more than 3,800 kilometres on the Pacific. They are arranged in the form of a festoon or a breakwater for the Continent against the Pacific waves. The numerous islands may be divided into four groups or bows: the Nippon Bow, the Chishima Bow, the Ryukyu Bow and the Ogasawara or Bonin Bow. The Nippon Bow is composed of the Main Island and the small islands around it. The Main Island itself draws an arc, its convex surface projecting into the Pacific and its concave surface facing the Japan Sea, because the whole

Nippon Bow was pushed out to the ocean by a mountain-making process from the side of the Japan Sea. The Nippon Bow again is composed of two mountain systems, with the Fuji volcanic range as the dividing line : they are the Northern range, or the Karafuto mountain system, and the Southern range, or the Kwenlun mountain system.

It is said that recent excavations show it almost impossible to find the oldest rocks in the formation of the Japanese Islands, but it was formerly assumed that gneiss and crystalline schist, which belong to the oldest geological eras,were found in Japan.

Gneiss Distribution Gneiss is distributed mostly in the Nippon Bow and Chosen and cannot be found in the Ryukyu and the Chishima Bows. It runs through the centre of the southern half of the Nippon Bow, while in the northern half it may be found in the plateau of Abukuma. In Chosen it is spread over a wide area. Crystalline schist runs generally along the outside of the gneiss system. In the southern part of the Nippon Bow, it starts at the Akaishi range and runs through the Kii range to Shikoku, where it develops in a wide area, taking the place of gneiss ; then it crosses the strait to Kyushu and sinks under the Aso volcanic chain to appear again at Nagasaki. In Taiwan it forms the eastern part of the Taiwan mountain range. In the northern half of the Nippon Bow, it appears in the Kanto range and may be found in the Yezo mountain system of Hokkaido and in Karafuto.

Palæozoic Layer The Japanese palæozoic layer is largely aqueous rock, composed mainly of slate, sandstone, silica stone, limestone, grit stone and graywacke, with a compound of such igneous stones as granite and diorite. It is widely distributed and has much to do with the geological formation of Japan. But at the Palæozoic Era the Japanese land lay deep in the waters and did not treasure up coal as did the Palæozoic layer of the Continent. The oldest stratum of the Main Island which has been proved with a fossil is the Carboniferous layer, and any decision on older layers must remain uncertain until similar proof is available. The Palæozoic layer forms the bones of the big mountain ranges developing at the circumference of the Archæan stratum of the southern part of the Nippon Bow and is distributed in the Akaishi, Kii, Shikoku and Kyushu mountain ranges. Traces are also visible in the Hida range, Hida plateau, Tamba plateau, Chugoku range and Tsukushi range. In the northern half, it runs through the Kanto, Ashio Hachimizo, Abukuma and Kitakami ranges to the Yezo range and Karafuto. It can also be seen in Taiwan and Chosen in wide areas.

Mesozoic Stratum The Mesozoic stratum of Japan is composed of stones similar to those of the earlier stratum. Fossils are sufficiently numerous to assure the era in which it was formed. It appears in the Kii range, the southern part of Shikoku, the Kyushu range and the Taiwan range. In Chosen, it is found in the Keisho district. In the Chugoku district, the western part of the Main Island, it comes to the surface, leading to the belief that the plains of this district were formed in this era.

Neozoic Stratum The Neozoic stratum is mainly of aqueous rock and volcanic stones. In this era, the transformation of land and sea was incessant, and volcanic activities were most vigorous, creating most of the present volcanic chains. Through the tertiary and were emitted in great volume. Most of the coalfields, oil-fields and metal mines of Japan were formed in the tertiary period. In th diluvial day of the quaternary period, volcanic exploquaternary periods, andesite and basalt sions followed one after another, and the hills by the rivers and the higher plains of the Kanto took their present form. In the alluvial, or the most recent day of the same era, the lowest and the newest stratum at rivers, lakes and the sea shore, or sand-banks and sand hills, came into existnce. According to the investigation of the Geological Research Office, the areas of rocks of differents geological eras in Japan proper are as follows :

	Sq. km.	%
Archaean stratum	14,189	3.50
Palæozoic ,,	53,149	12.74
Mesozoic ,,	29,844	7,15
Neozoic ,,	196,079	49.87
Tertiary vomitted rocks	44,157	10.58
Quaternary ,, ,,	79,970	19.16
Total	417,388	100.00

Block Movements According to this investigation. two-thirds of the land is of the Neozoic stratum, showing that Japan must have been upheaved upon the surface of the sea in the most recent geological era, and the large volume of vomitted rocks speaks of violent volcanic activities.

In the Palæozoic Era, the islands were all hidden under shallow waters. Even the Hida and Akaishi mountain peaks, which from the ridge of the Mainland,

are composed of the sediment on the sea-bottom in those days. At the end of this era, the highest mountain ranges began to expose their heads above the waters. It was a golden age for the Mollusca and fishes, the Amphibia coming to existence at the end of it. In the vegetable kingdom, Cryptogams grew in great forests which disappeared with the end of the era.

At the Jurassic period of the Mesozoic Era, China and most of Chosen appeared upon the surface of the sea, but the land of Japan was still covered with waters, except for the great mountain ranges, which began to show their complete figures. It was the age in which the cycad, the gingko and the Coniferæ grew in abundance and toward the end of which the latifoliate trees came into existence. In the animal kingdom, the reptiles made great progress, and queer gigantic animals lived everywhere in the sea, in the air and on the land.

When the Neozoic Era dawned, Japan became a stage of great block movements of earth, and it was severed from the continent. taking the form of a chain of countless islands. The present location was assumed, although the northern part was a little later than the southern half. The line which connects the islands runs from south to north because the pressure of the block movement was from west to east. As the movements gradually ceased and the dividing lines of land and sea became stationary, the present animals and vegetables began to grow, and finally primitive men appeared.

Relationship with Continent The close connection of the islands with the Continent is supported by considerable evidence. It is asserted by most scholars that they are continental islands, which are usually located near a continent, from which they were severed in the latest geological era. It is clear that the mountain ranges of Japan have a close connection with the Kwenlun mountain system. The north range of the Chinese mountains, after sinking into the sea, appears again in the northern part of Kyushu and reaches the central part of the Main Island. running through the Chugoku district, and the eastern end of the China mountain system reappears in southern Kyushu, from where it reaches to the Akaishi Range through Shikoku Island and Kii province. It is also known that the sea between the Japanese Islands and the Continent is but 200 metres deep at the maximum from Taiwan to Chosen. That is, if the waters fell by this distance, the East China Sea, the Yellow Sea and the Gulf of Chihli would be dried up, and Kyushu, Shikoku, the Mainland, Hokkaido and Karafuto would be connected by land. In a sharp comparison, the sea to the east and south of the islands suddenly becomes as deep as 4,000 metres and even more in some places. These facts prove that the Japanese Islands were once a part of the Continent of Asia.

Japanese animals belong to those species which are included in the old northern division in the animal distribution of the world, and Japanese plants have very close relations with those on the Continent of Asia and are quite different from those of the American Continent. Finally, paleontology gives us proof in fossil teeth of the elephant. In the layers which belong to the tertiary period or the diluvial day of the quaternary period, these fossils are often found, and some are of the same kind as those excavated in the southern districts of China. We may thus conclude that the Islands of Japan were connected with the Continent of Asia in a prehistoric but comparatively new geological era.

Natural Features

The mountains of Japan are divided into two great systems, one to the north and the other to the south. The Karafuto system, framing Northern Japan, is composed of the Yezo, Kitakami, Abukuma, Kanto and Echigo ranges, arranged from north to south, roughly speaking. Southern Japan is framed by two branches of the Kwenlun system, which has its origin in China. One branch first appears in the northern part of Kyushu as the Tsukushi range and then runs to the east, forming the Chugoku range, the Tamba plateau, the Hida plateau and the Kiso range. The other branch appears in the southern part of Kyushu, forming the Kyushu range, from which it runs east, becoming the Shikoku, Kii, Suzuka and Akaishi ranges.

Japanese mountains have characteristic fine creases, cut by the rainfall, which is specially heavy in this country. The Kyushu, Shikoku and Akaishi ranges were formed by the creasing process; such mountains as Fuji, Nasu, Chokai and Kirishima resulted from volcanic activities, and the Kongo, Kasagi, Suzuka and Mahiru mountain ranges were born in dislocative earthquakes. As for age, the mountains of the Chugoku and Abukuma ranges, with their dull curves, are the oldest; the Shikoku range, the Japan Alps and the Ohu range, or the range in the northeastern

Mainland, are rugged and young, and the plains of the Kanto district and Mino-Owari provinces are very young. The combination of these mountains and plains of diverse ages is peculiar to Japan.

Volcanic chains According to the Geological Research Office, the total number of volcanoes in Japan is 192, of which 58 are active. They may be grouped in 11 chains :

(1) The north Japan inner, or Chokai, volcanic chain, which starts at the southwestern offing of Hokkaido, or O-shima and Ko-jima, and runs through Iwaki-yama, Kampuzan, Moriyoshi-yama Chokai-san, ending with Gatsuzan.

(2) The south Japan inner, or Hakusan, volcanic chain, extending from Hakusan along the Japan Sea to the west through Daisen, Mitsubé-yama, Aono-yama and other smaller volcanoes and then to the Goto Islands of Kyushu.

(3) The Hokkaido volcanic chain, which links such mountains as Hakodaté-yama, Komaga-daké, Tarumayé-daké and some islands in the peninsular part of western Hokkaido.

(4) The north Japan central, or Nasu, volcanic chain, including Osoré-yama, Hakkoda-san, Towada Lake, Iwaté-yama, Komaga-daké, Kurigoma, Numasawa, Arao, Funagata, Za-oh, Bantai, Azuma, Adatara, Nasu, Nantai, Shirané, Akagi, Haruna, Tsuno-otoshi and Arafuna, which are mostly active volcanoes.

(5) The Hida volcanic chain, composed of the seven volcanoes of Heradaké, Taté-yama, Ko-tombi, Washibadaké, Iwo-daké, .Norikura-daké and On-také.

(6) The Mikasa volcanic chain, to the west of the Hida volcanic chain, beginning with Horaiji-san, of Aichi prefecture, and running westward to O-hara-yama, Mikasa-yama, Miminari-yama, Futakami-san and Kabuto-yama of Hyogo prefecture.

(7) The Seto, or Inland Sea, volcanic chain, embracing the old volcanic mountains along the coasts of the Inland Sea and extending to Kyushu, including such mountains as Futako, Kokonoyé, Yufu, Onsen and Tara. The volcanoes are all dormant.

(8) The Ryukyu volcanic chain, starting with the Aso volcano, taking in Kirishima, Sakurajima and Kaimon and extending to the Ryukyu Islands, where it connects Iwojima, Kuchino-Irabé-jima, Kuchinosé Nakano-jima, Suwanosé, Waruiwa-Jima, Tori-shima and Aguni-shima.

(9) The amphibolite andesite volcanic chain, which connects Aono-yama, of Shimané prefecture, and Tokusa, of Yamaguchi ; appears then in Kinpo-zan and Shiguma-daké near Tokuyama, and Himé-jima of Suo ; meets with the Inland Sea chain and runs to Yufu, Kokonoyé and a part of Aso, and extends as far as Luzon Island, sinking to the bottom of the ocean west of the Ryukyu Islands on the way and then running along the eastern coast of Taiwan.

(10) The Fuji volcanic chain, which cuts across the heart of the Main Island from the coast of the Japan Sea to that of the Pacific Ocean, and continues to the Izu, Bonin, Sulphur, Mariana and Caroline Islands, including such mountains as Myoko, Togakushi-yama, Tateshina-yama, Yatsuga-daké, Fuji-san, Hakoné and Amagi on the Main Island.

(11) The Chishima volcanic chain, which comes into Hokkaido from the Chishima, runs along the Yezo mountain system, suddenly turns to the north and seems to disappear in Karafuto.

The Japanese volcanic mountains are composed of four kinds of rocks : pyroxene andesite, amphibolite andesite, bronzite andesite and basalt. Fuji, Iwaki, Chokai, Gatsu-san, Nasu, Hakkoda, Iwaté, Bantai, Akagi and Haruna are of pyroxene andesite. In southern Japan, the Kirishima volcanic range is composed of the same rock, which is, indeed, the most widely distributed in the Japanese volcanoes. Amphibolite andesite is discovered in the mountains which belong to the inner volcanic chains—Hakusan, Dai-sen and Mitsubé-yama. It shows itself in Taté-yama, Norikura and Ontaké also, but is most evident in the Kyushu volcanoes. Bronzite andesite is limited to the district of Kinki, near Osaka, and the volcanic mountains and islands in and along the Inland Sea. Basalt is distributed in Chugoku and the northern Kyushu districts, exposing itself at the Basalt Cave, of Tajima province, Ōné-shima, Hamada, Hagi, the Aburatani Gulf and Fukuyé, of the Goto Islands.

Seas and Coast-line

With the exception of the northern frontiers of Chosen and Karafuto, every part of the Empire is surrounded by water. To the east is the Pacific, washing the Chishima, Hokkaido, Honshu, Shikoku, Kyushu, the Ryukyu, Taiwan and the mandated islands north of the equator. Between the Chishima and Karafuto is the Sea of Okhotsk, and between Karafuto and the continent the Gulf of Tartary, known to the Japanese as the Mamiya Straits. The Sea of Japan lies between Honshu and the eastern shore of Chosen. To the west

of Chosen is the Yellow Sea, or Hwanghai, opening into the Eastern China Sea, or Tunghai, which touches Kyushu, the Ryukyu and Taiwan. Purely Japanese is the famous Inland Sea, enclosed by Honshu, Shikoku and Kyushu.

The Depths The greatest depth yet discovered in these surrounding seas is 9,439 metres, sounded by the warship Manshu in 1926 between Honshu and Ogasawarajima, 30° 49′ N. Lat. and 140° 18′ E. Long. Previously the record was the 8,517 metres of the Tuscarora Deep, named for the American warship which made a survey in 1874, sometimes called the Kurile-Japanese Trench, which lies along the Chishima for about 644 kilometres. The other seas are shallower than the Pacific. The Sea of Okhotsk, which is estimated to have an area of 1,527,007.73 square kilometres, has a mean depth of 838 metres. The Sea of Japan, estimated to extend over 1,007,307.41 square kilometres, has a maximum depth of 3,440 metres and a mean depth of 1,350 metres. The Eastern China Sea, except near the Ryukyu and Taiwan, is less deep. With a length of about 354 kilometres and a maximum width of 77 kilometres, the Inland Sea covers 3,430.43 square kilometres and reaches its greatest depth at 124 metres.

The Currents Two ocean currents with important climatic effects are the Kuroshio, meaning black current, which sailors know as the Japan stream, and the Oyashio, meaning main current, which foreigners often call the Kurile stream. The first is warm and the second cold. Arising from the North Equatorial Current north of the Philippines, the Kuroshio flows along the eastern side of Taiwan and the southern islands of the Ryukyu to about 26° N. Lat., where it splits, the main part moving to the eastern coasts of Kyushu, Shikoku and Honshu and then bearing eastward past the Aleutian Islands to the North American coast, and the offshoot flowing to the west of Kyushu and into the Sea of Japan. Varying in width from 160 to 805 kilometres, depending on the position and the season of the year, it is usually from 5° to 15° C. warmer than the rest of the ocean. The Oyashio originates in the Arctic, washes the eastern shores of the Chishima, Hokkaido and Honshu, meeting the Kuroshio at Kinkazan. From the Sea of Okhotsk, another cold current enters the Sea of Japan through the Gulf of Tartary and flows along the Chosen Coast.

Tides Tides in the Japanese Empire show wide variation. High on the shores of the Yellow Sea and the Eastern China Sea, they reach from 10.4 to 10.7 metres at Jinsen, or Chemulpo, Chosen, and 5.5 metres at Miiké, Omuta, on Tsukushi Bay, Kyushu, but in the Sea of Japan they average little more than 0.6 metre. Along the Sea of Okhotsk, they range from 1.2 to 1.5 metres; along the Pacific coast, from 1.8 to 2.7 metres, and in the Inland Sea, from 1.8 to 4 metres.

Coast-line. The coast-line is exceptionally long, being 52,228.787 kilometres for the whole Empire. For Japan proper, it is 30,602.458 kilometres, which means a kilometre to every 12.43 square kilometres of area, and for Chosen 18,203.726 kilometres, a kilometre to every 12.12 square kilometres. The shores of the Sea of Japan are comparatively regular, but those on the Pacific are indented with a large number of gulfs, bays and inlets, many of which afford excellent anchorages. Japan proper has more than 1,400 harbours, about half of which are utilized for trading. The best harbours of Chosen are on the Yellow Sea and the Chosen Channel. Hokkaido, Karafuto and Taiwan are less fortunate in capacious shelters for ships.

Mountains

In Japan proper, there are 250 mountains with peaks higher than 2,000 metres above sea level, the highest being the celebrated Mount Fuji, which lifts its white cap sublimely 3,773 metres above the beautiful Suruga Gulf. Chosen has 51 and Formosa 130 mountains in the same category, but the latter has five peaks higher than Mount Fuji, Niitaka-yama being the highest mountain in the Japanese Empire with its height of 3,950 metres. The highest mountains in Japan proper are converged in the central part of the Main Island in the prefectures of Nagano, Toyama, Yamanashi, Shizuoka and Gifu, but there are, of course, many other mountains famous geographically and historically in other parts of the country.

MOUNTAINS

(Above 2,500 metres)

Name	Location	Height (m.)
Japan Proper		
Fuji	Shizuoka	3,773
Kita	Yamanashi	3,192
Manodake	Shizuoka	3,189
Yarigadake	Nagano	3,180
Akaishi	Nagano	3,120
Okuhotaka	Nagano	3,103
Higashimata	Nagano	3,095

Name	Location	Height (m.)
Shirane	Nagano	3,093
Ontake	Nagano	3,093
Hotaka	Nagano	3,090
Arakawa	Shizuoka	3,083
Shiomi	Shizuoka	3,047
Senjo	Yamanashi	3,033
Minamidake	Nagano	3,032
Kitahotaka	Gifu	3,032
Nootori	Shizuoka	3,026
Norikura	Gifu	3,026
Hijiri	Shizuoka	3,011
Tsurugi	Toyama	2,998
Tateyama	Toyama	2,992
Suisho	Toyama	2,977
Komagadake	Yamanashi	2,966
Marishiten	Gifu	2,959
Shirouma	Toyama	2,933
Yakushi	Toyama	2,926
Goro	Toyama	2,924
Mae-Hotaka	Gifu	2,908
Yari	Toyama	2,903
Akadake	Nagano	2,900
Kasa	Gifu	2,897
Kashima-Yari	Toyama	2,890
Wakareyama	Toyama	2,885
Mitsudake	Nagano	2,873
Jodo	Toyama	2,872
Mamaoya	Gifu	2,868
Komori	Shizuoka	2,865
Akaushi	Toyama	2,864
Karaki	Nagano	2,864
Renge	Nagano	2,860
Sugoroku	Nagano	2,860
Mamako	Gifu	2,858
Misawa	Nagano	2,846
Minami	Nagano	2,842
Ho-o	Yamanashi	2,841
Washiwa	Toyama	2,841
Nakanomata	Toyama	2,840
Nakadake	Toyama	2,839
Subari	Nagano	2,838
Mitsumata	Nagano	2,835
Yoko	Nagano	2,830
Misumi	Nagano	2,830
Masago	Nagano	2,826
Ebisu	Gifu	2,823
Osawa	Shizuoka	2,819
Nukido	Gifu	2,812
Kogochi	Nagano	2,805
Kamikochi	Nagano	2,803
Renge	Toyama	2,799
Choko	Yamanashi	2,799
Onidake	Nagano	2,799
Asahi	Nagano	2,786
Gongen	Nagano	2,786
Takemine	Yamanashi	2,779
Renge	Niigata	2,769
Akaiwa	Nagano	2,769
Tsubakuro	Nagano	2,763
Yakushi	Yamanashi	2,762
Jonen	Nagano	2,757
Tatesawa	Nagano	2,754
Yotsutake	Gifu	2,744
Iwo	Nagano	2,742
Shogigashira	Nagano	2,727
Kotaro	Yamanashi	2,725
Kiso	Nagano	2,721
Minamimasago	Nagano	2,710
Akazawa	Nagano	2,706
Hoeisan	Shizuoka	2,702
Shiasan	Nagano	2,700
Kitaarakawa	Shizuoka	2,698
Jijii	Nagano	2,697
Karamatsu	Nagano	2,696
Narusawa	Nagano	2,667
Chogatake	Nagano	2,664
Kitanomata	Toyama	2,661
Kamigatake	Toyama	2,661
Kitami	Nagano	2,658
Iwagoyazawa	Nagano	2,657
Neishi	Nagano	2,646
Karasawa	Nagano	2,632
Hakusan	Ishikawa	2,631
Zarugatake	Shizuoka	2,629
Gakidake	Nagano	2,627
Minamizawa	Nagano	2,625
Washitake	Toyama	2,625
Eboshitake	Nagano	2,621
Fudosan	Nagano	2,621
Shenninyama	Toyama	2,617
Tobiyama	Toyama	2,614
Otakiyama	Nagano	2,614
Koehyaku	Nagano	2,613
Yukikura	Toyama	2,611
Nokogiri	Nagano	2,605
Dainichi	Toyama	2,605
Chausu	Nagano	2,600
Kimpo	Yamanashi	2,959
Fudo	Toyama	2,595
Kokushi	Yamanashi	2,592
Hikari	Nagano	2,591
Tsuji	Yamanashi	2,585
Shirane	Tochigi	2,577
Nagabei	Nagano	2,565
Okaramatsu	Yamanashi	2,555
Itotake	Nagano	2,554
Nanakura	Nagano	2,550
Asama	Gunma	2,542
Kurohi	Nagano	2,540
Tateshina	Nagano	2,530
Ushikubi	Toyama	2,527
Amikasa	Yamanashi	2,524
Nittatake	Shizuoka	2,524
Maekake	Nagano	2,520
Kohikage	Nagano	2,505
Minoto	Nagano	2,500

Chosen

Hakuto	Kankyonando	2,744
Kanbo-San	Kankyohokudo	2,541
Hokusuihaku	Kankyonando	2,522
Shonichi	Kankyonando	2,506

Name	Location	Height (m.)
Taiwan		
Niitaka	Taichushu	3,950
Tsugitaka	Taichushu	3,931
Shukoban	Karenkocho	3,833
Maboras	Taichushu	3,806
Nankotaizan	Karenkocho	3,797
Chuosen	Karenkocho	3,715
Sekiyama	Kantocho	3,667
Taisuikutsu	Taichushu	3,645
Kiraishu	Karenkocho	3,605
Toguntaisan	Taichushu	3,605
Taisetsu	Taichushu	3,600
Taihasen	Shinchikushu	3,573
Setsu	Takaoshu	3,569
Takushatai	Taichushu	3,488
Tobantai	Taichushu	3,465
Nemu	Taichushu	3,394
Nangyoku	Takaoshu	3,391
To-zan	Shinchikushu	3,390
Shinkan	Karenkocho	3,381
Hitsuroku	Karenkocho	3,379
Tantai	Karenkocho	3,371
Hakkotai	Taichushu	3,349
Nansoto	Karenkocho	3,333
Notakayama	Karenkocho	3,333
Hinanshu	Takaoshu	3,305
Sentakuman	Taichushu	3,304
Kashipanan	Karenkocho	3,294
Guntai	Taichushu	3,292
Tarokotai	Karenkocho	3,292
Koseki	Takaoshu	3,255
Notaka	Karenkocho	3,252
Byobu	Karenkocho	3,234
Taibu	Taitocho	3,232
Senzan	Karenkocho	3,222
Batotsunofu	Taihokushu	3,221
Painotonan	Taitocho	3,175
Mabiisan	Taihokushu	3,167
Hakuseki	Karenkocho	3,138
Wanoshin	Takaoshu	3,132
Antogun	Karenkocho	3,089
Seibantai	Taichushu	3,076
Kanmon	Karenkocho	3,052
Taisekiko	Karenkocho	3,048
Kosetsu	Taichushu	3,043
Bokyo	Taichushu	3,028
Unsui	Kantocho	3,010
Burakusan	Kantocho	2,992
Ronbutan	Karenkocho	2,948
Sekisui	Tainanshu	2,895
Kokolbo	Karenkocho	2,883
Heigan	Taichushu	2,879
Sekisan	Takaoshu	2,877
Sentogan	Takaoshu	2,862
Rokurin	Taichushu	2,859
Hattsuseki	Taichushu	2,841
Manmen	Takaoshu	2,840
Nantaibu	Kantocho	2,831
Muto	Takaoshu	2,822
Toho	Taichushu	2,809
Surabatan	Takaoshu	2,747
Kinajii	Shinchikushu	2,713
Sekisan	Taichushu	2,694
Sansui	Karenkocho	2,692
Rokujotai	Shinchikushu	2,684
Taito	Taichushu	2,663
Takai	Taihokushu	2,657
Keinan	Takaoshu	2,642
Sui	Tainanshu	2,627
Futako	Karenkocho	2,577
Kodama	Tainanshu	2,568
Rinparapara	Takaoshu	2,555
Matsuyama	Taichushu	2,551
Gunko	Taichushu	2,532
Tozan	Tainanshu	2,520
Mubeyama	Karenkocho	2,514
Shukusan	Taichushu	2,504

OTHER FAMOUS MOUNTAINS

(Below 2,500 m.)

Ohu district	
Osore-yama[1]	700
Iwaki-yama	1,625
Hakkoda-yama	1,585
Moriyoshi-yama	1,454
Iwate-yama	2,041
Komaga-take	1,637
Chokai-san	2,230
Gassan	1,924
Zao-san	1,841
Funagata-yama	1,500
Azuma-san	2,024
Adachitaro-yama	1,700
Bandai-san	1,819
Otakine-yama	1,193
Kanto district	
Nasu-san	1,917
Taishaku-san	2,060
Nantai-san	2,484
Akagi-san	1,828
Haruna-san	1,448
Myogi-san	1,104
Mikuni-yama	1,828
Kobushi-take	2,483
Tanzawa-yama	1,567
Hakone-yama	1,439
Nokogiri-yama	329
Tsukuba-yama	876
Kinki district (Kyoto, Osaka)	
Oe-yama	833
Ibuki-yama	1,377
Hira-take	1,174
Kurama-yama	670
Hiei-san	848
Atago-yama	924
Rokko-san	932

1 Yama, take, san, zan, mine, and sen all mean "mountain."

Name	Height (m.)
Ikoma-yama	642
Kongo-san	1,112
Sanjo-take	1,720
Odaigahara-san	1,695
Shaka-take	1,800
Koya-san	985
Chugoku district	
Kori-yama	1,510
Dai-sen	1,713
Kanmuri-yama	1,339
Aono-yama	908
Shikoku Island	
Tsurugi-yama	1,955
Sasaga-mine	1,860
Ishizuchi-yama	1,921
Onigashiro-yama	1,142
Kyushu district	
Tsurumi-yama	1,375
Yufu-take	1,584
Tara-take	983
Aso-san	1,592
Unzen	1,360
Shiraga-yama	1,417
Sakurajima-take	1,118
Kaimon-take	924
Yae-yama	1,935

Rivers

The Empire is abundantly watered by numerous rivers, usually wide where they empty into the sea, but comparatively short in course and not navigable for many miles inland except by flat-bottomed craft. During the summer rainy season and when the mountain snows melt in the spring, torrents rush down them, often overflowing and causing damage; during the rest of the year, they dwindle to narrow and shallow streams. If of little use for transportation, they serve as reservoirs from which water is drawn for irrigation and increasingly as sources of electric power.

Total available hydro-electric power of rivers in Japan proper is estimated at 14,090,000 h.p., the power actually developed by the end of 1934 was about 4,348,862 h.p.

The major rivers, with navigable length, follow:

	Length in Km.	Navigable Length in Km.
Honshu		
Shinano	369	283
Tone	322	275
Kitakami	243	232
Kiso	232	86
Mogami	216	196
Tenryu	216	216
Gonokawa	200	153
Abukuma	196	149
Ara	177	89
Aka	169	149
Kumano	161	127
Hidaka	161	134
Fuji	161	70
Ohi	154	86
Ohmono	149	137
Sho	149	55
Ibi	142	35
Yura	141	110
Sagami	141	75
Shikoku		
Yoshino	236	110
Shimanto	177	75
Kyushu		
Chikugo	141	86
Hokkaido		
Ishikari	365	—
Teshio	306	—
Tokachi	196	—
Tokoro	145	—
Karafuto		
Horonai	137	—
Taiwan		
Dakusuikei	165	—
Shimotansuikei	156	—
Sobunkei	132	—
Tansuiga	130	—
Chosen		
Ohryokko	790	698
Rakutoko	525	344
Tomanko	521	85
Kanko	514	330
Daidoko	439	260
Kinko	401	130
Ringhinko	254	124
Seienko	199	152
Reiseiko	174	65

Lakes

The Empire contains numerous lakes, especially in Honshu and Hokkaido, remarkable for their beautiful setting rather than extent. The most interesting are those high above sea level, formed in most cases by volcanic eruptions damming the head-waters of rivers.

The major lakes, with their height above sea level and area, follow:

	Above Sea Level (m.)	Area (Sq. km.)	Depth (m.)
Honshu			
Biwako	86.3	716.31	95.0
Hachirogata	0	223.29	4.7
Kasumigaura	2.0	189.17	7.6

	Above Sea Level (m.)	Area (Sq. km.)	Depth (m.)
Inawashiroko	514.0	104.83	102.0
Nakanoumi	0	101.60	14.0
Shinjiko	1.0	82.32	6.4
Hamanako	0	72.04	15.8
Ogaranuma	1.5	62.26	27.0
Towadako	401.0	59.58	378.0
Kitaura	1.0	39.35	10.0
Imbanuma	2.5	25.95	1.0
Tazawako	250.0	25.65	425.0
Kahokugata	0.8	22.85	2.0
Jusangata	0	20.87	3.0
Ibauchiko	86.3	15.40	3.1
Suwako	759.0	14.45	7.0
Karenuma	—	12.20	3.3
Teganuma	2.5	11.88	2.9
Chuzenjiko	1,271.0	11.29	170.0
Oguraike	10.0	7.90	1.7
Hirofuchiko	3.0	7.12	2.3
Ashinoko	723.2	7.09	43.5
Kumihamako	0	7.08	20.0
Kyushu			
Ikedako	66.0	10.98	233.0
Hokkaido			
Saromako	0	150.53	19.0
Kutcharoko	120.0	85.54	125.0
Shikotsuko	248.0	76.18	363.0
Toyako	83.0	74.54	183.0
Notoriko	0	58.49	22.0
Furenko	0	52.13	11.0
Abashiriko	0	34.04	17.6
Akkeshikanko	0	31.99	6.9
Mashuko	345.0	20.00	211.5
Tonbetsuko	0	15.00	3.2
Akanko	399.0	12.93	36.6
Karafuto			
Taraikako	0	180.06	1.8
Tominaiko	0	168.18	34.0
Tofuchiko	0	40.43	6.4
Kuchishiko	0	34.77	3.7
Waaiko	0	34.18	6.4
Chibesanko	0	11.20	7.7
Ontoko	0	7.61	4.6
Taiwan			
Takaokanko	1.2	22.66	1.2
Jitsugetsutan	5.2	4.44	5.2
Chosen			
Hiroko	—	13.28	—
Koshihashiko	—	8.27	—
Amaike	—	7.74	—
Choen'ko	—	7.42	—

Flora

In summer the southern part of Japan experiences tropical weather, while in winter the districts north of the Ohu provinces are subject to arctic cold. But owing to ample rainfall, the growth of plants in Japan is in general very rich, yet agriculture occupies so large a proportion of area as to restrict not only the natural distribution of flora and fauna, but a scientific study of the subject as well.

The flora of Japan is by most botanists divided into four zones :

(a) Tropical forest zone, or the banian (Ficus retusa) zone.
(b) Subtropical forest zone, or the kashi (Quercus acuta) zone.
(c) Temperate forest zone, or the beech-tree (Fagus Sieboldi) zone.
(d) Arctic forest zone, or the dwarf mountain fir (Pinus pumila) zone.

I The Tropical Forest Zone. The tropical forest zone, or the banian zone, covers those portions of the plain of Formosa lower than 450 m. above sea level, as well as the Loochoo, Bonin, Sulphur and the South Sea islands. The aerial roots of the Ficus Retusa are not so large as those of the banian in India, but the species grows in abundance and to a great height, sending down its aerial roots into the ground like the tentacles of an octopus. In some parts of Sulphur Islands, the Loochoo Islands and Formosa it forms impenetrable forests. The cocoanut tree is rare but grows well. In Formosa the pineapple thrives naturally, while the Agave American grows quite tall. The cycad (Cycas revoluta), the tree fern (Cyathea spinulosa), the coffee plant (Coffea Arabia), the gum tree, the orange tree, the sugarcane, the mangifera (Mangifera Indica) and the papaw-tree (Caria papaya) grow luxuriantly.

II The Subtropical Forest Zone The subtropical forest zone, or the oak zone is limited to altitudes of from 450 to 1,800 m. in Formosa, and as low as sea level in the northern half of the Loochoo Islands. The plains of Kyushu, Shikoku, that part of the Main Island south of 35 degrees North Latitude, and the southern half of the Korean peninsula belong to this zone, the temperature here being from 13° to 21°C. (55° to 70°F.), and the altitude below 1,120 m. at Mount Kirishima in Kyushu ; 650 m. in the northern part of the same island ; 760 m. in Shikoku, 600 m. in Chugoku or west of Kobé ; 500 m. in the Tokaido districts ; and 460 m. at Tsukuba-yama in the Kanto district.

Plants peculiar to this zone are those which belong to such species as the camphor-tree, the oak, the camellia, and the Ternstroemia Japonica, evergreen and latifoliate. On sandy shores, where the sea wind is strong, the black pine (Pinus thunbergii) grows, with spreading, contorted branches, an in-

dispensable element of the Japanese landscape, made familiar to the world through the paintings of Hokusai and Hiroshigé. In the southern part of this zone the camphor-tree (Cinnamomum camphora) is abundant. The hemp-palm (Trachycarpus excelsa), the Nagi (Podocarpus nagi) the banana plant (Musa basjoo) and the cycad are planted as ornamental trees, and grow to a good size. Agricultural plants in this zone are rice, barley, soy-bean, red-bean, German millet, the field cabbage (Brassica campestris), colza, cotton (Gossypium herbaceum), indigo-plant, tea-plant, mulberry-tree, mandarin orange, as well as the sugar-cane and the potato. In this zone there is only one rice crop a year while in the first zone it is harvested twice a year.

III **The Temperate Forest Zone** The temperate forest zone, or beech-tree zone, lies north of the 2nd zone in the Main Island, the south-western part of Hokkaido, more than half of its whole area, and in the mountainous portions of Korea ; it begins at 37.5 degrees north latitude at the coast and 35° in the Main Island, and ends at 43.5° in the central part of Hokkaido. The temperature of these areas is from 6° to 13° C. (42°-56° F.). In Formosa, the mountain valleys which are between 1,800 and 4,550 m. above sea level belong to this zone, and there grow the cryptomeria, the Picea jezoensis, the hemlock and the Formosan five-leaf pine (Pinus par viflora). The representative species of this zone in the Main Island is the beech, but it is almost extinct because of commercial exploitation. In Echigo province grow many species of deciduous latifoliate trees, such as the oak (Quercus glandulifera), the Quercus crispula and the horse-chestnut (Aesculus turbinata), while among these, in some places are found varieties of acerose trees such as the Japanese cypress, the Chamaecyparis obfusa, the hatchet leaved arborvitae (Thujopsis dolabrata), the fir (Abies firma), the Tsuga Sieboldii, the Abies homolepis, the Korean pine (Pinus koraiensis), the Larix kaempferi, and the like. The timber line of this zone is 4,550 m. in Formosa,—Kyushu, Chugoku, Kinki or the Kyoto-Osaka districts have no mountain which rises above this line ; 2,060 m. in Shikoku ; 1,700-1,760 m. in Suruga and Totomi provinces ; 1,500 m. in Shinano and Kai provinces ; 1,400-1,060 m. in the northern districts of the Main Island ; 450 m. in the southern part of Hokkaido, and down to sea level in the centre of Hokkaido.

The agricultural plants in this zone are barley, wheat, soy-bean, red-bean, German millet, the Panicum frumentoceum and the peanut. In the north rice is often subject to damage from early frost. The forests in the southern half of this zone are the most beautiful in Japan, especially those sections dominated by trees of Kiso valley, namely, the Japanese cypress, the Thuja standishii, the Thujopsis dolabrata, and the Sciadopitys verticillata. The cryptomeria forms vast natural forests in Akita prefecture.

IV **The Arctic Forest Zone**. The arctic forest zone, or the dwarf mountain fir zone, occupies the mountain elevations above 4,500 m. in Formosa, and does not exist in Kyushu, except in small patches above 900 m. on the mountains. In the central part of Japan, Fuji, Ontaké, the Nikko and many other mountains are in this zone, while in Shikoku the belt lies between 1,800 m. to 2,580 m. The Abies veitchii, the fir-tree (Abies sachaliensis), the hemlock, the Larix kaempferi, the Abies firma, the yew-tree, the Alnus firma, the Sorbaria randaiensis and the Alpine-rose (Rhododendron hyminanthes) grow in this zone, but the principal trees differ according to districts. In Formosa, the Abies sachaliensis is the principal tree, the Abies veitchii on Kiso, Fuji, the Nikko and other high mountains located within 40 degrees north latitude in the Main Island ; the Abies firma and the Larix kaempferi in the districts further north, and the Abies sachaliensis again in Aomori prefecture. In Hokkaido and Karafuto the Abies sachaliensis and the spruce (Picea ajanensis) grow plentifully, but are not found in the Main Island. In addition, in Karafuto, the larch flourishes, as also does the Juniperus chinensis along the seashore.

Marine Flora According to Dr. Okamura, the marine flora of Japan in the Pacific Ocean is divided into two by Oshima Island, to the south of which, including the Bonin Islands, is the Tropical division, while from north of Oshima to Kinkazan lies the Temperate division. The ocean district north of Kinkazan belongs to the Arctic division, although at the southern end of this division can be found, to a certain extent, Temperate-zone seaweeds. On the western side of Japan, that is, along the coast of the Japan Sea, the Tropical and Temperate seaweed zones are divided at Makurasaki or Noma Peninsula at the west end of Kyushu Island, while the arctic zone begins at the Tsugaru Straits.

Korea As may be inferred from the geographical relation existing between the continent and the peninsula on the

one hand and between the latter and Japan on the other, the flora of the northern part (38°-43° N.Lat.) of the peninsula bears a great resemblance to that of the eastern Asiatic continent, while the flora of the southern part has a close connection with that of the western part of the Main Island of Japan.

Dense forests of conifers are frequently seen in the northern districts. Pinus Koraiensis is a species commonly found there. The flora of the northern half has many northern elements and bears a close relation to the flora of Manchuria and Siberia.

Elements characteristic of northern China are also to be found in the flora of the western part of Korea. Endemic genera are comparatively few,—a characteristic of continental floras. Among the endemic genera, Hanabusaya Nakai and Chosenia Nakai may be mentioned as the most interesting. Both genera are monotypic, the former belonging to the family Campanulacæ, and the latter to the family Salicaceæ.

The South Sea Islands Pemphis acidula, Scaevola frutescens and Tournefortia argentea grow on the shore. Coconut palms and screw pines grow among the littoral bushes. Allophylus timorensis and Wedelia biflora are the most common species and form a dense growth in the interior of the islands. Generally speaking, the flora of the islands is extremely poor as far as the number of species is concerned. This suggests that it is of comparatively recent origin.

Classification. There are in Japan, nearly 20,000 species of flora known to botanists. The "Illustrated Book of Botany" published by a Tokyo botanical association contains 2,070 representative species classified as follows :

	No. of Species
I Phaneregamæ	
A Angiospermæ	
(a) Dicotyledoneæ	
1 Sympetalæ	519
2 Archichlamydeæ	1,046
(b) Monocotyledonæ	242
B Gymnospermæ	
(a) Gnetaceæ	1
(b) Coniferæ	
1 Araucariaceæ	23
2 Taxaceæ	7
(c) Cycadaceæ	1
(d) Ginkgoaceæ	1
II Archegohiatæ	
A Pteridophyta	
(a) Lycopodinæ	
1 Isoetaceæ	1
2 Selaginellaceæ	6
3 Psilotaceæ	1
4 Lycopodiaceæ	12
(b) Equisetinæ	
Equisetaceæ	4
(c) Filicinæ	
1 Marsiliaceæ	1
2 Salviniaceæ	2
3 Ophiolossaceæ	5
4 Osmundaceæ	1
5 Schizaeaceæ	1
6 Gleicheniaceæ	2
7 Polypodiaceæ	97
8 Hymenophyllaceæ	4
B Bryophyta	
(a) Hepaticæ	2
(b) Musci	9
III Thallophyta	
A Fungi	21
B Algæ	
1 Rhodophyceæ	29
2 Phacophyceæ	25
3 Characeæ	1
4 Chlorophyceæ	6
Total	2,070

Fuji, Sakura, Sumiré, Sugé, Susuki, and Kiku

According to Dr. Makino species of the phanerogamae alone number from 8,000 to 10,000 in Japan proper. Among this great number of plants, there are very many which are specially Japanese and unique in the botanical world. Several of the most prominent of these plants are selected here and a brief explanation on each of them is given below :

Fuji. (Kraunhia floribunda) Fuji or wistaria is a plant peculiar to Japan. Chinese wistaria differs from that of Japan, and strangely enough no Chinese wistaria is transplanted in Japan, while it is found in Europe and America. The Chinese wistaria is the so-called murasaki fuji, or purple wistaria, it therefore cannot be classed as belonging to the same species as the Japanese fuji.

The Japanese wistaria is divided into two species, viz. fuji and yama fuji (Kraunhia brachybotrya), or wild wistaria. Both grow in mountains, but are often cultivated in gardens. Yama fuji grows wild in Shikoku, Kyushu, and Chugoku and their vines are sinistal. Its flower is larger in size, but the raceme is short. Some yama fuji found in nurseries have white flowers and are called shira fuji, or white wistaria. Botanists in the West consider it an independent species, but it is only a

variety of yama fuji. The ordinary fuji grows wild all over Japan and its vines are dextral. Wistaria found in Nara Park and that in Kasukabé in Musashi province belong to this species. Its flower-clusters are very long and they sometimes measure as much as several feet.

Sakura. Sakura, or cherry-blossom, is celebrated in Japan from olden times. Yama-zakura (zakura is the euphonic form of sakura in the compound), (Prunus serrulata var. spontanea), or wild cherry blossom, is the most important of all species of cherry blossoms. The famous poem of Norinaga Motoori,

Shikishima no
Yamato gokoro-wo hito towa ba
Asahi ni niwo yamazakura bana.
(Isles of blest Japan !
Should your Yamato Spirit
Strangers seek to scan,
Say—the cherry wild and fair !
Lightened up in morn's sun-lit air !)

refers to this yamazakura. This species grows in the districts stretching from Kyushu in the south to Kinki (near Kyoto) in the Main Island. Many places which are noted for this sakura are found in the belt lying between these two districts. The most famous of them is Yoshino Yama near Nara.

Recently some scientists made an attempt to call it shiro yamazakura, or white wild cherry, because they gave the name of beni yamazakura, or red wild cherry to the other species. But to this red wild cherry the name of oyamazakura (Prunus serrulata var sachalinensis) has already been given.

Ōyamazakura grows in the mountain districts of the Central provinces, Tohoku, Hokkaido and Karafuto and was not probably known to our ancestors in the western half of the Main Island who loved yamazakura.

The ordinary yamazakura grow in mountains and are planted in public and private gardens or along public roads.

The so-called satozakura, or village cherry, does not grow in the mountains. They must have varied from the original yamazakura.

The sakura which is called Yoshinozakura by florists and is widespread to-day all over the country with Tokyo as the centre, is known as somei-yoshino (Prunus yedoensis), in the botanical world. It appeared in Tokyo at the beginning of the Meiji Era. But where florists at Somei got its seedlings is not known. It was about the fifth year of Meiji that they were planted in Ueno Park. The reason that this blossom is called somei-yoshino by scientists is to avoid confusion with the sakura at Yoshino mentioned above. Somei-yoshino appears not to have existed in Yedo, the present Tokyo, during the time of the Tokugawa Shogunate.

This somei-yoshino, strange as it is, existed exclusively in Tokyo, and was rarely transplanted out of the city for long. It is found everywhere in Japan to-day, but it is only since 1902 that it began to spread out from Tokyo.

It has become known that this species of sakura is growing wild in Saishu Island, Korea. However, since it cannot be surmised that its seedlings were brought to Tokyo from this island, the true origin of this sakura in Japan proper is still unknown. Some Western botanists consider somei-yoshino as a species akin to higan-zakura (Prunus subhirtella), which blossoms at the time of the equinoctial week, and oshima-zakura (Prunus serrulata var. albida, a kind of yamazakura which grows on Oshima Island in Izu province). But it is not confirmed yet.

Higan-zakura belongs to a different species. It is divided into two classes in botany. The trunk of one class is large, while that of the other is small. The former is found in Ueno Park, Tokyo, and the latter is rarely seen in the Kanto district.

The small higan-zakura, however, is found everywhere in Kansai (western) district and blossoms much prettier than the other variety. It is also found in Shinano province, although it grows into a comparatively large-sized tree.

The large higan-zakura is not found in such great numbers as the other. Jindai-zakura of Shinano, and ishiwari-zakura of Iwaté belong to this species. Shidare-zakura (the willowy sakura) also comes from this species and is called azuma-higan.

Sumiré (Viola mandsurica) The species of sumiré or violets is called viola in botany and violet is the popular English name, while sumiré is the popular Japanese name for it. This name is said to have originated in the carpenter's "sumitsubo or sumiiré", or Indian inkstand made of wood to which the flower resembles in shape. This "sumiiré" changed into "sumiré," so the story goes.

In botany, sumiré is restricted to a species with flowers of deep purple-colour. Varieties are ko-sumiré, tsubo-sumiré (Viola verecunda), tachitsubo-sumiré (Viola grypoceras) akané-sumiré (Viola phalacrocarpa), ezo-sumiré, ki-sumiré, tsukushi-sumiré (Viola diffusa), etc.

Japan is a kingdom of violets where more than a hundred species are found. No other country in the world compares with Japan in this respect.

Sugé (Carex) Of sugé, carex or sedges, the most prominent is kasa sugé (Carex disparata), or umbrella sedges, and mino sugé, or raincoat sedges. More than 300 species of carex are found in Japan.

Susuki (Miscanthus sinensis) Susuki, or pampass grass is called in some places kaya. The tassel-like bunches of its flowers are called "obana," which is included among Nanakusa, or seven herbs. (See Chap. XXXVII, Calendar of Annual Events).

The graceful form of susuki with Obana on them touches the Oriental heart and has been the subject of many celebrated poems. There are many species such as masuhono-susuki, masuuno-susuki, sugurono-susuki, etc.

Susuki grows abundantly on mountains and in fields, and the tuffs of obana nod before the wind, giving a characteristic Japanese touch to the autumnal landscape.

Kiku (Chrysanthemum sinense) Kiku or chrysanthemum is a celebrated flower in Japan. It is worthy of being the national flower and is used as the Imperial crest.

The Chinese chrysanthemum, from which the Japanese kiku is derived, had been cultivated in China before it was transplanted to Japan.

The scientific name of this flower is Chrysanthemum sinense. The name chrysanthemum is that given to the genus of this family in Europe apart from kiku, before this flower was known in that continent. Sinense is the name of the species and means China. Therefore Chrysanthemum sinense means the Chinese chrysanthemum. When it is called Chrysanthemum japonicum, it becomes the scientific name of the Japanese chrysanthemum or ryuno-giku. Chrysanthemum arcticum, or arctic chrysanthemum, is the scientific name for kohama-giku.

The origin of the chrysanthemum is the wild chrysanthemum grown in China. The Chinese began to cultivate it. The chrysanthemums which were cultivated by Chinese horticulturists were brought into Japan and grew into countless varieties of the chrysanthemum of to-day. In 1884 it was found by Dr. T. Makino, that the original Chrysanthemum sinense, which were thought to have existed only in the old China, grows in Loochoo Islands, Kyushu, Shikoku and the part of the Main Island west of Kobé.

He gave it the name of nojigiku (Chrysanthemum sinense var. japonense). The stems, leaves, flowers, colour and fragrance which nojigiku porsesses are the same as those which the original species of cultivated chrysanthemum in China has.

Fauna

Japan possesses an exceedingly rich and varied fauna closely related to the adjacent continent and classified into two principal groups, the Palæarctic, and the Oriental. Of these the Palæarctic elements are chiefly found in the northern territories, such as the Kuriles, Saghalien, Hokkaido, Japan proper, and Korea, while the Oriental ones range over the islands of Formosa and Loochoo.

Because birds and animals can move their habitat it is more difficult to classify them but, in general, Formosa, the Loochoo, and the Bonin Islands belong to the so-called Oriental zone, according to the world biological division, and include such tropical animals as the buffalo (Bubalus bubalis), the Formosan leopard (Felis dardi brachyurus), the Manis pentadactyla and the big snakes. Tropical insects are found in abundance. In the Loochoos live such rare species as the Trimeresurus flavoviridis, a poisonous snake, and the leaf-butterfly (Kallima inachus formosana). South of Bird Island, Izu, albatross frequent the blue waters; while in the Bonin Islands and southward the Japanese white-eye congregate. On Sulpur Island tropical birds with red tails can often be seen. From Kyushu northward according to the biological theory, extends the Palæarctic Zone with its fauna of the Temperate zone, specially domestic animals; while the wild animals found are the antelope (Capricornis crispus), deer (Sika nippon), wild boar (Sus leucomystax), bear (Ursus torquatus japonicus), fox (Vulpes vulpes japonicus), badger (Nycterentes procyonoides), the Meles anakuma, the Martes melampus, and the squirrel (Sciurus lis). Different species of monkeys are also found. Among birds there are the green pheasant (Phasianus versicolor versicolor), copper pheasant (Graphophasianus soemmerringii scintillans), snowy heron (Egretta garzetta garzetta), hawk (Astus gentilis schvedowi, etc.); the crow (Corvus coronoides japonensis) is the most common. In the northeastern districts of the Main Island, and in the high mountains, are found all the birds of the north, and also such arctic rovers as the hare (Lepus brachyurus brachyurus) and the

ptarmigan (Lagopus mutus japonicus) both of which become white in winter. In Korea, the hedgehog (Erinaceus koreanus), tiger (Felis tigris coreensis), Korean pheasant (Phasianus colchicus karpowi), crane (Megalonis japonensis) and the like are seen.

As there is a wide difference between the kinds of animals in the Main Island and Korea, so also is there quite a difference between those of the Main Island and Hokkaido. In Hokkaido the monkey is no longer seen ; the Hokkaido bear (Ursus arctos yesoensis) takes the place of the bear (Ursus torquatus japonicus) ; while the species of deer, rat. squirrel and ptarmigan are unlike those of the Main Island.

Karafuto again differs from Hokkaido in its species of animals. The rat, squirrel and the Ursus arctos yesoensis are the same, but there are also such species as musk-deer (Moschus moschiferus parvipes) and wild cat (Lynx lynx borealis), while in winter the tiger comes across the frozen sea from the nearby continent.

Coming to the urodele, there are various species of it, the majority of them being considered as peculiar and finding their homes in the southern district. Such species are represented by Hynobius nebulosus, H. stejnegeri, H. vandenburgi, etc. One of the most noteworthy is the giant salamander (Megalobatrachus japonicus), which inhabits the cool mountain streams of provinces in Honshu, south of Mino, and also in Kyushu. Although not common, it is not very rare. It is known to occur also in China, and may be said to represent a good example which marks off the East Asian subregion from the others. As the representative of the northern district may be recorded Hynobius peropus, which is found at high altitudes. Extensively distributed in Japan proper are Diemictylus pyrrhogaster and Onychodactylus japonicus, the former being the commonest of all.

The freshwater fishes are known from an immense number of species, many of which appear to be rather limited in distribution. Some are confined to particular river valleys, others inhabit the lakes of a limited district only, while some are restricted to a comparatively narrow area. Generally speaking, the southern district presents us with the following species : Acheilognathus limbatus, Sarcocheilichthys variegatus, Opsariichthys uncirostris, Zacco temminckii, Brittosus kawamebari, Sicyopterus japonicus, Rhinogobius hadropterus, etc. Ranging over the northern area are found such forms as Oncorhynchus, Pseudoperilampus typus, Chloea senbae, etc. Widely spread over Japan proper occurs Plecoglossus altivelis. The river Nagara, in the province of Mino, is famous for its fishing with the cormorant.

Marine Fauna

On the Pacific side Japan has two principal streams of different temperatures. The warm current is known as the Japan stream, or Kuroshio, which is peculiar for its high salinity. This stream has its origin in the north Pacific current from the east, and passes into the East China Sea, moving northwards by way of Luzon and Formosa.

The cold current is the well-known Kamchatka stream, or Oyashio, which rises from the Behring Sea, and passes down south along the eastern coast of the Kurile group and Hokkaido, extending father southwards off Kinkazan, or beyond, where it meets the aforesaid Kuroshio.

Receiving a paramount influence of the currents just sketched out, Japanese waters command a very rich and varied marine fauna, there being found two types of animal life, the northern and the southern. Neglecting here some southern and northern elements, which have their limits north in the Behring Sea and south off the Loochoo group, respectively, the following three faunal areas may be more or less clearly recognized, though contiguous zones blend one into the other :

(1) Northern zone, extending from the the shore of the Kurile group to that of the northern part of Honshu which lies to the north of Kinkazan.

(2) Middle zone, extending from off Kinkazan to near the Shionomisaki, on the Pacific side, and representing the zone of mingling of the arctic or subarctic and tropical or subtropical forms. The Japan Sea may be dealt with as corresponding as a whole to this zone.

(3) Southern zone, comprising the shores of the parts of Japan proper lying to the south of the Shionomisaki, the Loochoo group, the Bonin group, and Formosa.

Northern Zone This district is frankly subarctic, containing animals characteristic of the Behring Sea on the one hand, and of the Okhotsk Sea on the other. Amongst the carnivorous mammals the sea otter (Enhydra lutris) is circumpolar in range, being confined to the north of Hokkaido, while the Steller sea lion (Eumetopias jubata) and several seals (Phoca vitulina, Ph. fasci-

ata, etc.) frequent the more southern waters, some of them occasionally appearing in the seas off Hokkaido and Amurland. The northern fur seal (Callorhynus ursinus) which is of economic importance particularly abounds in Kaihyo-to (Seal Is.), a small island near Saghalien and also on some islands of the Kuriles.

Turning to cetacea, there are three whalebone whales, such as Balaena glacialis, B. mysticutus, and Rhachianectes glaucus.

Around the Kuriles, Hokkaido, and Saghalien are found in immense quantities many fishes like the cod, salmon, and herring, which are of the same great economic importance as in Norway, Scotland, Newfoundland, and other countries.

Comparatively shallower in the waters are found some ascidians, like Halocynthia roretzi, Chelyosoma siboja, Molgula crystallina, M. redikorzevi, etc. The first two are largely eaten in this country. Much less developed here than in the tropics are a number of echinoderms.

Ranging from the Behring Sea to the Japan Sea occurs Paralithodes camtschatica, which attains a large size and is one of great economic importance. Its famous fishing grounds are the coasts of Kunashir and Saghalien. With this is associated the most edible crab, Chionecetes opilio.

A large number of molluscs are known from this district, of which the most valuable species are Ostrea gigas, Mactra sachalinensis, Pecten yesoensis, Ommastrephes sloani pacificus, etc.

Amongst medusae, such forms as Haliclystus spp., Aurelia limbata, Cyanea spp., Chrysaora spp., Staurophora discoidea, and Sarsia spp. frequent the northern waters.

Middle Zone In this district the arctic or subarctic overlaps the tropical or subtropical fauna, there being distinguished a great variety of animals. Most of the types characteristically Japanese belong here, abounding in rock pools and about the rocky islands. Setting aside some mammals, northern and southern, some whalebone whales may be recorded here, which are of great economic importance. The blue whale (Balaenoptera sibbaldii) which is of wide distribution and of migratory habits, appears off Kinkazan and Hokkaido in summer, and about Shikoku and Kyushu in winter. Swimming in schools in the seas around Japan proper and Hokkaido is found the common finwhale (Bal. physalus) which appears in the north in summer, and in the south in winter. The Sei whale (Bal. borealis) has a range almost similar to the preceding, extending from the southern Kuriles in the north to as far south as the Goto group. Their famous hunting grounds are off the southern Kuriles, Nemuro in Hokkaido, Kinkazan, the Shionomisaki, the Goto group, and Korea.

Here intruded from the southern seas are found a few species of reptiles, like Disteria cyanocincta, Hydrus platulus, Caretta olivacea, and Eretmochelys squamosa which sometimes extend north up to Hokkaido.

The chief species of fishes, the occurrence of which marks this zone off from the others, may be said to be Cynias manazo, Hyporhamphus sajori, Apogon semilineatus, Halichoeres poecilopterus, etc. Some valuable fishes, as the Japanese porgy, bonitos and tunnies are caught here in immense quantities. Of scombroid fishes, Scomber japonicus and Thunnus orientalis are found on both sides, the Pacific and the Japan Sea, extending from Saghalien and Hokkaido in the north to the East China Sea in the south. Besides, this district abounds in sardine (Sardinea melanosticta), which is replaced in the north by the herring and in the south by Etrumeus micropus. Engraulis japonicus also occurs in great abundance, having a range somewhat wider than the sardine. Here it may be noticed that, assuming the Boso peninsula near Tokyo to be a boundary, the species of the northern area gradually drop off, and the species of the southern area become more and more conspicuous. The reverse is true of the southern elements.

Amongst ascidians there are some species like Halocynthia karasboya, Microcosmus hartmeyeri, Styela kroboja, etc.

Echinoderms are plentiful, being comprised of a number of interesting species of Ophiostiba hidekii, Asteroschema japonicum, brittle-stars, sea-urchins, and sea-cucumbers.

Amongst crustaceans, one of the most notable is a giant crab, Macrocheira kaempferi, which appears to be confined to this zone, on the Pacific side. Neptunus trituberculatus is also endemic and ranges all around Japan proper. Having a range nearly similar to the giant crab is an edible spiny lobster, Palinurus japonicus. Besides, there is a good catch of penaeid prawns which are decidedly stragglers from the southern zone.

In the Japan Sea the water is by no

means simple or isolated, but compound and connected with those of other seas. Of fishes the bonitos and Euthynnus are scarcely found in the Sea. Some crabs, like Chionecetes opilio, etc., are of great commercial value and huge quantities are caught. Besides, some shrimps and prawns, belonging to the genera Pandalus and Crangon, are also found in much abundance. Amongst the cephalopods, one of the most notable is an oegopsid, Watasenia scintillans, which emits luminescence. It appears abundantly in Toyama Bay, about May. Ommastrephes sloani pacificus is thickly and extensively distributed in the Sea, its thickest distribution roughly coinciding with the extension of the Tsushima stream.

Southern Zone The fauna about Kyushu and Shikoku is less characteristically Japanese, having much in common with the neighbouring shores of the islands of Bonin, Loochoo, and Formosa, where there are forms which are almost or quite identical with those met with about the South Sea islands of Java, Celebes, Borneo, etc.

Exclusive of the hair seal (Zalophus lobatus), occasionally appearing in this zone, there can be seen a few species of whalebone whales and toothed whales.

Extensively spread over this zone are some species of reptiles, such as Laticauda laticaudata, L. colubrina, Emydocephalus ijimae, Disteira melanocephala, etc., most of them being found not to range over to the middle zone.

Of fishes there is a number of forms which are of great economic importance. Of scombroid fishes, such forms as Rastrelliger chrysozonus, Grammatorcynus bilineatus, and Gymnosarda nuda which inhabit the tropical seas have their range to Loochoo ; Acanthocybium solandri and Euthynnus yaito are spread, on the Pacific side, into the middle zone ; and Katsuwonus pelamis is of very wide distribution, ranging from Formosa to Hokkaido, on the Pacific side, and to middle Honshu, on the Japan Sea side, though very few in number. Cybium chinense and Sarda orientalis are rather abundant about Kyushu, but they are found in northern Honshu, both off the Pacific and the Japan Sea coasts. Of other important fishes, Pagrosomus major, Evynnis cardinalis and Taius tumifrons are distributed from Formosa to middle Honshu. Besides, some forms like Embolichthys mitsukurii, Halichoeres opercularis, Chaetodon setifer, Ch. vagabundus, and others are found to extend to, or about southern Kyushu ; Kuhlia marginata ranges from the southern seas to Idzu, and Safole toeniura to Misaki.

As they proceed southwards, ascidians seek a lower level of the sea for their habitat. Echinoderms are very much in evidence, presenting a number of species which inhabit the southern tropical seas. Some crabs like Scylla serrata, Neptunus pelagicus and Trapezia extend their range northwards to about Loochoo and Kyushu.

Ranging from off the Goto group to the Kumano Sea is a famous coral-bed, where we have such forms as Corallium japonicum, C. elatius, C. konojoi, and C. inutile. The first two corals are also found forming a bed in the waters near the Bonin group, as well as north to Formosa.

The sponges are very rich and varied. The sponge of some commercial value is represented by Euspongia irregularis, which abounds in the southern seas.

Classification Of more than 20,000 species of animals in Japan, 3,725 representative species are contained in the "Illustrated Book of Japanese Animals," by Mr. S. Uchida and others. In addition there are illustrations of 113 species which have been imported into Japan for various purposes. They are classified as follows :

	No. of Species
I Vertebrata	
A Mammalia	91
B Aves	280
C Reptilia	83
D Amphibia	34
E Pisces	448
F Cyclostomata	2
II Prochordatz	
A Cephalochorda	1
B Ascidiacea	36
C Thaliacea	4
D Larvacea	2
E Enteropneusta	2
III Arthropoda	
A Insecta	568
B Myriapoda	15
C Arachnoidea	70
D Crustacea	493
IV Mollusca	
A Cephalopoda	40
B Pelecypoda	128
C Scaphopoda	3
D Gastropoda	320
E Amphineura	5
V Prosopygii	
A Sipunculoidea	8
B Bryozoa	42
C Entoprocta	1
D Brachiopoda	4

	No. of Species
E Phoronida	2
VI Annelida	
A Chaetopoda	88
B Archiannelida	1
C Myzostomida	4
D Hirudinea	30
E Echiuroidea	6
VII Trochelminthes	
A Rotifera	28
B Gastrotricha	1
C Kinorhyncha	1
VIII Chætognatha	5
IX Nemathelminthes	
A Nematoda	65
B Scanthocephali	5
X Nemetritini	10
XI Plathelminthes	
A Turbellaria	25
B Trematoda	50
C Cestoda	40
XII Echinodermata	
A Crinoidea	30
B Asteroidea	52
C Ophiuroidea	56
D Echinoidea	56
E Holothuroidea	56
XIII Coelenterata	
A Ctenophora	8
B Actinozoa	67
C Scyphomedusæ	23
D Hydrozoa	115
XIV Porifera	
A Calcarea	19
B Hexactinellida	31
XV Mesozoa	1
XVI Protozoa	
A Ciliphora	22
B Sporozoa	20
C Rhizopoda	30
D Mastigophora	26
XVII Larva	72
Total	3,725
XVIII Foreign animals	113

Earthquakes

Italy and Japan are the two countries in the world which are famed for earthquakes. In the frequency of earthquakes in recent years Japan beats Italy. In 1923, when the Great Kanto Earthquake occurred, there were 2,786 sensible earthquakes and 3,915 insensible ones. The number of sensible earthquakes in the five years, 1927-1931, was 12,476 in the whole Empire. About 45% of them occurred in the Kanto district, Kyoto and Osaka districts coming next with 22%. But such earthquakes as were accompanied with casualties were very few, numbering only three during the five-year period. The seismic history of the country since 1596 records 21 big earthquakes in which the loss of lives amounted to over 1,000 each.

GREAT EARTHQUAKES IN JAPAN IN THE PAST THREE CENTURIES

Date	A.D.	Japanese Year	Districts	Number of Persons killed
Sept. 3	1596	(Keicho 1)	Oita (Kyushu)	708
Sept. 4	1596	(Keicho 1)	Kobe, Osaka district	1,173
Jan. 31	1605	(Keicho 9)	Pacific coasts from Kyushu to Tokyo Bay	8,800
Sept. 27	1611	(Keicho 16)	Aizu (North-east district)	3,700
Dec. 2	1611	(Keicho 16)	North-east and Hokkaido coasts	4,783
June 16	1662	(Kanbun 2)	Central district	800
Feb. 2	1666	(Kanbun 6)	Takata (Echigo province)	1,500
Dec. 31	1703	(Genroku 16)	Tokyo and Tokaido	5,233
Oct. 28	1707	(Kanyei 4)	Pacific coasts of Central district	4,900
May 20	1751	(Horeki 1)	Takata (Echigo province)	2,000
March 8	1766	(Meiwa 3)	Tsugaru straits	1,335
May 21	1792	(Kansei 4)	Unzen Mt. (Kyushu)	15,200
Dec. 18	1828	(Bunsei 11)	Echigo province	1,443
May 8	1847	(Koka 4)	Shinano and Echigo provinces	12,000
July 9	1854	(Ansei 1)	Yamato to Tokaido	1,057
Dec. 23	1854	(Ansei 1)	Pacific coasts	600
Dec. 24	1854	(Ansei 1)	Kyushu, Shikoku, Ise	3,000
Nov. 11	1855	(Ansei 2)	Tokyo and vicinity	7,000
Nov. 6	1872	(Meiji 5)	Hamada (Iwami province)	600
Oct. 28	1891	(Meiji 24)	Mino and Owari provinces	7,275
Oct. 22	1894	(Meiji 27)	Uzen and Ugo provinces	720
June 15	1896	(Meiji 29)	Miyagi, Iwate and Aomori prefectures	27,122
Sept. 1	1923	(Taisho 12)	Kanto district	44,279

Date	A.D.	Japanese Year	Districts	Number of Persons killed
May 23	1925	(Taisho 14)	Tajima province	394
March 7	1927	(Showa 2)	Tango province	3,017
Nov. 26	1930	(Showa 5)	Izu, Suruga and Sagami provinces	248
March 3	1933	(Showa 8)	Miyagi, Iwate and Aomori prefectures	2,805
April 21	1925	(Showa 10)	Shinchiku, Taichu in Taiwan	3,185

The Kanto Earthquake and Fire which occurred on September 1, 1923, was the severest of all the recorded earthquakes in the country in the number of casualties and amount of damages.

The quake started at 11 : 58′ 31″ A.M. on that day, the epicentre being at the bottom of the sea 28 kilometres below the sea level near the mouth of the Sagami river, 139°17, E. Long., 35° 22′ N. Lat. It was a seismic activity caused by a block movement of the earth, and the shock was felt all over the Empire and recorded by all the seismographs of the world. The largest width of the vibration reached to about 8 inches, and the duration of the quake, as recorded by the seismograph in the laboratory of the Tokyo Imperial University, was over three and a half hours.

As to the casualties and damages caused by the earthquake and fire a variety of reports is published. The statistics here given are made out of those published by the Extraordinary Earthquake Rescue Bureau of the Department of Home Affairs, and those given in the Empire Statistic Year Book published by the Government.

DAMAGES TO BUILDINGS

(Earthquake Rescue Bureau Figures)

Damage	Number	%
Totally burnt	381,090	54.9
Half burnt	517	0.1
Completely damaged	83,819	12.1
Half damaged	91,233	13.1
Carried off by tidal waves	1,390	0.2
Partly broken	136,572	19.6
Total	694,621	100.0

Of the above Tokyo had 354,453 houses damaged (51%), or 73.4% of the total number of houses in the city, while Yokohama had 94,882 houses destroyed (13.7%) or 95.9% of the total number of houses in the city.

CASUALTIES

(Figures from Empire Statistic Year Book and other statistical publications)

	Total	Men	Women	Proportion per 100 population in the district
Killed	44,279	20,953	23,326	0.38
Severely wounded	16,514	9,406	7,108	0.14
Wounded	35,560	20,865	14,695	0.34
Total	96,353	51,224	45,129	0.86

The number of persons killed is usually said to have reached over 100,000, and the Earthquake Rescue Bureau figures give 91,344. But the later statistics given by the Government in the Empire Statistic Year Book seem to be more correct. Of the total number there given as killed, 28,708 were crushed, 15,450 burnt in the ensuing fire, and 121 were drowned by the tidal waves.

No authoritative survey was made in regard to the loss of property and a variety of amounts is given as estimates. Most of them, however, are necessarily exaggerated. But taking the number of destroyed households, the average individual wealth and other factors as guides, the total amount of the loss may be safely said to have reached approximately ¥2,550,000,000.

Earthquake of 1933 The biggest quake of the year occurred in the Sanriku district at 3:31 A. M. March 3. The district, which covers the Pacific coast line of three northeastern prefectures, Miyagi, Iwaté and Aomori, had often been washed by tidal waves due to seismic activities at the sea bottom, the severest loss of life being experienced in 1896. The people were, therefore, fully aware of possible tidal waves when they felt the first shock and immediately hurried to the hills, but the waves overtook them within half an hour or so, drowning 2,805 people and carrying away 15,683 houses, together with over

10,860 fishing boats, loss caused by all damages on houses, boats and farms beeing estimated at ¥18,100,427. The number of casualties was but 10% of those of the 1896 quake, but the area covered and the destruction caused by it was greater.

Formosan Earthquake in 1935 On April 21, 1935 an earthquake struck Shinchiku and Taichu prefectures, Taiwan (Formosa). The shock suddenly began at 6:2′ 17″ A.M. (Taiwan time or 7:2′ 17″ A.M. in Japan proper) and lasted nearly one hour. The epicentre was at a point about 10 kilometres below the surface at the mouth of the Daiankei near the town of Taiko, Taichu. The width of the vibration reached from 8 mm. to 16 mm. and the shock was especially strong in a limited district because it occured at a comparatively shallow spot. Records tell that Formosa experienced big quakes in 1655, 1720, 1722, 1861 and 1867, and this was the 46th quake after 1868 and is said to have been the largest so far as the damages are concerned, the statistics of which follow :

DAMAGES AND CASUALTIES IN THE FORMOSA EARTHQUAKE IN 1935

(April 24, Ministry of Overseas Affairs Report)

Casualties:	
Killed	3,185
Severely wounded	9,215
Wounded	1,415
Missing	6
Total	13,821
Damages:	
Dwellings completely damaged	15,292
,, half damaged	15,457
,, greatly damaged	4,436
,, partly damaged	3,380
Total	38.565
Other buildings completely damaged	574
,, ,, half damaged	128
,, ,, greatly damaged	104
,, ,, partly damaped	184
Total	990

National Parks

On October 8, 1932, a committee of 11 headed by Baron Yoshiro Fujimura, which had been conducting investigations for a year under instructions from the Home Office, submitted a report recommending 12 places in Japan as worthy of preservation and development as national parks. They were (1) Mount Fuji and Hakoné, (2) Nikko, (3) Akan, (4) Daisetsusan, (5) Lake Towada, (6) the Japan Alps, (7) Yoshino and Kumano, (8) the Inland Sea, (9) Daisen, (10) Mount Aso, (11) Unzen and (12) Mount Kirishima.

All of them were officially announced as national parks by the authorities in January, 1936.

Descriptions of the national parks follow :

Mount Fuji and Hakoné In the three prefectures of Yamanashi, Kanagawa and Shizuoka in the centre of the Mainland of Japan, the combination of the world-famous Mount Fuji, the five beautiful lakes at its foot and the hot spring resort of Hakoné is to be known as Fuji Park. Mount Fuji, superb, peerless and highest mountain of Japan proper, is known the world over for its beauty. Its perfect cone rises 3,773 metres above sea level. In July and August, crowds of pilgrims and others climb its sacred slopes to the summit.

Below Mount Fuji are the famous five Fuji lakes, all of which are visited by nature lovers because of their scenic beauty.

Few visitors to Japan fail to visit the Hakoné district, noted for its mountain scenery, invigorating climate, hot springs and places of general interest. The district, popularly known as Mount Hakoné, is the crater of an extinct volcano. Lake Ashinoko is famous for its reflection of Mount Fuji when that elusive peak is visible.

Nikko. In the prefectures of Gunma, Fukushima, Tochigi and Niigata in the centre of the Mainland of Japan, 90 miles north of Tokyo, Nikko is famous the world over for its combination of art and nature. The gorgeous shrines and temples are as striking as its cryptomeria avenue, the mountains, lakes and waterfalls. Lake Chuzenji, the largest lake in the park, is extremely beautiful, and the Kegon waterfalls, which serve as an outlet of the lake, are a most striking sight. Beside the lake stands Mount Nantai, which resembles in shape Mount Fuji. In inner Nikko are smaller lakes and also the hot spring district of Yumoto.

Akan Situated in Kushiro province on the Island of Hokkaido, this park contains a wide area of active volcanic mountains, imposing forests and lakes. Lake Mashu, one of the beautiful lakes below the range of volcanic mountains, lies within 10 kilometres of the Teshikaga hot springs. The lake is nearly 20 square kilometres in area, and in its centre lies a small island.

Lake Kutcharo, the largest of the group in Akan Park, measures 76.22 square kilometres in area, with the beautiful island of Tomoshiri in its centre,

12 kilometres in circumference. At the southern extremity of the lake is a small protruding strip of highland called Wakoto Peninsula, at the foot of which is Wakoto hot springs.

Lake Akan, probably the most beautiful of the Akan group, 11.86 square kilometres, has a zigzag shore and, being rich in changes, presents a very pleasing appearance. On the southwest of the lake rises Mount Oakan, an active volcano.

Akan Park is suitable for sight-seeing trips of two or four days from the city of Kushiro.

Daisetsuzan The Great Snow Mountains district, in the centre of the Island of Hokkaido, presents a range of active volcanoes known as the Daisetsuzan Range. Because of the great height of the mountains, this is often called the Roof of Hokkaido. Surrounding the mountains are virgin woods over an area of 490,000 acres. The mountains form the source of the Ishikari River, the largest river on the island.

The Daisetsu volcanic range rises in more than 10 mountains, including Mount Tokachi and Mount Sangoku. Many lakes are found on the summits of the volcanoes. Mount Asahi, the highest mountain in the group and the highest in Hokkaido, is 2,290 metres above sea level. Its shape, resembling that of Mount Fuji and trailing far to the foot, is very beautiful to look at from a distance. From its summit can be seen on a fine day all Hokkaido.

Lake Towada In the Ohu district in Northern Japan, extending over the two prefectures of Akita and Aomori, the proposed Towada Park is distinguished by Lake Towada on the south and Mount Hakkoda on the north. Lake Towada, the second deepest in Japan, is 378 metres deep at the greatest depth. So clear is the water that one can see into it for 18 metres.

The lake, which is 401 metres above sea level is 78.02 square kilometres in area and 46.2 kilometres in circumference. In origin and scale, the lake resembles Crater Lake in America, but the beauty and variety of scenery here is said to be far superior to that of the American lake.

The Japan Alps (Chubu Sangaku or central mountains) Extending over the prefectures of Nagano, Gifu, Toyama and Niigata in Central Japan, the Hida range of mountains is called the Japan Alps after the European Alps because of its similarity in shape and scenery. Mounts Tsubakuro, Shirouma, Yari, Hodaka and Norikura are some of the high peaks, in the upper valleys of which snow may be found even in midsummer. The region is an excellent place for summer mountain climbing and camping.

Kamikochi, probably the most popular spot in the region, is a flat valley in the shape of an S, 1,500 metres above sea level and surrounded by peaks towering an additional 2,000 metres. Through this valley runs the clear-watered Azusa River. The Kurobé Valley on the north is equally known for its majesty. Steep cliffs of great height stand on both sides, running for almost 80 kilometres from south to north. The region is the source of many beautiful streams and cascades which adorn and add colour to the mountain scenery.

Yoshino and Kumano On the Pacific coast of central Japan and extending over the prefectures of Wakayama, Nara and Mié, Yoshino and Kumano Park has the dual beauties of mountains and sea. The park area includes Ominé and Odaigahara mountain ranges, the Kitayama Valley, Toro Glen, Onigajo and the beach.

Yoshino, noted for its cherry blossoms, and the other mountains in the Yoshino Range are from 1,000 to 2,000 metres above sea level. One of the highest of the 70 mountains is Mount Ominé, which is visited by 200,000 pilgrims annually. Mount Bukkyo, 1,915 metres above sea level, the highest peak in the region, commands on a fine day a striking view over the surrounding country. The sea coast within the area extends 80 kilometres. At the southern extremity of the Shio promontory stands a 63-foot Shionomisaki lighthouse. Within the park are the Nachi waterfalls, the greatest in Japan with a height of 433 feet, and 48 other waterfalls of varying sizes.

The Inland Sea This sea park lies between the Island of Shikoku and the Chugoku district on the Mainland of Japan, extending to the three prefectures of Hiroshima, Okayama and Kagawa and consisting of numerous islands of all shapes and sizes between Shodo-shima in the east and Abuto in the west. The seascape is ever changing as one voyages on its historic waters. Most of the trans-Pacific liners traverse it and occasional glimpses of its beauty can be had from the trains between Kobé and Shimonoseki. The sea is famous for its great variety of fish and their superior flavour.

The area between Kitaki Island and Shimotsui, dotted here and there by numerous islands of varying sizes, presents the best scenic view in the

region.

The Island of Shodo, the largest of the group, is renowned for its scenic beauty, especially its crimson autumnal leaves at Kankakei Valley. Yashima is known in history as the spot where the military clans of Genji and Heiké staged a decisive battle centuries ago, ending in the victory of the former.

Daisen In the prefectures of Tottori and Okayama, in Western Japan, Daisen Park is to be the only national park facing the Japan Sea. It includes, besides Mount Daisen, 1,713 metres above sea level, several peaks of similar height. Mount Daisen is called the Fuji of Hoki, because it resembles Mount Fuji in shape when seen from Shimané prefecture. While its western side is graceful, the northern is very imposing and majestic. Numerous rocks of huge size protrude from the ground. Wide plains around the mountain offer the best skiing ground in the Chugoku district.

Mount Aso. In the centre of Kyushu, Aso Park consists of Mount Aso, which forms five peaks. Aso is an active volcano, with the largest and most celebrated crater in the world. Being double-cratered, it has a huge depression measuring 16 kilometres from east to west and 20 kilometres from south to north, in the centre of which lies the central crater. Within the large crater are 11 villages where 50,000 people live.

The five Aso peaks have characteristics all their own. Naka Peak has a crater which is very active and emits smoke which ascends furiously. Half way up Eboshi Peak are hot-spring districts, such as Toshita and Tochinoki, 800 metres above sea level.

Unzen In Nagasaki prefecture, Kyushu, the renowned sulphide hot springs of Unzen, discovered in 1661, annually attract many foreigners and Japanese. Unzen is famous for the medicinal properties of its waters. It is regarded as the best summer resort in Kyushu and is also visited for its wild cherry blossoms in spring, its splendid azaleas in May, its maple foliage in autumn and its celebrated "Silver Thaw" in winter, when trees and shrubbery are coated with ice.

Unzen, consisting of the lower peaks of Unzen, Nodaké, Takaiwa, Kusenbu, Torikabuto, Azuma, Hachimaki, and Bizan, has a feminine beauty of mountain scenery in contrast with the masculine grandeur of Mount Aso.

Mount Kirishima In the prefectures of Miyazaki and Kagoshima, Kyushu, Kirishima Park consists of 22 gracefully shaped volcanic mountains with characteristic craters, lakes, plains, woods and forests. The view from the mountains extends as far as Sakura Island in Kinko Bay, and that toward Mount Aso and Unzen in the distance is extremely beautiful. Kirishima is also rich in folklore, which gives it a touch of romance.

To have the best view, one must go up Mount Karakuni, the highest peak in the group, 1,700 metres above sea level. The woods turn into slopes and farther on comes a huge plain. The crater lake is soon reached, and hence a steep road leads to the summit. Three hours of walking are needed to reach Mount Takachiho. In the neighbourhood of Shinnen and Nakadaké, wild azaleas bloom in May, turning the locality into a veritable flower garden.

CHAPTER II

POPULATION

General Survey

The outstanding aspects of the population of Japan are that it has virtually trebled in the past 65 years, that the excess of its birth rate over the death rate is one of the highest in the world, and that its density is such that the land within Japan proper leaves scant room for expansion.

The fourth quinquennial national census, taken on October 1, 1935, showed a total population for the Empire of 99,456,818 including Kwantung province, the South Manchuria Railway Zone and the South Sea Mandated Islands. Though lack of statistics makes it impossible to trace the growth with any accuracy from early days, it has been variously estimated that in the 7th and 8th centuries the population ranged between 5,000,000 and 8,000,000 or 9,000,000. Figures compiled at regular intervals between 1721 and 1846, despite their understatement of the actual population because of certain known omissions, indicate comparative stability at about 26,000,000 for more than a century preceding the Meiji Restoration.

The first estimate of population after the Restoration, made in 1872, was roughly 33,000,000. By 1889, the total was 40,000,000, and the 50,000,000 mark was passed in Japan proper about 1909. Each decade showed an accelerated increase :

1870–1880	5%
1880–1890	7.6%
1890–1900	10%
1900–1910	12%
1910–1920	13%
1920–1930	15%

This increase, it is to be noted, started with the opening of the country to world commerce and paralleled Japanese economic expansion. As means of subsistence gained, so did the size of the population. The death rate did not drop appreciably until recent years, but the birth rate, in contrast with that in other leading nations, became higher, jumping from 17 per 1,000 of population in 1872 to 32.36 per 1,000 in 1930, with a peak of 36.2 in 1920.

But the records of the past 5 years show an adverse tendency in the population of Japan proper, the birth rate falling from 33.00 in 1929 to 29.87 in 1934. With a total area of 382,545 square kilometres, Japan proper has a population density of 181 persons to the square kilometre.

In 1935 the average number of the members of a household in Japan proper was 5.1. It differs according to districts. In the eastern districts, from Toyama, Nagano to Hokkaido, it was from 5 to 6, the north-eastern prefectures heading the list with their average of 6. In the western districts, that is to say, Ishikawa, Aichi, Kyoto, Osaka, Chugoku (western prefectures of the Main Island), and Shikoku, it was below 5, the lowest being Yamaguchi and Kochi prefectures with 4.6. Classified in accordance with prefectures, those prefectures which have big cities show a much smaller average, Tokyo being 4.8, Osaka 4.6, Kyoto and Hyogo (Kobé) 4.7. This phenomenon is evidently occasioned by the social and economic conditions in city life which necessitate a small-family system.

FAMILIES BY SIZE 1920 and 1930

Size of Family or No. of Persons	1920 No.	1920 %	1930 No.	1930 %
1	641,860	5.8	694,063	5.5
2	1,392,026	12.5	1,480,773	11.8
3	1,690,534	15.2	1,870,115	14.8
4	1,698,893	15.3	1,905,489	15.1
5	1,620,484	14.6	1,826,367	14.5
6	1,397,347	12.6	1,596,536	12.7
7	1,059,924	9.5	1,243,343	9.9

Size of Family or No. of Persons	1920 No.	1920 %	1930 No.	1930 %
8	702,613	6.3	851,617	6.8
9	418,650	3.8	516,311	4.1
10	240,002	2.1	297,722	2.3
11 and above	259,787	2.3	317,940	2.5
Total	11,122,120	100.0	12,600,276	100.0

POPULATION OF THE EMPIRE

According to the Census of October 1, 1930

	Total Population	Male	Female	Population per sq. km.	Males to 100 Females
Empire	90,396,043	45,675,654	44,720,389	134	102.1
Japan proper	64,450,005	32,390,155	32,059,850	169	101.0
Korea	21,058,305	10,763,679	10,294,626	95	104.6
Formosa	4,592,537	2,353,288	2,239,249	128	105.1
Karafuto	295,196	168,532	126,664	8	133.1
Kwantung Province and South Manchuria Railway Zone	1,328,011	809,044	518,967	355	155.9
South Sea Mandated Islands	69,626	37,929	31,697	32	119.7

According to the Census of October 1, 1935

	Total Population	Male	Female	Population per sq. km.	Males to 100 Females
Empire	97,697,555	49,242,822	48,454,733	145	101.6
Japan proper	69,254,148	34,734,133	34,520,015	181	100.6
Korea	22,899,038	11,662,645	11,236,393	104	103.8
Formosa	5,212,426	2,659,819	2,552,607	145	104.2
Karafuto	331,943	186,225	145,718	9	127.8
Kwantung Province and South Manchuria Railway Zone	1,656,726	995,447	661,279	441	150.5
South Sea Mandated Islands	102,537	57,333	45,204	48	126.8

The average rate of annual increase of population during the five years from 1930 to 1935 in Japan proper was 14.47 per 1,000; 14.06 in male and 14.89 in female. In Chosen it was 16.90, in Taiwan 23.53, in Karafuto 23.75.

The Quinquennial Increase of the Population

	1925–1930	1930–1935
Empire	6,939,114	7,301,468
Japan proper	4,713,183	4,804,143
Korea	1,535,360	1,840,390
Formosa	599,129	620,682
Karafuto	91,442	36,753
Kwantung Province and S.M.R. Zone	273,937	328,752
South Sea Mandated Islands	13,332	32,612

INCREASE OF POPULATION OF JAPAN SINCE THE FIRST NATIONAL CENSUS OF OCTOBER 1, 1920

Year	Population of the Empire: Japan Proper	Population of the Empire: Others	Japan Proper: Births	Japan Proper: Deaths	Japan Proper: Natural Increase
1920	55,963,053	21,025,326	2,025,564	1,422,096	603,468
1925	59,736,822	23,720,107	2,086,091	1,210,706	875,385
1930	64,450,005	28,946,038	2,085,101	1,170,867	914,234
1931	65,366,500	25,354,311	2,102,784	1,240,891	861,893

Year	Population of the Empire		Japan Proper		
	Japan Proper	Others	Births	Deaths	Natural Increase
1932	66,296,000	27,230,234	2,182,742	1,175,344	1,007,398
1933	67,238,600	27,641,765	2,121,253	1,193,987	927,266
1934	68,194,900	28,281,415	2,043,783	1,234,684	809,099
1935	69,254,148	28,443,407	2,190,681	1,162,058	1,028,623
1936	70,258,200	—	—	—	—

Note:—The National census has been taken four times, quinquennially, since 1920. For intercensal years figures on population are estimates.

PREFECTURAL POPULATIONS

According to the Census of October 1, 1935

Prefecture	Area (sq. km.)	Households	Population	Population per sq. km.
Hokkaido	88,775,036	549,390	3,068,282	35
Aomori	9,630,924	161,832	967,129	100
Iwaté	15,235,306	175,113	1,046,111	69
Miyagi	7,273,754	200,309	1,234,801	170
Akita	11,663,861	175,382	1,037,744	89
Yamagata	9,325,757	184,911	1,116,822	120
Fukushima	13,781,613	252,571	1,581,563	115
Ibaraki	6,090,990	287,677	1,548,991	254
Tochigi	6,436,585	213,060	1,195,057	186
Gumma	6,335,823	225,223	1,242,453	196
Saitama	3,802,700	277,572	1,528,854	402
Chiba	5,078,810	293,941	1,546,394	305
Tokyo	2,144,787	1,282,703	6,369,919	2,970
Kanagawa	2,353,484	358,278	1,840,005	782
Niigata	12,578,050	355,772	1,995,777	159
Toyama	4,257,419	154,917	798,890	188
Ishikawa	4,197,513	158,113	768,416	183
Fukui	4,017,969	133,534	646,659	152
Yamanashi	4,465,866	124,099	646,726	145
Nagano	13,626,130	332,726	1,714,000	126
Gifu	10,494,701	244,561	1,225,799	117
Shizuoka	7,769,912	348,124	1,939,860	250
Aichi	5,081,142	569,717	2,862,701	563
Mié	5,765,280	239,846	1,174,595	204
Shiga	4,050,929	151,132	711,436	176
Kyoto	462,196	353,590	1,702,508	368
Osaka	1,813,631	897,789	4,297,174	2,369
Hyogo	8,322,875	610,958	2,923,249	351
Nara	3,688,600	123,914	620,471	168
Wakayama	4,723,423	184,753	864,087	183
Tottori	3,489,481	95,079	490,461	141
Shimané	6,618,042	157,630	747,119	113
Okayama	7,046,475	281,769	1,332,647	189
Hiroshima	8,436,517	382,253	1,804,916	214
Yamaguchi	6,082,108	259,131	1,190,542	196
Tokushima	4,143,221	145,844	728,748	176
Kagawa	1,858,730	152,197	748,656	403
Ehimé	5,667,108	243,211	1,164,898	206
Kochi	7,103,620	156,385	714,980	101
Fukuoka	4,939,646	533,391	2,755,804	557
Saga	2,443,897	127,713	686,117	280
Nagasaki	4,075,777	253,011	1,296,883	318
Kumamoto	7,437,723	261,571	1,387,054	186
Oita	6,333,880	195,292	980,458	155
Miyazaki	7,738,846	158,435	824,431	107

Prefecture	Area (sq. km.)	Households	Population	Population per sq. km.
Kagoshima	9,103,810	332,632	1,591,466	175
Okinawa	2,386,288	126,432	592,494	248
Total	382,314,390	13,499,483	69,254,148	181

Races of the Japanese Empire

The Japanese What constitutes the main part of the population of the Empire is the Japanese. Their number, according to the latest national census of 1930, reaches to about 64,400,000 (32,300,000 males and 32,050,000 females), most of whom occupy the main group of the Japanese archipelago, although they are also found scattered in almost every part of the Empire.

Of late, constant emigration and immigration are taking place between Korea and Japan, but the main population of Korea is Korean and numbers about 20,000,000.

The Ainu inhabit Hokkaido, Chishima (the Kuriles) and the Japanese part of Karafuto (Saghalien).

Most of them are found in Hokkaido, especially in the province of Hitaka, their number being 16,000. In Karafuto there were about 1,500 in 1934; formerly they lived scattered along the sea coasts of Karafuto, but the government policy made a point of collecting them in a few prescribed Ainu villages for the purpose of better protection. Those in Chishima are very few in number. In Hokkaido, as a result of daily contact with the Japanese, they are greatly mixed and are fast changing their customs and manners to accord with the fashion of their Japanese neighbours. In 1935 the total number of the Ainu was 16,389.

As to the position of the Ainu in the ethnic system, there is no consensus of opinion. It was, and still is, a conundrum in anthropology. Years ago the view that the Ainu formed a "Race Island" was put forward by Y. Koganei.

The Gilyaks, whose home is in the Amur region of Siberia, are also found along the Poronai River in the southern part of the Japanese possession in Saghalien. They call themselves "Nickbun" and were reported in 1934 to be 115 in all. Their affinity with other races is not clear, and they are simply classed as one of the palae-Asiatics.

The Orokes, who inhabit the same region in Saghalien as the Gilyaks, are also immigrants from the mainland of Asia. They are a branch of the Tungusic group, but are said to show a considerable influence of the Ainu, Gilyaks and also of the Russians. The number of the Orokes was 302 in 1934.

The Inhabitants of Formosa may be roughly divided into two groups, one is chiefly made up of the Chinese immigrants from Kwangtung and Fukien provinces and occupies the lowland districts and the western half of the island their number being estimated at 4,732,000 in 1934; and the other is made up of the wild hill-tribes inhabiting the mountainous eastern half, and is the more aboriginal of the two. These, on the basis of physical anthropology, ethnology and linguistics, are usually subdivided into eight tribes, namely: Taiyal, Seddaka, Saiset, Tsuou, Bunun, Paiwan, Ami and Yami. They are estimated to be about 150,000 in number and belong either to the Malay or to the Indonesian family.

The Natives of Micronesia Micronesia, which is under our mandatory administration, consists of innumerable small islands, some of which are uninhabited; hence, the native population is only about 50,000. The natives of Saipan, Palau, Yap, Truk, Ponape, Kusaie, Jaluit, etc., constitute the main part of the population. They are usually divided into two ethnic groups. One is known as the Chamorros and is chiefly found in Saipan, although some have emigrated to the the islands of Palau and Yap, and comprised 3,870 in all in 1934. The other, commonly known as the Kanakas, and found scattered in almost every island, numbered 46,467 in 1934.

In addition, it may be said that in the Ogasawara group of islands known as the "Bonin" (corruption of "Mujin" or "Bunin"—uninhabited) there are the naturalized descendants of European and American fishermen, Italian, English, Portuguese, etc., numbering about 120 and these form a sort of foreign settlement of their own.

POPULATION OF JAPAN PROPER BY DIFFERENT NATIONALITIES

(1930 Census)

	In 1930	In 1920
Japanese subjects	64,395,685	55,927,484
Japanese	63,972,025	55,884,992
Koreans	419,009	40,755
Formosans	4,611	1,703
Gilyaks and Orokes	22	31
Westerners in the Bonin	18	3
Foreigners	54,320	35,569
Chinese	39,440	22,427

	In 1930	In 1920
Russians	3,587	1,714
Americans	3,640	3,966
British	3,144	4,188
Germans	1,228	630
French	694	674
Others	2,587	1,970
Total	64,450,005	55,963,053

Age Distribution

Figures for 64,450,005 persons residing in Japan proper on October 1, 1930, show that those less than 14 years of age, termed juveniles, constitute 37 per cent of the population; those from 15 to 59 inclusive, termed productives, 56 per cent and those of 60 or more, termed the aged, 7 per cent.

The number of juveniles of elementary school age, i.e. from 6 to 14 years, is 20 out of 1,000 of population. Men of 17 to 40 years of age, who are liable to the Services constitute 36 per cent of the total number of the males; women of 15 to 50, that is, of child bearing age, constitute 48 per cent of the total female population. The number of persons above 14 years of age who come under the judicial law is 66 per cent of the total population.

DISTRIBUTION BY AGE AND MARRIAGE

Japan Proper, on October 1, 1930

Age	Total	Total Males	Females	Unmarried Males	Unmarried Females
Total	64,450,005	32,390,155	32,059,850	18,508,059	16,010,492
0	1,952,306	985,978	966,328	985,978	966,328
1	1,799,131	906,284	892,847	906,284	892,847
2	1,749,485	882,064	867,421	882,064	867,421
3	1,773,731	892,926	880,805	892,926	880,805
4	1,736,482	876,190	860,292	876,190	860,292
5	1,625,564	818,268	807,296	818,268	807,296
6	1,563,445	787,488	775,957	787,488	775,957
7	1,570,946	791,425	779,521	791,425	779,521
8	1,528,554	770,332	758,222	770,332	758,222
9	1,478,576	747,273	731,303	747,273	731,303
10	1,557,981	787,708	770,273	787,708	770,273
11	1,266,193	638,012	628,181	638,012	628,181
12	1,303,277	657,616	645,661	657,616	645,658
13	1,322,107	668,724	653,383	668,721	653,276
14	1,351,487	684,500	666,987	684,477	666,201
15	1,322,615	670,377	652,238	670,252	646,365
16	1,350,684	687,032	663,652	686,408	644,145
17	1,320,413	670,302	650,111	666,829	599,415
18	1,301,759	659,262	642,497	649,549	540,192
19	1,244,133	631,690	612,443	611,294	444,773
20	1,193,111	607,136	585,975	569,932	344,461
21	1,181,627	593,436	588,191	527,367	266,688
22	2,122,289	568,102	554,187	461,258	188,305
23	1,089,434	557,128	532,306	392,751	137,127
24	945,045	489,604	455,441	290,023	86,171
25	978,773	497,517	481,256	234,023	62,832
26	948,525	487,241	461,284	172,559	44,887
27	980,860	503,125	477,735	133,449	36,935
28	975,245	501,079	474,166	99,368	29,716
29	852,231	491,795	460,436	72,336	24,686
30	895,532	461,605	433,927	51,305	19,663
31	844,932	437,622	407,310	39,718	16,137
32	868,273	446,004	422,269	34,158	15,660
33	811,157	420,519	390,638	27,241	13,162
34	793,771	409,290	384,481	22,721	11,525
35	779,348	404,573	374,775	19,449	10,238
36	741,559	384,820	356,739	16,539	9,229
37	707,038	366,631	340,407	13,608	7,911
38	713,020	368,993	344,027	12,663	7,409
39	643,868	331,888	311,980	10,457	6,830

Age	Total	Total		Unmarried	
		Males	Females	Males	Females
40	677,835	349,878	327,957	10,062	6,647
41	708,016	364,120	343,896	9,355	6,459
42	671,065	346,957	324,108	8,292	5,676
43	648,262	331,246	317,016	7,114	5,261
44	581,300	295,733	285,567	6,247	4,723
45	606,570	307,629	298,941	6,061	4,866
46	611,517	307,067	304,450	5,514	4,758
47	608,661	303,068	305,593	5,436	4,619
48	603,820	301,051	302,769	5,603	4,703
49	615,695	306,342	309,353	5,554	4,710
50	570,608	285,734	284,874	4,766	4,169
51	588,529	293,312	295,217	4,562	4,230
52	567,530	284,354	283,176	4,290	3,875
53	547,563	271,418	276,145	3,984	3,825
54	556,464	275,758	280,706	3,782	3,757
55	497,866	245,697	252,169	3,429	3,330
56	475,999	233,846	242,153	3,063	3,157
57	456,220	222,549	233,671	2,995	3,034
58	417,517	204,467	213,050	2,864	2,846
59	368,501	179,307	189,194	2,553	2,604
60—64	1,722,085	820,315	901,770	9,653	10,212
65—69	1,255,830	577,193	678,637	5,776	6,556
70—74	926,601	403,984	522,617	3,813	4,456
75—79	551,718	222,451	329,267	1,939	2,512
80—84	245,461	89,183	156,278	663	1,068
85—89	70,163	22,259	47,904	148	336
90—94	11,246	3,061	8,185	16	45
95—99	2,751	586	2,165	5	14
100 and over	105	31	74	1	1

Age	Married		Widowed		Divorced	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Total	12,477,501	12,516,167	1,115,777	3,150,041	288,818	383,150
0	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	—	—	—	—	—	—
2	—	—	—	—	—	—
3	—	—	—	—		—
4	—	—	—	—	—	—
5	—	—	—	—	—	—
6	—	—	—	—	—	—
7	—	—	—	—	—	—
8	—	—	—	—	—	—
9	—	—	—	—	—	—
10	—	—	—	—	—	—
11	—	—	—	—	—	—
12	—	3	—	—	—	—
13	3	103	—	—	—	4
14	22	761	—	—	1	25
15	122	5,584	—	23	3	266
16	601	18,541	—	61	23	905
17	3,278	48,402	27	177	168	2,117
18	9,157	97,846	82	422	474	4,037
19	19,290	161,313	127	720	979	5,637
20	35,287	232,778	225	1,190	1,692	7,546
21	63,122	310,252	392	1,919	2,555	9,332
22	102,411	352,923	687	2,682	3,746	10,277
23	157,938	380,743	1,159	3,448	5,280	10,988
24	191,894	354,863	1,517	4,052	6,170	10,355
25	253,609	401,718	2,243	5,303	7,642	11,403
26	303,184	399,044	2,899	6,282	8,599	11,071

Age	Married		Widowed		Divorced	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
27	356,615	421,902	3,726	7,644	9,335	11,254
28	387,223	424,600	4,568	8,678	9,920	11,172
29	404,002	414,815	5,133	9,737	9,824	11,198
30	395,402	393,643	5,584	10,472	9,314	10,149
31	383,448	370,385	5,745	11,376	8,711	9,412
32	396,478	383,077	6,502	13,501	8,866	10,031
33	378,426	354,011	6,649	14,197	8,203	9,268
34	371,805	348,375	6,991	15,772	7,773	8,809
35	369,763	338,086	7,558	17,825	7,803	8,626
36	353,271	320,271	7,766	18,943	7,244	8,296
37	338,262	304,042	7,899	20,585	6,862	7,869
38	340,720	305,259	8,772	23,267	6,838	8,092
39	306,565	274,095	8,786	23,752	6,080	7,303
40	323,198	285,727	10,279	27,908	6,339	7,675
41	336,491	297,032	11,658	32,455	6,616	7,950
42	320,021	277,480	12,459	33,682	6,185	7,270
43	304,882	268,115	13,343	36,233	5,907	7,407
44	270,831	237,037	13,168	36,915	5,487	6,892
45	280,534	245,208	15,310	41,597	5,724	7,270
46	279,102	245,797	16,678	46,434	5,773	7,461
47	273,883	242,574	17,952	50,917	5,797	7,483
48	269,968	235,833	19,511	54,497	5,969	7,736
49	273,166	236,257	21,613	60,607	6,009	7,779
50	253,723	213,019	21,651	60,501	5,594	7,185
51	258,830	215,552	24,211	67,978	5,709	7,457
52	249,495	201,665	25,083	70,495	5,486	7,141
53	236,112	190,978	25,985	74,475	5,337	6,867
54	238,207	188,389	28,252	81,427	5,517	7,133
55	209,933	163,666	27,410	78,936	4,925	6,237
56	193,441	151,971	27,759	81,144	4,583	5,881
57	187,041	140,574	28,223	84,530	4,290	5,533
58	170,197	123,323	27,341	81,985	4,065	4,896
59	147,198	104,462	26,026	77,853	3,530	4,275
60—64	647,384	424,526	147,695	448,862	15,583	18,170
65—69	417,466	237,718	143,871	423,568	10,080	10,795
70—74	252,843	117,442	141,104	394,154	6,224	6,565
75—79	114,593	42,778	103,009	280,737	2,910	3,240
80—84	34,990	9,919	52,665	144,178	865	1,113
85—89	6,287	1,418	15,647	45,905	177	245
90—94	617	154	2,409	7,952	19	34
95—99	162	117	407	2,017	12	17
100 and over	8	1	21	71	1	1

PERCENTAGE

(In every 10,000 of population)

Age	Unmarried		Married		Widowed		Divorced	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
	2,871.7	2,484.2	1,936.0	1,942.0	173.1	488.8	44.8	59.4
0	153.0	149.9	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	140.6	138.5	—	—	—	—	—	—
2	136.9	134.6	—	—	—	—	—	—
3	138.5	136.7	—	—	—	—	—	—
4	135.9	133.5	—	—	—	—	—	—
5	127.0	125.3	—	—	—	—	—	—
6	122.2	120.4	—	—	—	—	—	—
7	122.8	120.9	—	—	—	—	—	—
8	119.5	117.6	—	—	—	—	—	—
9	115.9	113.5	—	—	—	—	—	—

Age	Unmarried		Married		Widowed		Divorced	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
10	122.2	119.5	—	—	—	—	—	—
11	99.0	97.5	—	—	—	—	—	—
12	102.0	100.2	—	0.0	—	—	—	—
13	103.8	101.4	0.0	0.0	—	—	—	0.0
14	106.2	103.4	0.0	0.1	—	—	0.0	0.0
15	104.0	100.3	0.0	0.9	—	0.0	0.0	0.0
16	106.5	99.9	0.1	2.9	—	0.0	0.0	0.1
17	103.5	93.0	0.5	7.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3
18	100.8	83.8	1.4	15.2	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.6
19	94.8	69.0	3.0	25.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.9
20	88.4	53.4	5.5	36.1	0.0	0.2	0.3	1.2
21	81.8	41.4	9.8	48.1	0.1	0.3	0.4	1.4
22	71.6	29.2	15.9	54.8	0.1	0.4	0.6	1.6
23	60.9	21.3	24.5	59.1	0.2	0.5	0.8	1.7
24	45.0	13.4	29.8	55.1	0.2	0.6	1.0	1.6
25	36.3	9.7	39.3	62.3	0.3	0.8	1.2	1.8
26	26.8	7.0	47.0	61.9	0.4	1.0	1.3	1.7
27	20.7	5.7	55.3	65.5	0.6	1.2	1.4	1.7
28	15.4	4.6	60.1	65.9	0.7	1.3	1.5	1.7
29	11.3	3.8	62.7	64.4	0.8	1.5	1.5	1.7
30	8.0	3.1	61.4	61.1	0.9	1.6	1.4	1.6
31	6.2	2.5	59.5	57.5	0.9	1.8	1.4	1.5
32	5.3	2.4	61.5	59.4	1.0	2.1	1.4	1.6
33	4.2	2.0	58.7	54.9	1.0	2.2	1.3	1.4
34	3.5	1.8	57.7	54.1	1.1	2.4	1.2	1.4
35	3.0	1.6	57.4	52.5	1.2	2.8	1.2	1.3
36	2.6	1.4	54.8	49.7	1.2	2.9	1.1	1.3
37	2.1	1.2	52.5	47.2	1.2	3.2	1.1	1.2
38	2.0	1.1	52.9	47.4	1.4	3.6	1.1	1.3
39	1.6	1.1	47.6	42.5	1.4	3.7	0.9	1.1
40	1.6	1.0	50.1	44.3	1.6	4.3	1.0	1.2
41	1.5	1.0	52.2	46.1	1.8	5.0	1.0	1.2
42	1.3	0.9	49.7	43.1	1.9	5.2	1.0	1.1
43	1.1	0.8	47.3	41.6	2.1	5.6	0.9	1.1
44	1.0	0.7	42.0	36.8	2.0	5.7	0.9	1.1
45	0.9	0.8	43.5	38.0	2.4	6.5	0.9	1.1
46	0.9	0.7	43.3	38.1	2.6	7.2	0.9	1.2
47	0.8	0.7	42.5	37.6	2.8	7.9	0.9	1.2
48	0.9	0.7	41.9	36.6	3.0	8.5	0.9	1.2
49	0.9	0.7	42.4	36.7	3.4	9.4	0.9	1.2
50	0.7	0.6	39.4	33.1	3.4	9.4	0.9	1.1
51	0.7	0.7	40.2	33.4	3.8	10.5	0.9	1.2
52	0.7	0.6	38.7	31.3	3.9	10.9	0.9	1.1
53	0.6	0.6	36.6	29.6	4.0	11.6	0.8	1.1
54	0.6	0.6	37.0	29.2	4.4	12.6	0.9	1.1
55	0.5	0.5	32.6	25.4	4.3	12.2	0.8	1.0
56	0.5	0.5	30.8	23.6	4.3	12.6	0.8	0.9
57	0.5	0.5	29.0	21.8	4.4	13.1	0.7	0.9
58	0.4	0.4	26.4	19.1	4.2	12.7	0.6	0.8
59	0.4	0.4	22.8	16.2	4.0	12.1	0.5	0.7
60—64	1.5	1.6	100.4	65.9	22.9	69.6	2.4	2.8
65—69	0.9	1.0	64.8	36.9	22.3	65.7	1.6	1.7
70—74	0.6	0.7	39.2	18.2	21.9	61.2	1.0	1.0
75—79	0.3	0.4	17.8	6.6	16·0	43.6	0.5	0.5
80—84	0.1	0.2	5.4	1.5	8.2	22.4	0.1	0.2
85—89	0.0	0.1	1.0	0.2	2.4	7.1	0.0	0.0
90—94	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.4	1.2	0.0	0.0
95—99	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.0	0.0
100 or more	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Vocational Distribution

According to the census of 1930, the percentage of the unoccupied was 54 per cent, that of persons actually engaged in agriculture was 22 per cent, in industry 9 per cent, and in commerce 7 per cent of the total population in Japan proper. Details follow:

VOCATIONAL DISTRIBUTION

Japan Proper

(October 1, 1930)

	Total	%	Males	Females	Number of Households investigated	People who belong to the Households	%
Total Population	64,450,005	100	32,390,155	32,059,850	11,655,206	60,365,705	100.0
Occupied	29,619,640	46	19,030,237	10,589,403	11,036,968	57,838,718	95.8
Agriculture	14,140,107	22	7,743,065	6,397,042	4,743,519	27,159,448	44.9
Fisheries	546,624	0.9	501,078	45,546	257,082	1,394,623	2.3
Mining	251,220	0.4	210,174	41,046	168,582	797,848	1.3
Industries	5,699,581	8.9	4,269,151	1,430,430	2,297,639	11,226,984	18.6
Commerce	4,478,098	7.0	3,013,903	1,464,195	2,096,452	10,443,214	17.3
Transportation and Communications	1,107,574	1.7	1,028,595	78,979	507,530	2,325,230	3.8
Officials, Educators, Writers, etc.	2,044,151	3.1	1,691,803	352,348	885,458	4,160,377	6.9
Domestic	781,319	1.2	84,203	697,116	45,996	183,024	0.3
Miscellaneous	570,966	0.8	488,265	82,701	34,710	147,970	0.2
Unoccupied	34,830,365	54	13,359,918	21,470,447	618,238	2,526,987	4.2

	Total	Males
Total Population	64,450,005	32,390,155
Occupied	29,619,640	19,030,237
Agriculture	14,140,107	7,743,065
On the farm	13,549,491	7,453,883
Stock-raising	60,630	44,637
Sericulture	354,644	99,404
Forestry	175,342	145,141
Fisheries	546,624	501,078
Mining	251,220	210,174
Coal mines	182,558	147,134
Mineral mines	31,873	28,424
Oil-fields	2,845	2,768
Stone-pits	33,944	31,848
Industries	5,699,581	4,269,151
Ceramics and stone cutting	169,414	141,205
Metal, Machinery, Shipbuilding, etc.	705,395	685,555
Precision machinery	57,921	55,345
Chemical	127,537	102,279
Spinning	1,361,153	434,705
Clothes	497,695	317,392
Paper and Printing	265,263	227,623
Leather, Brush	33,119	28,602
Bamboo, Mat, etc.	703,325	635,981
Salt	21,848	18,222
Foodstuffs	446,803	342,333
Building, etc.	1,000,078	996,567
Gas, Electric, etc.	128,624	128,486
Other industries	181,406	154,856

	Total	Males
Commerce	4,478,098	3,013,903
Wholesale and retail	3,255,215	2,511,073
Banking and insurance	61,843	56,756
Entertainments	1,161,040	446,074
Transportation and Communications	1,107,574	1,028,595
Transportation	935,922	904,732
Communications	171,652	123,863
Officials and Free Occupation	2,044,151	1,691,803
Officials, civil	436,293	420,005
Army and Navy officers on service	242,796	242,796
Judicial	7,492	7,492
Educational	327,192	225,305
Religious	151,248	126,776
Medical	266,637	126,569
Secretarial and Scrivener	439,418	399,405
Writers, Artists, Actors, etc.	114,773	89,841
Others	58,302	53,614
Domestic	781,319	84,203
Miscellaneous	570,966	488,265
Unoccupied	34,830,365	13,359,918
Those who have income	190,836	120,194
Children, the aged, etc.	34,639,529	13,239,724

POPULATION CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE SIZE OF HOUSEHOLD

(Census taken on Oct. 1, 1930)

		%	Members per household	No. of Households	%
Total number of households investigated	12,600,276	100.0	4	1,905,489	15.5
Total number of members	62,760,821	—	5	1,826,367	14.4
			6.	1,596,536	12.6
Members per household	No. of Households		7	1,243,343	9.8
1	694,063	5.5	8	851,617	6.7
2	1,480,773	11.7	9	516,311	4.0
3	1,870,115	14.8	10	297,722	2.5
			11 and over	317,940	2.6

ACCORDING TO THE SIZE OF THEIR DWELLINGS

			Percentage of households
Total number of households investigated		12,557,931	100.0
Total number of members		62,630,774	—
Households living dwellings which consist of	Households	Persons	
Less than 1 room	6,147	11,357	0.04
1 room	1,398,960	4,442,016	11.14
2 rooms	3,114,387	12,924,735	24.80
3 rooms	2,576,473	12,680,718	20.51
4 rooms	2,721,291	14,931,173	21.67
5 rooms	1,382,189	8,395,507	11.00
6 rooms	686,361	4,416,294	5.46
7 rooms	310,060	2,114,638	2.46
8 rooms	159,105	1,124,188	1.26
9 rooms	77,729	567,068	0.61
10 rooms	49,667	379,706	0.39
11 rooms or more	75,562	643,374	0.60

Marriages and Divorces

In 1935 the number of marriages in Japan proper was 556,730, an increase of 44,076 as compared with the previous year. The number of marriages per 1,000 population was 8.04 or 0.52 higher compared with the previous year, against the general trend of recent years, which had been decidedly on the decline. The number of divorces in the same year was 48,528 or 82 less than in 1934. The number of divorces per 1,000 population was 0.70 or 0.01 lower than the previous year. Before 1920 the number of divorces surpassed the 100,000 mark in a year and the proportion per 1,000 population was from 2.0 at the lowest to 3.0 at the highest, but it has kept a rate lower than 1.0 since 1920.

MARRIAGES AND DIVORCES

Year	Marriages	Divorces	Proportion per 1,000 population: Marriages	Proportion per 1,000 population: Divorces
1926	502,847	50,472	8.31	0.83
1927	487,850	50,626	7.96	0.83
1928	499,555	49,119	8.01	0.79
1929	497,410	51,222	7.90	0.81
1930	506,674	51,259	7.86	0.80
1931	496,574	50,609	7.60	0.77
1932	515,270	51,437	7.77	0.78
1933	486,058	49,282	7.23	0.73
1934	512,654	48,610	7.52	0.71
1935	556,730	48,528	8.04	0.70

MARRIAGES BY AGE GROUPS

Husbands

Year	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Under 19	13,325	12,387	11,654	10,617	9,896	8,467	7,734	6,635	6,186	5,775
20–24	157,404	147,413	146,627	142,225	145,421	144,234	145,917	130,569	131,592	136,871

Husbands

Year	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
25-29	190,710	191,937	202,217	204,513	209,552	205,747	214,886	205,402	223,695	250,418
30-34	67,590	65,236	68,419	69,012	70,638	70,903	77,421	73,934	78,274	85,506
35-39	30,231	28,754	28,629	28,299	28,713	27,893	29,299	29,129	30,075	32,547
40-49	28,790	27,464	27,431	27,664	27,565	24,948	25,303	25,454	26,967	28,635
50-59	10,731	10,622	10,535	10,942	10,755	10,397	10,720	10,740	11,441	12,111
Over 60	4,066	4,046	4,043	4,138	4,129	3,985	3,990	4,195	4,424	44,867
Total	502,847	487,850	499,555	497,410	506,674	496,574	515,270	486,058	512,654	566,730

Wives

Year	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Under 15	135	116	62	27	27	34	26	37	38	28
15-19	123,537	123,677	120,584	117,694	109,115	105,467	96,039	92,064	78,091	79,058
20-24	239,763	239,869	242,966	250,233	263,962	267,714	279,728	263,644	280,497	305,857
25-29	77,831	77,979	78,086	77,795	77,755	76,528	83,836	83,152	92,582	105,956
30-34	27,712	26,673	27,480	27,656	27,432	26,155	28,567	27,181	27,975	30,272
35-39	13,930	13,114	13,297	12,963	12,797	12,395	13,044	13,320	13,367	14,968
40-49	14,086	13,633	13,223	13,557	13,049	11,759	12,017	11,987	12,966	13,487
50-59	4,666	4,860	4,735	4,926	5,087	4,868	4,886	4,999	5,373	5,710
Over 60	1,066	1,076	1,047	1,138	1,091	1,090	1,091	1,161	1,265	1,394
Total	502,847	487,850	499,555	497,410	506,674	496,574	515,270	486,058	512,654	556,730

PROPORTION PER 1,000 MARRIAGES

Husbands

Year	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Under 19	26.5	25.4	23.3	21.3	19.5	17.1	15.0	13.7	12.1	10.4
20-24	313.0	302.2	293.5	285.9	287.0	290.5	283.2	268.6	256.7	245.8
25-29	379.2	393.4	404.8	411.2	413.6	414.3	417.0	422.6	436.3	449.8
30-34	134.4	133.7	137.0	138.7	139.4	142.8	150.3	152.1	152.7	153.6
35-39	60.1	58.9	57.3	56.9	56.7	56.2	56.9	59.9	58.7	58.5
40-49	57.3	56.3	54.9	55.6	54.4	50.2	49.1	52.4	52.6	51.5
50-59	21.4	21.8	21.1	22.0	21.2	20.9	20.8	22.1	22.3	21.8
Over 60	8.1	8.3	8.1	8.3	8.1	8.0	7.7	8.6	8.6	8.7
Total	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0

Wives

Year	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Under 15	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1
15-19	246.0	247.2	235.6	219.4	208.2	193.4	178.7	165.8	152.3	142.0
20-24	476.8	475.3	488.4	503.1	521.0	539.1	542.9	542.4	547.1	549.4
25-29	154.8	155.7	156.3	156.4	153.5	154.1	162.7	171.1	180.6	190.3
30-34	55.1	54.7	55.0	55.6	54.1	52.7	55.4	55.9	54.6	54.4
35-39	27.7	26.9	26.6	26.1	25.3	25.0	25.3	27.4	27.0	26.9
40-49	28.0	27.9	26.5	27.3	25.8	23.7	23.3	24.7	25.3	24.2
50-59	9.4	9.3	10.0	9.5	9.9	10.0	9.8	9.5	10.5	10.3
Over 60	2.1	2.2	2.1	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.4	2.5	2.6
Total	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0

Births and Deaths

The natural increase of population has become greater with the advance of years. For several years since 1910 the natural increase kept to the 700,000 mark. In 1916 and 1917 it decreased a little, and in 1918 it reached the lowest figure of 300,000, largely due to the prevalence of a severe influenza epidemic. In 1919, however, the increase regained, reaching the 500,000 mark, and it continued to increase till the 940,000 mark was attained in 1926. There have been ups and downs since, but 1932 was a record year, registering an increase of 1,007,000, the million mark being attained for the first time. In 1935 a new record was established with 1,028,768.

BIRTHS AND DEATHS

Japan Proper

				Rate per 1,000 of Population		
	Births	Deaths	Excess of Births over Deaths	Births	Deaths	Excess of Births over Deaths
1926	2,104,405	1,160,734	943,671	34.77	19.18	15.59
1927	2,060,737	1,214,323	846,414	33.61	19.81	13.81
1928	2,135,852	1,236,711	899,141	34.38	19.91	14.47
1929	2,077,026	1,261,228	815,798	33.00	20.04	12.96
1930	2,085,101	1,170,867	914,234	32.36	18.17	14.19
1931	2,102,784	1,240,891	861,893	32.17	18.98	13.19
1932	2,182,742	1,175,344	1,007,398	32.92	17.73	15.19
1933	2,121,253	1,193,987	927,266	31.55	17.76	13.79
1934	2,043,783	1,234,684	809,099	29.97	18.11	11.86
1935	2,190,704	1,161,936	1,028,768	31.63	16.78	14.85

BIRTHS AND STILL-BIRTHS

Year	Total	Births (Infants living) Legitimate		Illegitimate	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
1926	2,104,405	1,006,671	948,262	75,122	74,349
1927	2,060,737	977,205	939,545	71,741	72,246
1928	2,133,852	1,018,477	974,168	72,225	70,982
1929	2,077,026	989,627	949,351	69,039	69,009
1930	2,085,101	1,001,441	949,438	68,110	66,111
1931	2,102,784	1,006,360	963,502	67,025	65,897
1932	2,182,742	1,050,185	999,016	67,769	65,772
1933	2,121,253	1,022,150	970,041	65,538	63,524
1934	2,043,783	981,451	940,178	61,285	60,869
1935	2,190,704	1,060,007	1,005,526	62,860	62,310

Year	Still Births Total	Infants (Legitimate)	Infants (Illegitimate)	Percentage Males to 100 Females Births	Living Births (per 100 births)	Still Births
1926	124,038	92.9	7.1	105.8	94.4	5.6
1927	116,922	93.0	7.0	103.7	94.6	5.4
1928	120,191	93.3	6.7	104.4	94.7	5.3
1929	116,971	93.4	6.6	104.0	94.7	5.3
1930	117,730	93.6	6.4	105.3	94.7	5.3
1931	116,509	93.7	6.3	104.3	94.8	5.2
1932	119,579	93.9	6.1	105.0	94.8	5.2
1933	114,138	93.9	6.1	105.2	94.9	5.1
1934	113,043	94.0	6.0	104.2	94.8	5.2
1935	115,593	94.3	5.7	105.2	95.0	5.0

Expectation of Life

The following table prepared by the Government Bureau of Statistics gives the average expectation of life for Japanese people of both sexes, and is based on the vital statistics for a period from 1926 to 1930.

EXPECTATION OF LIFE

Average of 1926–1930

Age	Males	Females	Age	Males	Females	Age	Males	Females
0	44.82	46.54	35	29.61	32.53	70	7.43	8.88
1	51.07	52.10	36	28.83	31.83	71	7.03	8.38
2	52.35	53.37	37	28.05	31.13	72	6.66	7.91
3	52.54	53.59	38	27.28	30.43	73	6.29	7.46
4	55.33	53.43	39	26.51	29.72	74	5.94	7.01

Age	Males	Females	Age	Males	Females	Age	Males	Females
5	51.85	53.00	40	25.74	29.01	75	5.61	6.59
6	51.18	52.37	41	22.99	28.30	76	5.29	6.18
7	50.42	51.65	42	24.23	27.59	77	4.98	5.79
8	49.62	50.86	43	23.49	26.86	78	4.69	5.42
9	48.79	50.03	44	22.75	26.13	79	4.41	5.07
10	47.93	49.18	45	22.02	25.39	80	4.15	4.73
11	47.05	48.33	46	21.30	24.64	81	3.90	4.41
12	46.17	47.48	47	20.58	23.90	82	3.66	4.11
13	45.28	46.62	48	19.88	23.15	83	3.43	3.82
14	44.41	45.84	49	19.18	22.41	84	3.22	3.55
15	43.58	45.11	50	18.49	21.67	85	3.02	3.30
16	42.79	44.44	51	17.81	20.94	86	2.83	3.06
17	42.07	43.82	52	17.14	20.22	87	2.65	2.83
18	41.40	43.24	53	16.49	19.50	88	2.48	2.62
19	40.78	42.67	54	15.84	18.79	89	2.32	2.43
20	40.18	42.12	55	15.21	18.09	90	2.17	2.24
21	39.57	41.56	56	14.58	17.39	91	2.03	2.07
22	38.95	41.00	57	13.97	16.70	92	1.89	1.91
23	38.32	40.43	58	13.38	16.02	93	1.77	1.76
24	37.67	39.84	59	12.79	15.34	94	1.65	1.63
25	37.01	39.23	60	12.23	14.68	95	1.55	1.50
26	36.33	38.61	61	11.67	14.04	96	1.45	1.39
27	35.63	37.97	62	11.14	13.40	97	1.35	1.28
28	34.91	37.32	63	10.62	12.78	98	1.26	1.19
29	34.18	36.66	64	10.12	12.17	99	1.18	1.09
30	33.43	35.98	65	9.64	11.58	100	1.09	1.01
31	32.68	35.30	66	9.17	11.01	101	0.99	0.91
32	31.92	34.62	67	8.72	10.45	102	0.84	0.49
33	31.15	33.93	68	8.27	9.91			
34	30.38	33.23	69	7.84	9.38			

Urbanization

As in other countries where industry is of importance, Japan has experienced a shift of population from the countryside to the towns and cities. Concurrently, municipalities have amalgamated to form larger units. The following tables show the trend toward larger urban centres; the first, the increase in the number of municipalities of large population, and the second, the increase in the proportion of the population residing in these larger municipalities. For 1920, 1925, 1930 and 1935, the figures are based on the national censuses of these years, but the earlier figures depend on less comprehensive statistics compiled by local authorities.

CITIES, TOWNS AND VILLAGES CLASSIFIED

According to Population

	1935	1930	1925	1920	1913	1908	1903	1898
Total Number	11,546	11,865	12,019	12,244	12,356	12,457	13,323	14,027
Population up to 499	64	70	82	126	163	228	461	646
500—999	250	258	264	304	306	360	512	738
1,000—1,999	2,015	2,092	2,275	2,354	1,982	2,190	2,667	3,311
2,000—4,999	6,564	6,886	7,054	7,264	7,584	7,652	8,055	8,018
5,000—9,999	1,953	1,878	1,735	1,639	1,852	1,654	1,343	1,081
10,000—19,999	466	426	392	374	335	268	185	152
20,000—29,999	86	93	78	76	55	35	25	33
30,000—39,999	44	38	36	40	25	26	33	25
40,000—49,999	16	27	31	20	17	15	7	3
50,000—99,999	54	65	51	31	26	19	16	12
Above 100,000	34	32	21	16	11	10	9	8

DISTRIBUTION PER 1,000 OF POPULATION IN CITIES, TOWNS AND VILLAGES[1]

Size of Communities	Oct. 1, 1935	Oct. 1, 1930	Oct. 1, 1925	Oct. 1, 1920	End of 1913	End of 1908	End of 1903	End of 1898
up to 499	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.1	2.3	3.5
500—990	2.9	3.2	3.6	4.3	4.3	5.3	8.1	12.4
1,000—1,999	46.3	51.8	60.8	67.3	57.6	67.6	87.3	115.2
2,000—4,999	305.2	343.2	377.2	412.2	441.6	469.2	518.1	540.5
5,000—9,999	186.8	193.5	192.2	193.2	219.6	207.5	177.2	151.3
10,000—19,999	90.3	88.7	87.5	90.7	81.6	69.3	51.7	44.1
20,000—29,999	29.8	34.2	30.3	32.3	23.6	16.3	12.4	17.5
30,000—39,999	21.5	20.1	20.9	25.1	16.1	17.8	23.3	18.7
40,000—49,999	10.7	18.5	23.1	15.9	13.5	12.8	6.3	2.8
50,001—99,999	53.2	68.3	57.7	37.6	33.6	26.1	22.2	17.0
Above 100,000	253.0	178.2	146.3	120.7	107.7	107.0	92.1	77.0

1. For administrative purposes, all of Japan proper is divided into cities, towns and villages, persons residing in what would be known as rural districts in other countries belonging, as the case may be, to the nearest cities, towns and villages.

In October, 1935, there were 127 cities in Japan proper, which meant an increase of 4 every year since the 1930 census. In May, 1937 there were 145, a much greater increase. According to the census on October 1, 1935, the number of major cities which have more than 100,000 population was 34, including 4 cities which have more than 1,000,000, Tokyo leading others with 5,875,667. The total urban population comprises 22,655,920 or 32.7 per cent of the population of Japan proper. In 1936, there were 131 cities with an aggregate population of 23,620,200 or 33.6 per cent of the total estimated population 70,258,200, on October 1. The rapid growth of cities may be proved from the fact that the rate of increase of population in cities is much higher than that of Japan proper, as is shown below :

	Population		Quinquennial Increase		Rate of Increase	
	Japan proper	Cities	Japan proper	Cities	Japan proper	Cities
1920	55,963,053	13,909,305	—	—	—	—
1925	59,739,822	16,606,809	3,773,769	2,697,504	6.7	19.39
1930	64,450,005	19,439,405	4,713,183	2,832,596	7.9	17.06
1935	69,254,148	22,655,920	4,804,143	3,216,515	7.4	16.54
1936 (estimate)	70,258,200	23,620,200				

NUMBER OF CITIES, TOWNS AND VILLAGES IN JAPAN PROPER

(1889—1936)

	Cities	Towns	Villages
1889	39	715	12,632
1898	52	1,169	13,557
1908	66	1,164	11,233
1913	69	1,246	11,033
1920	83	1,366	10,782
1925	100	1,510	10,451
1930	109	1,702	9,980
1934	124	1,683	9,788
1935	129	1,720	9,662
1936	131	—	—

A village is an administrative unit consisting of several villages.

CITIES IN JAPAN PROPER

Census of October 1, 1935

	Population in 1930 (Census)	Population in 1935 (Census)
1. Tokyo	2,070,913	5,875,667
2. Osaka	2,453,573	2,988,874
3. Nagoya	907,404	1,082,816
4. Kyoto	765,142	1,080,593
5. Kobé	786,616	912,179
6. Yokohama	620,306	704,290
7. Hiroshima	270,417	310,118

		Population in 1930 (Census)	Population in 1935 (Census)
8.	Fukuoka	228,289	291,158
9.	Kuré	190,282	231,333
10.	Sendai	190,180	219,547
11.	Nagasaki	204,626	211,702
12.	Yawata	168,217	208,629
13.	Hakodaté	197,252	207,480
14.	Shizuoka	136,481	200,737
15.	Sapporo	168,576	196,541
16.	Kumamoto	164,460	187,382
17.	Yokosuka	110,301	182,871
18.	Kagoshima	137,236	181,736
19.	Wakayama	117,444	179.732
20.	Saseho	133,174	173,283
21.	Okayama	139,222	166,144
22.	Kanazawa	157,311	163,733
23.	Kawasaki	104,351	154,748
24.	Otaru	144,887	153,587
25.	Sakai	120,348	141,286
26.	Toyohashi	98,555	140,735
27.	Niigata	125,108	134,992
28.	Hamamatsu	109,478	133,338
29.	Shimonoseki	93,543	132,737
30.	Gifu	90,112	128,721
31.	Moji	108,130	121,611
32.	Kokura	88,049	110,372
33.	Omuta	97,298	104,992
34.	Kochi	96,988	103,405
35.	Tokushima	90,634	97,021
36.	Aomori	77,103	93,414
37.	Kurumé	83,009	91,920
38.	Himeji	62,171	91,375
39.	Asahigawa	82,514	91,021
40.	Nishinomiya	39,360	89,909
41.	Maebashi	84,925	87,181
42.	Utsunomiya	81,388	87,129
43.	Takamatsu	79,906	86,840
44.	Toyama	75,099	83,324
45.	Kofu	79,447	82,664
46.	Matsuyama	82,477	81,940
47.	Nagano	73,912	77,325
48.	Okazaki	65,507	77,195
49.	Ubé	61,172	76,642
50.	Kiryu	52,906	76,145
51.	Fukui	64,199	75,273
52.	Wakamatsu (Fukuoka prefecture)	57,320	73,345
53.	Matsumoto	72,141	73,353
54.	Amagasaki	50,064	71,072
55.	Otsu	34,379	71,063
56.	Yamagata	63,423	69,231
57.	Morioka	62,249	69,130
58.	Tobata	51,674	67.800
59.	Tsu	56,089	65,971
60.	Naha	60,535	65,208
61.	Muroran	55,855	65,095
62.	Miyazaki	54,600	64,726
63.	Takasaki	59,928	64,283
64.	Mito	50,648	63,816
65.	Beppu	43,074	62,345
66.	Hachinohé	52,907	62,210
67.	Nagaoka	57,866	62,152
68.	Oita	57,294	61,732
69.	Shimizu	55,665	61,123
70.	Akita	51,070	60,646
71.	Hachioji	51,888	59,494
72.	Yokkaichi	51,810	58,471
73.	Fukuyama	38,214	58,186
74.	Chiba	49,088	57,446
75.	Takaoka	51,760	57,249
76.	Nobeoka	30,897	56,421
77.	Kushiro	51,586	56,170
78.	Nara	52,784	55,968
79.	Koriyama	51,367	54,709
80.	Kawaguchi	22,226	53,716
81.	Ichinomiya	42,229	53,376
82.	Ujiyamada	51,080	52,494
83.	Matsué	44,502	52,033
84.	Imabari	43,735	51,602
85.	Uwajima	44,276	51,280
86.	Yonezawa	44,731	50,448
87.	Saga	46,183	50,154
88.	Numazu	44,027	49,824
89.	Ogaki	38,508	49,273
90.	Ashikaga	43,898	48,875
91.	Fukushima	45,692	48,484
92.	Choshi	42,698	48,352
93.	Seto	37,309	47,553
94.	Ichikawa	20,846	46,711
95.	Wakamatsu (Fukushima prefecture)	43,731	46,199
96.	Hirosaki	43.337	46,014
97.	Tottori	37,189	45,335
98.	Urawa	25,328	44,328
99.	Nogata	40,072	43,943
100.	Akashi	38,958	42,644
101.	Iizuka	40,009	39,629
102.	Kishiwada	35,102	39,097
103.	Hiratsuka	33,498	38,348
104.	Kumagaya	35.913	37,649
105.	Tsuruoka	34,316	37,224
106.	Yonago	33,632	36,635
107.	Miyakonojo	35,512	36,575
108.	Tsuyama	34,159	36,092
109.	Obihiro	28,135	35,695
110.	Matsuzaka	33,251	35,661
111.	Ueda	35,138	35,380
112.	Kawogoé	34,205	35,192
113.	Yamaguchi	32,385	34,803
114.	Kurashiki	30,112	34,716
115.	Sanjo	31,256	34,649
116.	Ishinomaki	30,743	33,530
117.	Hagi	32,106	32,587
118.	Shingu	28,967	32,055
119.	Sakata	30,280	31,866
120.	Takada	30,934	31,284
121.	Karatsu	29,149	31,058
122.	Onomichi	29,084	30,777
123.	Yawatahama	28,980	30,500
124.	Nakatsu	28,563	30,328
125.	Kainan	28,686	29,917

		Population in 1930 (Census)	Population in 1935 (Census)
126.	Marugamé	28,837	29,615
127.	Shuri	20,119	19,305 (1936)
128.	Okaya	—	38,700
129.	Toyonaka	24,127	37,000
130.	Takayama	20,154	—
131.	Mihara	21,141	39,000

CITIES IN TERRITORIES

CHOSEN (Korea)

		1930 (Census)	1934 (Estimated)
132.	Keijo (Seoul)	394,240	438,700
133.	Fusan	146,098	180,100
134.	Heijo	140,703	—
135.	Taikyu	93,319	107,800
136.	Jinsen (Chemulpo)	68,137	78,300
137.	Kaijo	49,520	—
138.	Shingishu	48,047	—
139.	Kankyo	43,851	—
140.	Genzan	42,760	48,200
141.	Chinnampo	38,296	47,800
142.	Seishin	35,925	49,600
143.	Moppo	34,689	41,500
144.	Masan	27.885	32,200
145.	Kunsan	26,321	30,400

TAIWAN

146.	Taihoku	230,490	283,085
147.	Tainan	94,546	107,887
148.	Kiirun	75,070	84,650
149.	Takao	62,722	81,582
150.	Kagi	57,880	70,083
151.	Taichu	54,188	68,414
152.	Shinchiku	45,014	54,110
153.	Heito	34,909	41,715
154.	Shoka	43,530	51,152

KWANTUNG LEASED TERRITORY

155.	Oairen	292,552	307,871 (Dec., 1933)
156.	Port Arthur	33,933	29,737

KARAFUTO

157.	Odomari	33,312	46,200
158.	Toyohara	31,648	47,800

Foreign Residents

The number of foreign residents in Japan proper, for the past five years has been as follows :

Year	Diplomatic and Consular Corps	Total	Males	Females
1930	361	40,290	28,612	11,678
1931	390	28,317	19,655	8,662
1932	371	26,885	18,615	8,270
1933	374	29,268	19,764	9,504
934	400	32,641	21,895	10,746

Information given with the 1934 figures shows 11,026 foreigners engaged in commerce ; 2,549 in professional work ; 2,673 studying (the largest number in the past ten years) ; 1,372 in mining and manufacturing ; 119 in transportation ; 5 in agriculture and forestry ; 1 in fisheries ; 578 in various other occupations, and 14,318 without occupations.

The following table classifies foreign residents according to countries of origin :

FOREIGN RESIDENTS

(December 31, 1934)

Countries of Origin	Total	Men	Women
Total	32,641	21,895	10,746
China	22,741	16,520	6,221
Manchoukuo	260	230	30
Siam	40	25	15
Straits Settlements	8	6	2
Philippines	113	89	24
Dutch East Indies	2	2	—
Iraq	8	7	1
Georgia	1	0	1
India	395	299	96
Afghanistan	10	6	4
Armenia	28	14	14
Persia	7	5	2
Turkey	29	16	13
Syria	29	21	8
Russia	1,457	765	692
Poland	58	40	18
Latvia	10	7	3
Lithuania	16	10	6
Estonia	16	11	5
Finland	20	11	9
Sweden	91	51	40
Norway	18	11	7
Denmark	92	52	40
Great Britain	1,953	982	971
Holland	163	108	55
Belgium	45	27	18
Luxemburg	22	11	11
France	512	266	246
Spain	81	34	47
Portugal	107	51	56
Italy	130	68	62
Switzerland	187	113	74
Germany	1,254	707	547
Austria	48	30	18
Hungary	20	12	8
Serbia	2	1	1
Czechoslovakia	46	24	22
Rumania	11	7	4
Yugoslavia	23	13	10
Malta	2	1	1
Grece	6	5	1
Egypt	18	13	5
Abyssinia	0	0	0
Bolivia	0	0	0
Canada	311	128	183

Countries of Origin	Total	Men	Women
U. S. A.	2,082	1,007	1,075
Mexico	16	8	8
Honduras	1	1	0
Panama	2	1	1
Venezuela	0	0	0
Guatemala	3	1	2
Cuba	7	5	2
Brazil	15	8	7
Colombia	5	3	2
Argentina	15	8	7
Peru	25	14	11
Chile	6	4	2
Uruguary	3	2	1
Australia	55	24	31
Hawaii	8	3	5
New Zealand	1	1	0
Others	7	6	1

Emigration

History Though there are records of Japanese having gone abroad for trade and residence in the latter years of the 15th century and the first half of the 16th century, the rigid laws against leaving the country during the period of seclusion, from 1636 to 1858, reserved the problem of emigration for modern times. As a result of negotiations between the Japanese Government and the Hawaiian Consul in Yokohama, 153 emigrants went to Hawaii in 1868 to work on sugar plantations. The venture was a failure, however, and not until 1885, after the visit of King Kalakaua of Hawaii to Japan in 1881 and the conclusion of treaties regarding travel, emigration of labourers and navigation, was there further emigration to the islands. In that year, 951 went. Their success encouraged an increase in the ensuing period, and by 1894 approximately 30,000 Japanese entered Hawaii.

Because of the rapid development of emigration, the Government turned the business over to private companies, which soon became numerous. Regulations to safeguard the interests of the emigrants were enacted in 1896. The companies sent 10,000 to Hawaii and about 1,000 each to Australia and Canada in 1897 and 23,000 to Hawaii, 3,000 to the United States, 1,700 to Canada, 790 to Peru and about 2,500 to other countries in the following year. But the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands by the United States in 1898 and the establishment of the Territorial Government in 1900, brought the application of American law against the entry of contract labourers, and dealt a great blow to the companies.

By 1904, the movement of Japanese from Hawaii to the mainland of the United States had assumed sizable proportions, as had emigration to that country directly from Japan. In the so-called Gentlemen's Agreement, arrived at in 1908, Japan agreed to restrict the issue of passports to nationals wishing to enter the United States. The United States Supreme Court decided in 1922 that Japanese are ineligible for citizenship, and two years later the Quota Immigration Act was passed, containing a clause denying the right of entry into the United States for permanent residence of any person not eligible for citizenship. Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and Canada also provided, by various methods, for exclusion of Japanese.

These obstacles to entry into the Anglo-Saxon countries had two results, first, an abrupt decrease for a few years in the number of emigrants and, second, the discovery of new outlets. Several South American lands, notably Brazil, offered inducements. The Government adopted a positive policy of sending emigrants to quarters where they were not unwelcome, and in 1921 a subsidy was given to the Overseas Enterprise Company (Kaigai Kogyo Kaisha) to arouse interest in emigration. Encouraged by this change in policy, emigration associations sprang up one after another in the prefectures, and plans were made to purchase tracts of land in Brazil for colonization. To such land, the Shinano Emigration Association (Nagano prefecture) sent 450 emigrants in 1925.

Enactment of the Emigration Association Law in 1927 resulted in an increase of "independent" emigrants, quite different from the labour-contract emigrants which had constituted the bulk in earlier years. Prefectural emigration associations set up under the provisions of this law organized a federation which co-ordinated the buying of Brazilian land. A home for emigrants was opened in Kobé, the main port of embarkation. Companies specializing in South American colonization came into being. Part of the reason for establishing the Ministry of Overseas Affairs in the Government in 1929 was to provide an agency for the administration and control of matters pertaining to emigration and colonization.

Movement. The following table shows the movement of Japanese travellers and emigrants during the past 10 years :

NUMBER OF PASSPORTS ISSUED

Year	Total	To men	To women	Year	Total	To men	To women
1925	22,176	15,628	6,548	1930	38,383	26,589	11,794
1926	28,619	20,017	8,602	1931	27,144	19,803	7,341
1927	31,177	21,364	9,813	1932	30,757	19,941	10,816
1928	34,008	23,191	10,817	1933	42,451	27,163	15,288
1929	37,990	25,689	12,301	1934	41,815	26,567	15,248

EMIGRANTS

Year	Leaving Japan	Returning to Japan	Year	Leaving Japan	Returning to Japan
1925	10,696	13,918	1932	19,033	13,170
1926	16,184	14,549	1933	27,317	14,141
1927	18,041	14,735	1934	28,087	—
1928	19,850	15,004	1935	10,813	—
1929	25,704	14,073			
1930	21,829	14,546	The destinations of those leaving Japan in recent years have been :		
1931	10,384	12,965			

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Brazil	4,435	2,685	5,565	15,092	23,299	22,960	5,745
Philippines	15,597	13,741	1,109	747	941	1,544	1,802
Peru	1,585	831	299	369	481	473	814
Canada	430	137	106	98	1	105	57
U. S. S. R.	888	1,513	1,238	1,096	1,095	1,320	322
U. S. A.	236	0	0	0	0	0	0
Hawaii	119	0	0	0	0	0	0
Straits Settlements	513	835	549	356	322	598	583
Mexico	249	434	283	149	85	80	53
Argentina	430	489	362	239	135	112	201
Dutch E. Indies	507	558	447	533	468	356	389
Australia	277	75	34	92	59	105	92
Others	338	531	392	262	341	434	760
Total	25,704	21,829	10,384	19,033	27,317	28,087	10,813

JAPANESE RESIDING IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES

	Total	Males	Females		Total	Males	Females
1928	717,529	409,933	307,596	1932	672,266	385,315	286,951
1929	759,439	429,818	329,621	1933	749,158	—	—
1930	755,209	431,538	323,671	1934	872,807	496,390	376,417
1931	635,227	361,450	273,777	1935	689,818	398,060	291,758

Note: Before 1930 the Kwantung Province and the S.M. Railway Zone are included.

GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION OF JAPANESE RESIDING IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES IN 1934 AND 1935

(October 1)

	1934			1935		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
Total	872,807	496,390	376,417	689,818	398,060	291,758
Asia	339,998	196,515	143,483	247,115	148,093	99,022
Eastern U. S. S. R.	2,492	2,293	199	2,585	2,355	230
Manchoukuo	243,868	138,511	105,357	144,451	85,985	58,466
China	56,049	30,364	25,685	58,325	31,854	26,471
Philippines and Guam	20,838	14,577	6,261	21,524	14,776	6,748
Europe	2,954	2,099	855	3,840	2,883	957
Great Britain	1,423	954	469	1,971	1,365	506
North America	174,230	101,198	73,032	123,611	73,048	50,563

	1934			1935		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
U. S. A.	146,708	84,923	61,785	98,357	58,152	40,205
Canada	21,062	12,225	8,837	18,804	10,828	7,976
Mexico	5,360	3,246	2,114	5,245	3,178	2,067
South America	201,740	115,862	85,878	200,786	111,536	89,250
Brazil	173,500	96,757	76,743	173,420	94,247	79,173
Argentina	5,492	4,110	1,382	5,185	3,748	1,437
Peru	21,127	13,915	7,212	20,827	12,613	8,214
Africa	201	119	82	948	839	109
Oceania	153,684	80,597	73,087	113,518	61,661	51,857
Hawaii	150,832	78,109	72,723	110,040	58,660	51,380

According to the investigation of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs on October 1, 1935, the number of all the Japanese who were staying on the date in foreign countries including emigrants, officials and businessmen reached 1,146,462. Details follow :

United States of America	112,418
Hawaii	151,285
Canada	20,183
Brazil	192,823
Peru	21,550
Argentina	5,691
Bolivia	369
Venezuela	13
Colombia	174
Uruguay	65
Paraguay	20
Mexico	5,470
Cuba	771
Panama	328
French Indo-China	239
Lebanon	3
Australia, New Zealand and Oceanic islands	3,072
China	56,106
Hong-Kong and Macao	1,402
Manchoukuo	322,394
Asiatic Russia	2,383
European countries	2,882
Egypt	80
Salvador	8
Philippines and Guam	21,528
British Malay	6,487
British N. Borneo and Sarawak	870
Dutch East-Indies	6,598
Afghanistan	15
Iran	34
British India and Ceylon	1,507
Siam	412
Union of South Africa	44
British East Africa	72
French Algeria	4
French Morocco	12
Total	937,970
Kwantung Leased Territory	157,835
South Sea Mandated Islands	50,657
Grand total	1,146,462

The Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone, the South Sea Mandated Islands, Manchoukuo, and China are in a special category as regards Japanese colonization, and details of the Japanese residing in these regions will be found in other chapters. The following paragraphs summarize the status of the settlers in the principal lands open to Japanese, other than those above mentioned :

Brazil The Japanese first went to Brazil in 1908, but only in the past decade has the number leaving annually for this destination been of any volume. Of the 173,420 settlers registered on October 1, 1935, over 93 per cent were in the State of Sao Paulo, the majority working on coffee plantations. They are expected eventually to establish themselves as independent farmers. Those who left Japan with adequate capital and superior agricultural skill already own extensive tracts of land. The growing of potatoes around Sao Paulo City by Japanese is particularly notable.

Argentina Though the Japanese first went to Argentina in 1907, only a few have followed. Of the 5,185 residing there in 1935, over 2,000 were in Buenos Aires, the capital, where they are engaged mainly in industry and business. Those on farms cultivate cotton, tea, cocoa and cinchona bark, from which quinine is prepared.

Peru Japanese emigration to Peru dates from 1899. In October, 1935, there were 20,827 residents, of whom more than 17,000 were in Lima and most of the others in or near Callao and other cities. The majority of them are engaged in commerce, but there are about 2,000 farmers, some of whom own their own land. They have mostly specialized in the cultivation of cotton, in which several Japanese corporations are interested. Argentina offers opportunities for the development of sugar cane cultivation, forestry and stock raising by Japanese.

Other South American Countries

Chile, Colombia, Bolivia, Paraguay and Venezuela have no restrictions on the entrance of Japanese. As the soil in these countries is suitable for various agricultural enterprises, the Japanese Government is encouraging emigration thence. On October 1, 1934, there were 638 Japanese in Chile, 761 in Bolivia and 6 in Paraguay.

Mexico After the arrival of the first emigrants in 1897, Mexico gave promise of becoming an important outlet. About 1906, increasing numbers went. Endemic fever and repeated revolutionary outbreaks, however, spelled ruin for most of the Japanese enterprises, and of recent years emigration to this destination has been slight. In 1935, 5,245 Japanese resided there, most of them engaged in agriculture, horticulture and cattle raising.

Philippines More Japanese emigrants now go to the Philippine Islands than to any other country except Brazil. Settlement there began in 1900, and on October 1, 1935, the Japanese residents numbered 21,524 of whom 6,238 were in Manila, and 13,528 in Cotabato and Davao. In Mindanao island, the large number of Japanese is accounted for by the large-scale cultivation of hemp, an enterprise originated by them. Many other Japanese in the Philippines are engaged in the fishing and building industries.

Other South Sea Countries Most of the Japanese residing in the Straits Settlements, the Malay States, British Borneo, the Dutch East Indies, India, Siam and French Indo-China are representatives of companies and clerks in banks, though many are small merchants and domestic servants. In the Dutch East Indies and the Malay States, Japanese have extensive rubber and cocoa plantations, and in Java they cultivate hemp, sugar cane and tea. As native and Chinese labour is so cheap, the number of Japanese contract labourers in this region is negligible.

CHAPTER III

OUTLINE OF HISTORY

Ethnologic Beginnings

According to modern scientific research it seems almost certain that Japanese tribes lived on these islands at least as early as 2,000 B.C., in the latter part of the New Stone Age. It seems probable that yellow folk from the mainland of Asia, the natives of some southern islands, and possibly some kind of white-skinned race from the northwest, drifted to the Japanese islands, where they found a milder climate and more fertile soil than in their homelands, and formed a mixed race which we may call the Yamato Tribe and their blood became so well blended in the course of time that many think the Japanese people, their descendants, to be homogeneous.

They lived mostly on seashores or riversides. Their shell-mounds are rich in relics of those early days. They dug caves in the hillsides and pits in the flat ground for their dwellings, used stone tools and lived on natural food such as game, fish and shell-fish.

In the 3rd century B.C. the Indo-Chinese brought rice to the islands and the natives learned to cultivate and eat it. By this time a primitive agricultural life must have begun, and according to one of the oldest Chinese records on Japan the islanders already had a knowledge of silk-making even in such a remote period. Four different styles of clothing seem to have been prevalent, that of the Ainu, Tunguse, Indo-Chinese and Huns, although there were some tribes who went naked. Judging by the clay images or idols they left behind them, the Ainu clothes consisted of an upper and a lower garment, the upper garment of the women being open in front, while that of the men was not. The dress of the Tunguse much resembled the Korean in style and they were fond of using jewels or stone ornaments.

They lived in groups, forming villages which consisted in some cases of several hundred households. They seem to have had a primitive communal life, each tribe or group being firmly united by ties of blood and belief. But there had appeared as yet no political organization or system and there was a continual stream of immigrants from the continent. Clan and tribal fighting and alliances gave opportunity for mixing blood. By the beginning of the Christian Era the Ainu and the ancestors of the Japanese, mainly Tunguse by descent, gradually settled down on the islands, the former living in the northeastern half and the latter spreading over the south-western half.

Age of Traditions
(660 B.C.–531 A.D.)

The period of 1,000 years from the Emperor Jimmu, who founded the Japanese Government in 660 B.C., to the Emperor Keitai, who reigned from 507 to 531 A.D., may be called the Age of Traditions of Japan. The first book of history "Nihonshoki" (Japanese Annals) which was first compiled in the 28th year of the Empress Suiko, and the second oldest record "Kojiki" (Antiquities) which appeared about one hundred years later, tell of some still older manuscripts which furnished them with materials. But of these no trace remains. These two books which are commonly called "Ki-Ki" collectively contain traditions long cherished by the islanders, although there are many fictions mixed or intermingled in them. Careful study of these records reveals the ancient life of the Japanese after the New Stone Age and at the beginning of the agricultural period.

Beginning of Shintoism People in this age formed large families and the clan system prevailed. In many families the succession followed the maternal side, clan councils were called and patriarchs were elected. The number of clans was about one hundred. Shintoism, though in the most undeveloped state, was already a creed; people revered their forefathers and worshipped their own family gods, and the members of each clan were united in the worship of their own particular god, gaining thereby a more vivid feeling of belonging to one and the same blood. In the Imperial House, the Emperor Jimmu instituted religious ceremonies for his Divine Ancestors, who became the objects of worship of the National Shintoism in later ages, and his successors

followed his example and prayed to the gods for the welfare of their beloved nation. Before Chinese models were adopted the ancient government of Japan was a very simple theocracy, and ritual observances and public affairs were one, as the Japanese "Matsurigoto" may mean either the administration of state affairs or religious ceremony.

Political Affairs In 87 B.C. the Emperor Sujin sent armies to the remoter central and western districts and subdued all the opposing tribes. In the first century A.D. the Emperor Keiko sent Yamato-Takeru or some generals to the farthest west and east, and succeeded in bringing the whole land under his sway, sending his sons to be the rulers over those subdued districts. Later the Emperor Seimu divided the whole land into territories and prefectures for the convenience of governing them. Sushin and Suinin encouraged industry and commerce, the nation became rich and national power was so augmented that the small kingdoms in the Korean peninsula came one by one to be its tributaries. It was through these small Korean kingdoms that a knowledge of the religion and culture of the greater Oriental nations first reached Japan. In 285 A. D. Confucianism with its important moral precepts concerning righteousness, loyalty, filial piety, and love, was officially introduced into the country. In 552, during the reign of the Emperor Kimmei, the public introduction of Buddhism with its teachings on cause and effect opened up new vistas in religious and philosophic thought.

Civilization Introduced From the remains of this period it can be inferred that the Japanese people whose settlements extended from Kyushu to districts near the present-day Kyoto had risen above a barbarous life long before the first century of the Christian Era. Their shell-mounds contain many bronze utensils which correspond to the Chinese productions of the Han Dynasty (206 B.C.–221 A.D.). Do-taku which seem to have been used as musical instruments or kept as a kind of treasure have been found in the districts extending from the western end of the Main Island to Totomi and Kaga provinces near Nagoya and in Shikoku Island. They were found with relics of the so-called Yayoi style which characterizes the works of the original Japanese as distinguished from the Ainu, and tell of early Japanese intercourse with the continental countries. Do-ken or bronze swords of different shapes have been found in the provinces of Kyushu, districts around the Inland Sea, the provinces of Aki, Izumo, Owari and Shinano and in Shikoku Island.

Japan had tributaries in Korea at this period, but, at the same time, heads of large families in Kyushu and Loochoo had some relations with the Han Dynasty as local tributary lords. Considerable numbers of continental people came to the islands either individually or in large bodies, and the civilizations of China, India and Korea were constantly introduced to the islanders or brought in by the immigrants themselves so that there had really been several centuries of preparation before the formal or official reception of Chinese books and culture in the 3rd century at the Central Court in Yamato province.

Japanese Traits In those days Japanese characteristics and tribal traits were already established. The mild climate and beautiful natural features of the islands and the surrounding seas exerted ineradicable influences on the nature of the inhabitants. From such an early period the islanders, economically self-supplying and self-sufficient, enjoyed comparatively peaceful lives without much danger of being invaded by outside political powers. Consequently they became admirers of the realistic world, highly optimistic with pragmatic ideals; they had deep appreciation of natural life and a religious belief full of light. Their mode of action was sprightly, innocent and active. Loyalty to one's lord and filial piety were their two main principles of morality fostered from the remotest past; next in importance came valour in the highest sense of the term. There was no distinction in the position of the sexes and able women assumed high places in public affairs.

Primitive Literature There were written numerous local histories and genealogies of the Imperial Court and clans, and stories of heroes of victorious battles were earnestly listened to at their gatherings. They had ballads and a crude form of poetry which later came to be called waka, the metrical arrangement being 5-7 or 5-7-7, instead of the later 5-7-5-7-7. The ideas expressed were simple, pure, and mostly concrete, immediate feelings being put into metre. The subject matter, in common with that of primitive peoples in other parts of the world, being that of women, war, and saké. Songs in praise of the natural beauty of the scenery were rarely sung.

No Pastoral Life The islands, severed as they were from the continent, were unsuited for raising cattle, and the ancient Japanese people had no experience of a pastoral life. Excavation of mounds gives no indication of it, while the undeveloped legs of the Japanese seem to suggest something of their ancestral habits.

With the progress of agricultural life the oldest clan system, which had no class differences, began to undergo changes because of the increase of population and consequent need of new land. Clans began to separate into branches, the latter leaving the parent stock and going out to get new lands. In many cases land was obtained by violence and there arose the connection of master and subject between the conqueror and the conquered. Blood relation among the people widened to local relation and there appeared ruling clan heads to control and represent the districts or provinces. Soon these ruling families transformed their temporary power into a hereditary one. The primitive or natural system of common property was transformed to that of private property. Powerful clans had serfs as property and subordinate clans or subjects paid tribute.

Age of Foundation
(532–709 A.D.)

By the 6th century A.D. Japanese social and economic conditions were well suited for the introduction and appreciation of the Chinese civilization of the brilliant ages of the Sui and Tang Dynasties.

Political Events With religion, other things such as painting, sculpture and architecture were gradually introduced and in the sixth century Prince Shotoku-Taishi, striving for the promotion of learning, religion and art, tried his best to make a radical improvement in the state administration and in the social life of the people. His work was a forerunner of the Taika Reformation.

In the meantime, there arose troubles among the clans which had power in the Government, their conflict becoming greater with the advancement of civilization. Two of the most important of these clans, Soga and Mononobé, came into violent collision over the question of adopting Buddhism as the national religion. The former finally got the upper hand, but so abused its power that it stirred up the opposition of Kamatari Fujiwara, a loyal subject, and Prince Naka-Ohyé, who later became the Emperor Tenchi. The Soga power was suppressed in the year 645; this was the first step toward the Taika Reformation.

Emperor's Power Reduced As a natural development land became divided among the Imperial house, the clans and the temples. The Imperial estates were obtained in various ways, and consisted of, first, land owned ever since the time of the Emperor Jimmu; secondly, land newly cultivated by the farmers who served the august family; thirdly, estates presented by local nobles; and fourthly, memorial lands for the dead members of the Imperial family.

Clans owned their estates, either by natural right, conquest or as prizes for merit. Shinto shrines and Buddhist temples also possessed their own glebes, given them by nobles as offerings The patriarchs or clan heads in the country districts began to possess a great number of people and large estates and enrich themselves by the labour of their serfs. Their wealth gave them influence and power and they became local lords. The clan system allowed high officials of the Court and the powerful families in the provinces to exercise almost absolute power over their own territories. The emperors ruled the people indirectly, all the official positions being hereditary. This system gave birth to several political vices or abuses, and the Imperial authority became much reduced. The excesses of the Soga clan showed clearly the injurious effect of this system, and the necessity of ending it.

Social classes The aristocrats of this period were the clan heads, an idea of whose life may be formed from the luxurious relics found in their large tombs or mounds in the district around Nara and Kyoto. Next came the direct subjects of the Imperial House whose occupation was mainly agriculture. The third class, which was the largest and constituted the main productive element of the nation, consisted of the subjects of the local clan heads. They worked for their respective clans at clothes making, ceramics, brewing, the manufacture of lacquer goods, furniture making, etc., besides being farmers, fishermen and hunters. The lowest class of people was that of the "yakko" or serfs who served in the lowest kind of occupation for the aristocrats. They were often presented to shrines and temples as slaves. The slaves in Japan originated in captives taken from Ezo and Korea, and to them were later added those who had sold themselves for monetary rea-

sons. Once enslaved, their social status remained unchanged unless emancipation came through the benevolence of their lords or paid for by themselves or some other people. The number of slaves, however, was rather insignificant.

The Taika (Taikwa) Reformation When the Soga family were destroyed, the Emperor Kotoku started a plan for a reformation, appointing the Crown Prince Naka-Ohyé to the head of the council which was composed of Kamatari Fujiwara, Kurahashimaro Abé and other great scholars of the time. The Crown Prince, with Kamatari as his right hand man, studied the Chinese system of government and made plans for a revolutionary change of politics for the welfare of the people. In the summer of 1305 from Jimmu (645 A.D.), he introduced from China the system of "nengo" or year-names, and called the period Taika or "Great Reformation." This was indeed only seven days after the death of Soga. This was the first of the three great changes that Japan has experienced in politics since the founding of the nation. The second was the establishment of the Shogunate at Kamakura, 1192, and the third was the Meiji Restoration, 1868. In the second year of Taika the Imperial Edict of the Reformation was proclaimed. Some of its provisions were as follows :

(1) To bring all the private lands into public possession ; (2) to divide the confiscated lands among the people, taking a census and fixing reasonable taxes; (3) to fix divisions of Kuni, Gun and Ri for the convenience of administration, putting officials in each division.

These changes were practically carried out, and the clan system was entirely broken, thus bringing about a centralization of political power according to the Chinese pattern. The following is but a summary of the vast Reformation :

(A) Public land and people (citizens). (1) The people had, hitherto, belonged to the powerful gens and families and had been kept in a condition not far removed from serfdom. The land had been the private estates of the gens, and wealth had been almost entirely accumulated by them alone. In this reformation the land was all confiscated by the Central Government, and the people became direct subjects or citizens of the Emperor ; so was the clan system destroyed. (2) The public land was distributed to citizens evenly. A census was taken first and all the names of the people were registered and every male over the age of five was given two "tan", or a little less than half an acre of land, while a woman was given two-thirds of this. This land was returned to the Government when the holder died. The registration was renewed every sixth year. (3) Three taxes were newly imposed : one was on the land, being two bundles of rice on each "tan", the second was a requisition of labour, or else twelve feet of cloth or about two-and-a-half bushels of rice instead, from each house, and the third was a certain proportion of the special products of the locality.

(B) Centralization of government. The reformation of Taika was specially concerned with the centralization of government and the abolishing of local divisions of the clan system. To accomplish this aim, a central government had to be established on a very strong basis. In 649, the Emperor ordered the establishment of a central government consisting of eight departments, modelled on the Tang government. In the country districts the old officials were replaced by new state and country governors, horse stations were established for the convenience of travel and traffic, barrier-gates were set up in important places, and defensive preparations were made in the remotest districts.

(C) Appointment of men of ability. The third merit of the Reformation was in the appointment of able men from among the people to important positions. Under the old clan system even the officials were hereditary and this gave birth to various political abuses. This hereditary officialdom was entirely done away with by the Taika Reformation, and any one who had real talent might become a high official, no matter to which or to what kind of clan or house he belonged.

Prince Naka-Ohyé, who headed the council of this great revolutionary improvement, declared "As there are not two suns in the sky so there cannot be two kings over one nation, and the Emperor must be the only one who governs over and controls his people under heaven," and he set the first example to the people by handing over his own estates and subjects to the Mikado, thereby speeding the Reformation.

A Premature Trial The Taika Reformation, however, could hardly be considered as reformation of a government which had already been well organized, but rather as an attempt at the formation of a real central government. Corruption within the old clan system had made a purging of the social and

political system of the country urgent. Chinese cultural and political influence which stimulated the longing in the hearts of the authorities for the construction of a shapely government was a second cause of the reform. Unity and centralization of administration was completely exemplified by their big neighbour, and the young minds of the Japanese officials and nobles, entirely caught by its brilliancy, were rather too impatient to make fuller investigations on the adaptability of Chinese institutions to Japan and the Japanese of the day. The Taika Reformation, therefore, was hardly a success so far as its economic system was concerned and the formal institutions mentioned in (A) soon began to collapse.

Its Lasting Merit But the fundamental and imperishable meaning of the Taika Reformation is that it was the first systematic organization of the Central Government and the establishment of the spirit of national unity.

It was in this age that the whole of Japan was united into one. The Ezo tribes in Hokkaido Island and the inhabitants of the southern islands came to pay homage to the Central Government, and Buddhism was propagated among the northern islanders and the Kyushu tribes in the south as a cultural enterprise of the Government.

Taiho Law After half a century, or in 701, the Taiho Law, which completed the work of the Taika Reformation, especially in the organization of the Government, was promulgated. The construction of the Daijokan (the Great Government), which was regulated in the Taiho Law, was the form of central government which continued till the Meiji Restoration, when it was revived in power and called the Dajokan. The Government consisted of the Daijo Daijin, the Sa (left) Daijin, the U (right) Daijin, four Dai Nagon, three Sho Nagon, four secretaries, ten scribes, three Sa-benkan, and three U-benkan.

The Daijo Daijin was the tutor and personal counsellor to the Emperor, and had no fixed office. In view of the importance of the position it was not filled when no suitable man was to be found. The Sa Daijin was the prime minister and controlled all the administrative offices and might over-rule the decisions of the Danjodai (a kind of court of administrative litigation).

The U Daijin took the work of the Sa Daijin in his absence and his responsibility was the same as that of the Sa Daijin. The Dai Nagon acted as counsellors in national affairs with the three Daijin just mentioned and assisted them, directly reported all political affairs of importance to the Emperor, handed Imperial orders to the departments, and performed the offices of Imperial attendants. The Sho Nagon administered affairs of minor importance, the secretaries and scribes administered the business concerning public documents and Imperial edicts, etc. The Sa (left) Benkan administered the following four departments : the central, the ritual, the administrative, and the civil. The U (right) Benkan administered the other four departments : the military, the judicial, the treasury, and the Imperial House. That is to say, the practical administration of the eight departments was executed by the Left and Right Benkan in accordance with the decisions and directions of the three Daijin and four Dai Nagon.

Learning and Religion A century around the Taika Reformation was the period when the Government was busy also in the study of Chinese literature, importation of continental cuture, and compilation and promulgation of new laws. It was an age of laying foundations for the future progress of Japanese civilization. This study of continental cultures did not stop with that of China, but ancient nations west of China became tutors of the Japanese. Among the treasures which were accumulated by the Emperor Shomu (724–749 A.D.) and kept in the Shoso-in Museum at Nara, there are many art products of Rome and Persia. The area represented by the treasures practically covers all the civilized countries of the Orient and a large portion of the Western world.

Systematic education of the young began with the building of Horyuji temple (see Chapter XXVIII). With the compilation of the Nihonshoki and Kojiki, Shintoism was formulated as the national religion. As to the nature of Shintoism and its philosophical analysis as a dogma opinions are divided, it nevertheless developed in this age from mere nature-worship to ancestor-worship, cosmogony and anthropomorphism, including a germ of the idea of a central diety of the cosmos in the belief in Amé-no-minaka-nushi-no-kami. On the other hand Buddhism was eagerly taken into the lives of the upper class people who had power to assimilate it.

Nara Age
(710–793 A.D.)

Golden Age of Buddhism After the Taika Reformation in 646, the Govern-

ment rather avoided the trouble of intercourse with the Korean Peninsula and concentrated their power on the better administration of home affairs, encouraging intercourse with China in order to bring Chinese civilization more into Japanese life, and 60 years later founded the city of Nara as the capital, in Chinese style. For 70 years following its founding, it was an age of imitating Chinese things. Buddhism won the faith of all classes of the people and developed and expanded among them with great rapidity. This was the golden age for Buddhist fine arts, existing specimens of which make today the international treasures of old Buddhism. The nation was prosperous and the people enjoyed a happy life such as they had never known before.

Throughout most of the 8th century Nara was the Imperial capital and towards the end of it Japanese civilization, favoured by peaceful social conditions, began to assume its own form and characteristics. The Japanese poetry, waka, took a definite style and the range of subjects handled in the poems came to include all phases of life and nature as we see in the Mannyoshu collection of waka of this period (See Chapter XXXV).

The use of abbreviated forms of Chinese characters was begun in this period for the convenience of copying books, in an age without much printing, although block-printing was introduced from China by 770 A.D., and prepared a way to the invention of Kana characters in the following Heian Age.

Division of the Rich and the Poor As mentioned above, the economic plan of the Taika Reformation soon began to collapse. It was not, however, a return to the old patriarchal system but an advance to feudalism.

The even distribution of land under the Taika Reformation proved in practice insufficient and many farmers were compelled to obtain more land by cultivation of waste areas or to fall heavily into debt. On the other hand, the nobles or former patriarchs of larger clans, the Court officials and priests began to accumulate special prize lands, gift lands and subject tenants, and people of the upper class became landed proprietors with wide estates which were called "Soen".

For the cultivation of new arable land, labour and the digging of water courses were required, so such land naturally came into the hands of the wealthy people. Besides the addition of newly cultivated land they enlarged their estates by purchasing the land of the poorer people, confiscating mortgaged land and conquering weaker landowners by force. This tendency in the rural districts went its course unchecked, while the Central Government was occupied with political and diplomatic affairs mostly concerning matters in the capital cities of Nara and Heian (Kyoto), and Court nobles gave themselves up to luxurious living.

Korea, China and Japan (660 B.C.–1019 A.D.) From the time when these islands were first populated the inhabitants of the Korean Peninsula had intimate relations with the islanders. Especially, according to traditions, was this the case with the south-eastern part and the Izumo district. At the time of Sujin the southern part of Korea became a Japanese protectorate, but its eastern neighbour, Silla, scorned Japan until it was subdued by the Empress Jingo in 200 A.D. The western half and lands in the north also came under the influence of Japan until finally the whole peninsula became tributary to her. These small kingdoms mostly acknowledged the Japanese authority, but sometimes they rose in rebellion and Japan frequently had to send armies to the peninsula, till finally the Governor's office was destroyed by Silla in 562. Silla soon became the master of the whole peninsula, conquered the other small states, and entered into good terms with the Chinese Government. The ruling power of Silla was usurped by another dynasty in the 9th century. Japan interfered in these affairs when suitable chances offered, but all her attempts were in vain and she had lost her last trace of influence by the year 936.

The northern part of Korea had once been a territory of China in the second century B.C. Intercourse between the Japanese and Chinese people had already started in those days, and during the years in which the Korean peninsula was tributary to Japan the trade and travel between the two nations became greater and more frequent; many Chinese scholars and artists became naturalized in Japan and worked for the Government in the fields of literature, art and general technique. Some Emperors sent delegates to south-eastern China to get teachers of weaving and sewing.

In 607, when Shotoku Taishi was regent, an ambassador was sent to the Sui Dynasty and friendly official intercourse was opened. Later, when the Tang Dynasty replaced the Sui, diploma-

tic relations were still unbroken between the two nations and many a young man and monk went to China for study. The culture and civilization of the continent flowed into Japan and greatly influenced her politics and social life. In the Era of the Emperor Tenchi, this intercourse was once checked by difficulties with Korea, but the Tang Emperor sent his delegates again to Japan to re-establish friendly relations, and they were accordingly restored. During the Nara Age, especially, travel was most frequent between the two countries, and science, religion, the fine arts, architecture and forms of living were all taken from China, such imitation continuing till the beginning of the Heian Age. Chinese civil wars proved a hindrance to these friendly relations and the Emperor Uda stopped the sending of delegates in 894.

In Manchuria a strong nation appeared in 713 and invaded northern Korea, and started some trade with Japan. Another arose later and came down even to the central part of the peninsula. Still another dynasty then gained control over much of eastern Asia and tried to invade these islands, but was defeated by the Japanese army in 1019.

Heian Age
(794–1192 A.D.)

Fujiwara Despotism The Emperor Kammu changed the capital from Nara to the new city of Heian, the present Kyoto, in 794, and instituted a new era. For several decades after that the Imperial sceptre retained its power. But from the middle of the 9th century, the house of Fujiwara became closely related to the Imperial House, and began to assume regentship of the country. Taking all political power from the Imperial House, the Fujiwaras gradually concentrated it in their own hands and planned only for the benefit of their family and relatives. Their despotism reached its climax with Michinaga Fujiwara in the 10th century.

In those days the Fujiwara family gave themselves over to luxury, and greatly influenced the city life of Kyoto, making it indolent and vicious. But on the other hand literature and the fine arts made special progress. As the result of the cessation of sending delegates to China Japanese habits and inherited ideas regained favour and developed a style which was most graceful. Buddhism now assumed a strong and influential position not only among the people at large but also in the Court. The Enryakuji Temple of Kyoto and the Kofukuji Temple of Nara especially played a great part in this new tendency.. It was noticeable that by this time the imported religion was largely transformed and Japanized in character.

Rise of Samurai Class Another remarkable phenomenon of this age was the rise of the samurai, the warrior class. The direct rule of the Emperor, in consequence of the weakening centralization of administrative power, was declining. In the local districts, the private lands owned by the aristocratic families were increasing year by year, and the orders issued by the Central Government were disregarded in those private territories. Local affairs fell into confusion, and robbers stalked abroad in the towns and villages. Wealthy landowners in the villages hired and fed soldiers for self-defence, and these farmer-soldiers finally became samurai, men whose profession was fighting. Sons of aristocratic families who could not get official positions also became soldiers, striving after power. Soon they became really powerful, being specially rampant in the farther districts, where they rebelled against local orders. The bodyguard of the Court, hopelessly impotent, was useless for real battle, and the samurai rebellions were suppressed only by other samurai bodies. The princes and nobles also hired samurai to guard them and to further their political feuds. Warriors were encouraged to become ever more skilful in the practice of arms, and it was quite natural that in such a course of affairs important positions in governmental offices should go to members of the samurai class. Among them the most famous ones to receive such positions were members of the Minamoto (Genji) and Taira (Heishi or Heiké) families.

In the middle of the 11th century, the Emperors gathered patriots to restore the Imperial power to the old status and suppress the Fujiwara despotism. Finally in 1156 the Fujiwara power was completely broken and overthrown by the Genji and Heishi warriors, who were much honoured in consequence by the Imperial House. Before long, however, these two samurai houses became rivals and in 1159 Kiyomori Taira (Heishi) won the day against Yoshitomo Minamoto (Genji). Kiyomori had rare ability and great ambition, and forgetting that he was but a samurai followed the examples of Fujiwara and became himself another despot. For his wilful behaviour he was hated by all classes of the people, and Yoritomo Minamoto, son of the defeated Yoshitomo, rose on the tide of general bad feeling against

the Tairas, and the whole Taira family was defeated and drowned at the battle of Dan-no-ura in the Inland Sea in 1185. It was Yoritomo Minamoto who first established government by the Samurai class.

Literature At the end the Nara Age an abbreviated form of Chinese characters began to be used among scribes. In this Heian Age the Kata-kana, a Japanese syllabary of simple 'square' characters was derived from the Chinese ideograms, and lastly Hira-kana, a smoother and more fanciful style of Kana was invented and came to be used first among educated ladies and then by gentlemen also. Chinese sentences had monopolized the literature of former ages, but from the first quarter of this period pure Japanese sentences in the new Japanese alphabet appeared and gave an impetus to the rapid spread of Waka composition and beautiful Japanese stories like the Taketori-monogatari and Isé-monogatari.

The culture of this age had not yet reached the rural districts and common people, but existed only in the larger cities and a number of towns and among the aristocratic class. The kulturträger, the bearers of civilization and culture of the age, were court nobles, government officials, priests and monks, and their families. It may be going too far to say that Heian was the only city of the Empire in those days, for there are evidences of the existence of some local market towns and trade ports. It is nevertheless true that there was a great difference in grade of civilization between the capital and the rural districts. The intelligentsia in the capital kept political power and literary heritage to themselves and their successors, their living being supported by the contributions and tenant fees from their country estates. They lived a luxurious and easy monotonous life as is shown in the Genji-monogatari by Murasaki-shikibu, a woman novelist (See Chapter XXXV). But at the same time Japanese literature made wonderful progress in this age.

Education School education was undertaken by the Government along definite lines in the city and local districts. In the city of Heian there was a Dai-gaku, (school of higher learning), which took in 400 boys of higher officials. There were 143 higher officials and 850 lower officials in the city. In the districts there were established Koku-gaku, provincial schools, open mainly for the boys of local officials. At Dazai-fu in Kyushu the Gakugyo-in, or institute of learning, was established for the provinces of the northern half of the island. The main course of study in these schools was related to national politics based on the teachings of Confucius. But literature, music, physical science, pharmacology, astronomy, mathematics and penmanship were not neglected. Some of the local schools were of a high educational standing and sent out able scholars. Children of the princes and court nobles were taught by private tutors. School education especially flourished in the Enryaku, Konin and Showa eras, under the Emperors Kammu, Saga and Nimmyo respectively. The building of the new capital of Heian gave rise to a new spirit of enterprise among the people and broader humanistic ideals began to show themselves, with sincere aspirations for the advancement of civilization. Many a young student went abroad. Prince Shinnyo, a young monk of the Shochoji temple in Izumi province, went to the Tang capital, and started from Rusha to Raetsu, near Singapore, for the study of Buddhism, but died on the way. The needs of the time gave rise to many private schools. Some representative ones were the Bunsho-in of Seiko Sugawara, the Kangaku-in of Fuyutsugu Fujiwara, the Gakkan-in of Tachibana, the Shogaku-in of Yukihira Arihara, and the Kobun-in of Kiyomaro Waké. The Sugawara family especially produced a succession of first class scholars, and many able young men in to the Bunsho-in. This study of foreign learning continued from the previous ages to the middle of the era when the Emperor Uda stopped the sending of delegates to China.

With the slackening interest in Chinese cultural studies early in the 10th century the Government schools were gradually reduced in numbers and influence, especially, also, as the power of the Imperial Government was dwindling and the Fujiwara connections were beginning to monopolize all official positions, leaving outsiders without hope of preferment. The Daigaku-in in Heian was closed after the buildings (five blocks of classrooms and one storehouse) were burnt down in the fire of 1177. Learning became a hereditary privilege with the growth of reactionary reverence for established lineage. Buddhism also became much Japanized by the appearance of such monks as Saicho of the Tendai and Kobo Daishi of the Shingon Sect.

Economic Condition The cleavage between the common people and ruling classes became more marked and the

clan or family ties weakened as the connection between demand and supply became more complicated. From this arose the necessity for exchanges and markets. Waka of the Mannyoshu suggest the existence of markets in Japan at such an early date. As a matter of fact there had been several markets opened in bygone times such as those of Tsubaki, Atokuwa and Eka. On the beach of Takahama in Hitachi (present Ibaraki) and by the straits of Asakumi in Izumo province (present Shimané) there were primitive markets opened for the people. These markets were first started in connection with Shinto festivals. In the Nara Age, there were the East and West Markets in the city of Nara, where trees were planted for giving shade, and from there pedlars travelled around as far as Echizen province (present Fukui).

In the 7th century silver and copper money was already in considerable circulation. In the 8th century copper money was cast by the Imperial Government, although it is not clear whether all the money in circulation before that was of Chinese origin or not. In the first year of the Wado Era, 708 A.D., silver and copper coins named Wadokaiho were cast at the Imperial mint, and this coining of metals continued, ushering in the period of money instead of barter.

In the Heian Age public markets were opened in the east and the west of Heian city. The East Market consisted of 51 shops and the West Market of 33, and they continued till the time of the Gen-pei (Genji and Heishi) wars in the 12th century. The largest among the local markets were at Tsubaki, Tatsu, Asuka and Ausa in Yamato province, Shikama in Harima (near Himeji), Naniwa (Osaka) in Settsu and Kowaki in Shiga. There were many trading ports, and of these Hakata, Muko and Naniwa were the most thriving in foreign trade, Hakata coming first, located as it was at the northern end of Kyushu, nearest to Korea and China. Foreign commerce at this time was mostly governmental, private trading not being allowed.

Social Classes (the 7th–12th centuries) The highest class of this age consisted of the descendants of the nobles of the preceding age; new dignitaries promoted for meritorious services; descendants of the Imperial House; and high priests of Buddhist temples. These people monopolized the highest positions in the government and administration. Wealth was naturally accumulated by them and civilized life attained by the assimilation of continental culture was theirs. The high official positions and ranks were accompanied with material estates and income, and nobility and wealth were synonymous. Living in the capital or vicinity and holding a close connection with the Imperial House this class enjoyed its aristocratic life until power was taken from it by the Fujiwaras in the 11th century.

Next came the class of provincial lords, or officials, scholars, warriors and certain naturalized Koreans or Chinese who were well educated. This class can be compared with the middle class of to-day. The power of the members of this class in politics was secondary, but the standard of their culture was as high as the first, if not higher, especially in the case of scholars such as doctors, astronomers, and mathematicians. They were the military and civil administrators in the local districts and the carriers of a higher civilization.

The third class of this age consisted of the descendants of the second and third classes of the preceding age, they were mostly engaged in agricultural work, although there were among them some artisans and merchants but the number was comparatively small. In fact handicraft and merchandizing was, in later days, mostly carried out by farmers as a kind of side line. They were compelled to work so hard in order to support the upper classes that some scholars of the economic history of Japan have called this 'an age of slave economy.' The people of this class were rarely given positions in the government, although they had access to the priestly positions in temples. Able youths emancipated themselves from serfdom by becoming outlaws and, as mentioned above, finally gave origin to the rise of the samurai class in the latter half of the Heian Age. In the 8th century this class constituted over 70 per cent of the entire population of Japan.

The lowest class of people, practically a slave class, consisted of two kinds of people. The first were the workers for the Court, the clothes, paper and furniture makers, musicians, stable-men, etc. They were mostly naturalized Koreans, and because of their tribal origin were despised by the other classes. Part of them seem to have been the forefathers of the "Eta" class of the Yedo Age. But they must have already belonged to the lower class in their native land, Korea, or may have been captives there, because there were many naturalized Koreans who occupied

honourable positions in the Imperial Court and in the second class mentioned above. According to a record of this age there were but 4,216 households almost all of which were in the Kyoto, Nara and Osaka districts. So far as the national law is concerned these slaves were freed several times, in 722, 744, and 759 A.D., but as a social class they remained the same.

The descendants of the "Yakko" of the preceding periods formed the second division of this slave class. Their social standard as such was legalized by the laws issued at the time of the Taika Reformation. The Taiho laws prohibited intermarriage between members of this "disgraceful" class and members of the "good" classes. Slaves who belonged to offices mainly worked as tomb keepers, farm workers and miscellaneous jobbers, while those owned by private houses did the dirtiest work. The number of these slaves comprised 10 per cent of the entire population. The average value of a slave in the Nara Age was 1,000 bundles of rice for a man and 800 bundles for a woman which meant the amount of rice which would feed a person for 2,500 days. This was rather a prohibitive price for the purchase of slaves, probably due to the small supply of slaves against the demand, the treatment of them by their masters was, therefore, very humane. In the Heian Age, the slave system underwent a gradual change, there was laxity in the imposition of the old laws pertaining to the system, and intermarriage with the "good" people often occurred. On the other hand, many of the third class people or oppressed farmers had become reduced to serfdom, and their intermingling with this class made the two classes indistinguishable at the latter half of the Heian Age.

Kamakura Age
(1192–1337 A.D.)

Samurai Government Samurai government continued for 685 years, from the time of Yoritomo Minamoto to the end of the Tokugawa Shogunate. During the feudal age the Minamoto, Ashikaga and Tokugawa families appeared successively as the heads of this Samurai government, holding all power, both political and military, in their hands. At the Imperial Court were the august officials, but its rulership was only nominal, and the real sovereign power was kept by the Shogunate.

In the middle of the Heian Age, the Fujiwaras grasped despotic authority in politics, and the rule of the Imperial Court sank into formalism. Imperial officials and nobles indulged in an effeminate life, discarding militarism. Vicious customs prevailed, misunderstandings arose between the Central Government and district offices and the gap between the rich and the poor became greater, gangs of robbers terrorized the people, civil wars great and small constantly occurred, and the people could not live in peace. This state of things gave opportunity for the rise of the warrior class, and the military government under the leadership of Yoritomo Minamoto was welcomed by the people as suitable for the troublous times, and the Shogunate came into being on its own merits.

The Kamakura Shogunate Yoritomo adopted Oyé's counsel, and asking the permission of Goshirakawa, the ex-Emperor who had the real power at the Court, stationed his warriors in different parts of the country as governors and deputies. He gave these governors military and police authority and to the deputies he assigned the administration of land and tax affairs, in 1185. All the political power fell into Yoritomo's hands as a natural consequence, and the military and political offices which were established at Kamakura became Shogunate head offices; in 1192, he was asked by the Kyoto Government to become Seiitai-Shogun, or Generalissimo, and this meant the public recognition of the Shogunate authority.

After becoming Shogun by Imperial Order, Yoritomo Minamoto took great care to control the warrior-lords. He himself lived a very simple life and issued orders to the lords and warriors to do the same, thereby setting good examples to the people. His teachings did not primarily stress skill in fighting or the use of weapons but rather the moral precepts which must underlie the true warrior's way. The hitherto neglected and disorderly rural districts were taken care of and became closely united with the Kamakura Government their agricultural and commercial life was improved, and the heavy taxation formerly levied by extravagant nobles was reduced to make the peasants' lives easier.

Foundation of Bushido Yoritomo was a pious man, revered both Shintoism and Buddhism, and was loyal to the Emperor. Bushido was indeed established by his teachings and practical examples. He encouraged the propagation of the Zen teachings which emphasized an ascetic life, and those of the Jodo Sect which taught man to realize his sinfulness. The principles of Bushido, however, had mainly to do with the

lord-and-subject relation among the samurai, and had defects as a common morality for the masses. But it is noticeable here that polygamy among the nobles of former days was gradually discarded and monogamy began to gain ground in this age, probably in consequence of the recognition of personality and the unusual emphasis on the fidelity of a lady to her lord in the Bushido code. Ideas of honour became strong; loyalty to the Emperor, patriotism, and belief in Japan as being the country specially favoured of the Gods became established national ideals; Buddhism was completely Japanized; and the general moral standard was considerably raised.

Yoritomo's lineal descendants did not continue to hold power beyond the third generation, but the nearlyrelated Hojo family took their place and ruled the people with ability till Takatoki Hojo was overthrown by the faithful adherents of the Emperor Godaigo in 1333. The Kamakura Shogunate was the real Central Government of Japan for over 140 years.

Education Education progressed also in the sense that it spread to local districts and especially among the samurai class. The Terakoya (see Chapter XXVIII) schools were started in the Buddhist temples of this age. Text books suitable for the education of samurai boys were compiled. At the time of the Ashikagas famous centres of learning were established at Ashikaga and Kanazawa (see Chapter XXVIII) near the present Tokyo. The Ashikaga Gakko (Ashikaga School) was first established by Yoshikané Ashikaga, a cousin of Yoritomo Minamoto, and has been continued for seven hundred years up to the present day. The Kanazawa Bunko (Kanazawa Library) was first established in 1275 by Sanetoki Hojo, great-grandson of Tokimasa Hojo the Shogun. Women's education was not neglected and sewing, housekeeping, penmanship and reading and composition of prose and poetry were taught to the daughters of well-to-do people.

Art and Literature The rise of individualism gave a new turn to the cultural life of the people. The break of tradition was discernible in fine art and literature. This was the age of Sung and Yuan in China and their literature and arts, flooding Japan, laid the foundations of modern literature and fine arts which developed after the Muromachi period. Picture rolls of famous battles and illustrated histories of shrines and temples were produced, reflecting the taste of the day. That portrait-painting first began during this age may be taken as a recognition of the individual value of men. (See Chapter XXXV.)

Commerce and Industry Before the Kamakura Age, agriculture was almost the sole industry of the people, although pottery, clothing, etc. were produced in government factories on a limited scale. The spread of culture among the local population in this age, however, quickened the progress of commerce and industry in country places and local centres. Hand-work and carpentry were emancipated from the protection of the nobles and temples, primitive guilds were created and classes of artisans of armaments, porcelain, and lacquer-work, etc. came into existence. Seven guilds were established, of silk workers, charcoal burners, rice merchants, furniture makers, miscellaneous industrials, paper manufacturers and makers of ornamental things and cattle dealers.

Joyei Judicial Code In the first year of Joyei, 1232, a judicial code was issued. It was called Joyei Shikimoku (Joyei Judicial Code) compiled by Yasutori Hojo and his colleagues. This was a compilation founded on the judicial customs of olden days and had no incongruities with the Japanese common life as was often the case with the laws issued by the Central Government at Heian, largely imitations as they were of Chinese laws. It proved, as a matter of fact, to be more practical and effective, and survived many other laws, as an authoritative code for the samurai class, to the time of the Meiji Restoration.

Muromachi Age
(1338–1602 A.D.)

The Muromachi Shogunate Shortly after the downfall of the Kamakura Government, Takauji Ashikaga established a Shogunate in Kyoto, wholly on his own accord, in 1338, and in the time of his grandson Yoshimitsu his work was completed. It was called the Muromachi Shogunate, after the name of the street in Kyoto in which the government had its headquarters. Its system and institutions were almost the same as those of the former Kamakura Government. A relative of Ashikaga governed eastern Japan, staying at Kamakura. This Kamakura governor was first a simple representative of the Muromachi Shogunate, but by and by he began to stand in rivalry against it. Governors were sent to other places and generals were placed at the head of

different military bodies. The governors in local districts were real lords, and acted freely on their own caprices.

Korea, China and Japan The official exchange of delegates with foreign countries was, as already mentioned, abolished, but nevertheless private trade continued. The Sung Dynasty united China in 979, and called forth a thriving international commerce. Merchants and Buddhist monks made visits to China much oftener than before. Kiyomori Taira opened a port at Hyogo and interviewed Chinese merchants at his palace. In the Kamakura Age, the Buddhist Zen sect was introduced from China, and the Hojo built huge temples for its monks.

The Yuan Invasion In 1206 the Yuan Dynasty gained sovereignty over the greater part of China and extended its territory even to a part of Europe. The great Emperor Kublai Khan took Korea, and destroyed the Sung Dynasty, winning possession of all China in 1279. He sent a messenger with advice to Japan to become his tributary, under threat of war. But Tokimuné Hojo, then in power at the Kamakura Shogunate, uniting forces with the Kyoto Court, firmly rejected the proposal. The result was a crisis for Japan in 1274 and again in 1281. The Yuan ruler in alliance with the government of Korea sent a great army to invade Japan. The Japanese were hard pressed, but they fought bravely with their small forces, and by the help of a typhoon which destroyed the enemy fleet they won the day in the summer of the year 1281.

The trade between the two nations, however, did not cease with the war. Takauji Ashikaga wished to build the Tenryuji temple and to get funds for the purpose he constructed trade boats which were called Tenryuji boats.

Trade with the Mings From the beginning of the Kamakura Age, Japanese pirates had plundered the coasts of China and Korea. In the Muromachi Age, the Shogun Yoshimitsu Ashikaga concluded a friendly treaty with the Emperor of Ming in 1401. At the time of Yoshinori delegates of the Shogunate went to Ningpo with passports given by Ming authorities and traded there with the Chinese merchants. Not only Government delegates, but also the governors of local districts, monks and priests of temples or shrines, and some merchants of Hyogo and other ports sailed in and out with a similar purpose. The trade with Ming brought a great profit to Japan, and the Shogunate was relieved of its economic hardships, the western ports throve and the people became wealthy. The Shogunate did its best to prohibit the ravages of pirates,to prove its friendliness to the Ming Dynasty, but at the end of the Muromachi Age when the Shogunate lost its power and the local lords did as they liked, Japanese pirates again pillaged Chinese coasts, which were for a long time troubled with them.

Relations with Korea At the time of the rise of the Mongolian nation, Korea turned against Japan under pressure of the Mongols. But the Japanese pirates ravaged her coasts, and she asked the help of China to send a strong protest to the Japanese Government. A general of Korea, Li-Seikei, was successful in protecting the nation from the attacks of the Japanese pirates, and he finally established a new dynasty of his own and called the new country Chosen in 1392.

Among the provincial lords there were many who had intercourse with Korea. Tsushima Island, especially, had close relations with her because of the nearness of its location. Its lord, So, opened trade with Korea in 1368. When Korea became known as Chosen these relations became even more intimate. There were many Tsushima islanders who became residents of Korea. (As to Japan's relations with the Western nations since 1543 when the Portuguese first came to Japan, see pp. 77–87 of the Japan Year Book, 1933, and Chapter VI of this volume.)

Feudalism It was during this age that feudalism was established as a definite system, and many of the provinces were ruled over by war-lords. Warriors fought each other, farmers were awakened to the need of uniting to protect their interests, and temples quarrelled with one another over the delimitation of their spheres of influence. It was a "dark age" in one sense, but important as an age of social change and progress. The advance of foreign trade was remarkable, and Japanese emigrants settled down in the South Sea Islands.

The war-lords began to disregard the orders of the Shogunate, becoming selfish and money-loving. Yoshimitsu Ashikaga, the third of the line, reorganized the Shogunate and restored its power for a while, but after his death it began to decay and the local lords usurped its authority. Both in the capital of Heian and in the districts civil wars raged year after year. The luxurious living initiated by Yoshimitsu and Yoshimasa, the 8th Shogun, spread like an epidemic among the local lords and warriors, and the ones who suffered

most were the common people, the farmers and merchants, because the expenses of the luxury of the upper classes came always from their pockets.

The latter half of the Muromachi Shogunate was an age of civil strife among the feudal lords. All tradition and authority disappeared, and any talented man, favoured by fate, had the chance to make himself a lord.

Military and General Education. Progress in military arts and the use of weapons was a feature of the age. Various styles of Kendo (fencing) were founded and schools to teach the art flourished in the four corners of the islands. Nor was general education neglected. Both the Ashikaga Gakko and Kanazawa Bunko fulfilled their functions as educational centres, Terakoya were established in more districts and education began to reach the farmers and merchants. In 1561 St. Francis Xavier landed at Kagoshima, at the southern end of Kyushu, and the Catholic faith was first preached among the Japanese. Otomo and other lords in Kyushu were baptized and within less than 30 years there were 200 churches built and over 1,500,000 people converted. Nobunaga Oda was in favour of Christianity from his policy of suppressing the unruly power of the Buddhist monks. Catholics were also eager to establish schools. Within the feud of Otomo there was established a seminary (Casa Professa) for training preachers. Colleges for young laymen were established at Arima in Higo province, Kyushu, Funai in Bungo province, Kyushu, and Azuchi in Omi province near Kyoto. The last one was opened in 1581, and 25 boys from good families were instructed in the catechism, Latin, Portuguese, Japanese reading and composition.

Woman's Position Here it must be mentioned that the status of women was greatly lowered in this age of warlords and samurai. Men vaunted their physical prowess in battle, while women were compelled to live secluded lives, sheltering at home from the dangers of the times. Chinese dicta concerning the "three obediences and seven reasons for divorce" making of woman little better than a slave or chattel, suited the selfish convenience of man, and the Buddhist idea of woman as an impure being detrimental to man's ascent to Buddhahood, all worked together to pull woman's social position down to a ridiculously low level, contrasting with the high status she had enjoyed in more ancient days.

Commerce Ravaged by frequent warfare, the city of Heian or Kyoto had become deserted, the population thronging to the villages which nestled around the castles of the feudal lords. These in time became thriving cities or towns. Among sea ports Hakata, Hyogo, Muro, and Sakai were representative ones. To Sakai, for instance, came foreign ships direct, and there arose many wealthy merchants who had financial power over the Muromachi Shogunate. It was a free city, governed by its own city assembly and protected by its own city guard. Yukinaga Konishi who was first a pharmacist and became a lord on his own account, Sen-no-Rikyu, the famous specialist in the tea ceremony, and Sukémon Noya, a millionaire merchant in foreign trade with the South Sea Islands, were representative men of Sakai.

Industry The taste of the age was rather simple and purely Japanese. The war-lords found recreation in the tea ceremony or garden-making. The preservation of natural simplicity was the dominant note in these gardens, rocks and pebbles being used in their construction. The national leader in this direction was Yoshimasa Ashikaga, the Shogun, famous exponent of the tea ceremony. This ceremony was never a mere drinking of tea but a formalized social meeting, at which guests were invited by the host to a simple and tasteful dinner which was called Kaiseki. Choice porcelain wares and other utensils were used in it and the guests were entertained not only by the repast but also by the exhibition of rare articles and scroll pictures. It became a fashion of the time and greatly stimulated and improved the art of making porcelain, lacquer and cast-iron wares and Kakémono paintings. These were exported to the continent for the first time in the history of Japan.

The last quarter of this age, called the Momoyama Period in art history, was represented by the gorgeous taste of Hideyoshi Toyotomi who built the Momoyama Palace of silver and gold. The influence of the Western world definitely reached Japan with the coming of Catholic priests in this period. It affected not only the spiritual and mental life of the Japanese but also the field of architecture. When Nobunaga Oda built the Azuchi Castle, the first of its kind, in 1576, Catholic priests gave advice or directed the construction. The central building of the Japanese castle is called Tenshu-kaku. The word Tenshu means the Heavenly Lord or God of the Catholic Church, and the Tenshu-kaku signifies the Tower of the Heavenly Lord. It is said that in the Tower

of the Heavenly Lord Catholic images were enshrined when it was first built. According to an art investigation, there are in Italy remnants of old buildings which resemble the Japanese castles and the influence of Roman architecture through the Portuguese and Spaniards must have been felt in Japanese castle building.

Economic Conditions There were economic reasons underlying the civil wars among the feudal lords in the latter half of the Muromachi Age. Enlarged volume of production, progress of communications and transportation, advancement of commerce and industry and changes in military strategy following the introduction of guns led to the wars of territorial invasion and expansion among the lords who had to provide for an increasing number of soldiers and officials. Both commerce and industry had from the time of Yoritomo Minamoto, progressed slowly but steadily with the spread of civilization to local centres, and merchants and artisans were gaining standing as a class. Up to the middle of the Muromachi Age the guilds called "Za" monopolized the supply of goods to the lords; this system, however, came to an end with the progress of free trading, and public markets were permanently established. The appearance of large towns and cities necessitated the accumulation of commodities and provisions from adjacent country places and other parts of the land and hastened the growth of wholesale dealers. The wholesale dealers of the age were called "Mommaru" and combined the businesses of innkeeping, wholesale trading, transportation and money exchanging. Banking business also made considerable progress. There were no banks in the modern sense, but the pawnshops were the banks of the day when as yet there was no regular credit system. Buddhist temples and the brewers of saké acted also as money lenders and they together with the pawnshops were usurers and capitalists. Tanomoshi-ko (small associations for mutual financial aid) were already in vogue. Accumulation of wealth became a dire necessity for the lords, but they had to rely wholly upon the farmers and merchants for financial support while the Central Government was too weak to aid them or protect their interests in accordance with the change of social and economic conditions. Some fell so heavily into debt that finally they had to surrender their territory to their creditors. The Shogunate prohibited the purchase or mortgage of land owned by the samurai to merchants and landed proprietors, but this regulation was not observed. By the end of the Kamakura Shogunate it had become too late to attempt the financial rescue of the samurai. The lords levied heavy taxes on their people and farmed out their collection to appointed merchants. The final outcome of this system, however, was to let the land fall into the hands of those agents, so that the lords were driven in desperation to get new land by force. At times the farmers and smaller merchants resorted to violence to protect their rights and demand more merciful governance from their respective lords or the Shogunate. They often attacked the wealthy merchants, temples and pawnshops to get back goods they had pawned.

The latter half of the Muromachi Age witnessed Buddhist mob rioting and fighting. The Shin Sect (or Ikko Shu) founded by Shinran gained great numbers of followers from among the common people, and some uprisings of these religionists were in reality directed against the ruling class. For instance, the Ikko mob which started rioting in the districts of Kaga, Noto and Echigo provinces, fought against Masachika Togashi the lord of Kaga and killed him, while another in the district near the present-day Kobé and Osaka defeated the armies of Hosokawa their lord, the fight extending over several provinces from Sakai to Ishiyama in Omi province. Iyéyasu Tokugawa, then lord of Mikawa, fought with them in 1563, and to Nobunaga Oda also they were a constant source of trouble.

The social changes caused by the progress of trade and commerce during the Kamakura and Muromachi Ages and the consequent disorder among the ruling classes were not allowed to take their own course very long, for foreign relations, especially with Western countries, presented many international problems and the necessity of national unity became keenly felt. The introduction of fire-arms brought about a fundamental change in methods of fighting. Arrows were no match for bullets. Preparations for war had to be made on a much larger scale and the warriors or soldiers reorganized in a more systematic way, and consequently the smaller lords were forced to unite under the leadership of greater ones who possessed real power and means to organize new armies. In this manner the unity of all Japan was realized in three stages through three great war-lords, Nobunaga Oda, Hideyoshi Toyotomi and Iyéyasu Tokugawa.

Nobunaga Oda The first, Nobunaga

Oda, was an official under the lord Shiba, but soon becoming independent he subdued one after another many lesser lords with his soldiers armed with guns, and, in July, 1573, dethroned Yoshiaki Ashikaga the Shogun and demanded direct access to the Emperor Ogimachi. Nobunaga who had had long and bitter experience of the Buddhist mobs waged war against them and set fire to the Enryakuji temple on Mount Hiei, one of the most powerful temples of the time, thus putting an end to Buddhist meddling in political affairs. He found another means of lessening the power of Buddhist temples by favouring the spread of the Christian faith. He gave all encouragement to its propagation and welcomed the inflow of Western learning and civilization. Nobunaga destroyed the barrier gates in districts which hindered free commercial intercourse and transportation and put an end to the monopolizing guilds and gave merchants opportunity for unrestricted trading. But in 1582 he was assassinated with his work yet incomplete, and it was left to Hideyoshi to continue the task of uniting the nation.

Hideyoshi Toyotomi Hideyoshi Toyotomi, a farmer's son, and one of the trusted generals of Oda, succeeded in subduing even such great lords as Mori and Shimazu in the west and Daté and Hojo in the north and practically united the whole nation by force. In 1583 the whole land of Japan was surveyed to divide it into new rural districts. In 1586 Hideyoshi fixed the costumes of the samurai according to their rank. In 1588 the common people were ordered to surrender their swords for casting a Daibutsu (great image of Buddha), the purpose of this order being to prevent the wearing of swords by any except the samurai. The law of 1591 strictly prohibited the shifting of hereditary business, and the four classes of samurai, farmers, artisans and merchants were firmly fixed.

To force obedience to the law Goningumi (Five Men's Bands) were compulsorily organized. All the people (samurai inclusive) were grouped by 5 or 10 families and each group not only took joint responsibility for the doings of all of its members but helped its members in civil life. This originated before Toyotomi's time, but the law issued in 1600 made it an established institution and played an important part in the following Tokugawa Age both politically and socially. Hideyoshi planned an invasion of the Continent, Formosa, and the Philippines, but died in 1598 before realizing his dreams.

Before the absolute unity of Japan could be accomplished another great statesman was to take the work in hand.

Social Classes (12th–16th centuries) The Ōnin war (1467–1475) which was fought between the Muromachi (the Fujiwaras) Shogunate families in the city of Kyoto not only destroyed the Shogunate itself but also reduced the Capital to ashes. The Court and the Shogunate lost power at once and the whole country was thrown into commotion for a century by the wars of the military lords.

The wars entirely did away with old social customs and laws and gave opportunity for the rise of petty warriors and landed-farmers who, to this time, had been subjected to the aristocrats and war-lords. This was a time of great changes in the social order of Japan. After the Ōnin war members of the labouring classes were able to become lords through their own ability; farmers organized to oppose their lords; commercial cities like Sakai, Yamaguchi, and Osaka, appeared and became rich with the development of foreign trade; and villages, in many districts, began to govern themselves.

In consequence of the rise of new war-lords the aristocratic class of this age was of two kinds, the old nobles in the Court and the new war-lords. The Court nobles had become poor through the confiscation of parts of their estates in country districts by the Kamakura Shogunate. They were, nevertheless, still highly honoured because of their culture and attainments, all lines of study being handed down by them in hereditary succession, and high positions in the Court were held by them though they had no practical power in the administration of national affairs. The only sphere of influence left to the Court nobles was in religious circles, except in the Zen sect which had most of its adherents among the samurai classes. The Fujiwaras, who succeeded the Minamotos in the Shogunate government, again confiscated more than one-half of the lands of Court nobles and finally stretched their wanton hands over the estates of the Imperial House and temples and shrines in the name of military taxes. In the Ōnin war, fought in the city of Kyoto, the mansions of the Court nobles were all destroyed or set on fire and the nobles themselves were compelled to desert the capital and seek protection among the wealthy families in the country districts or temples and shrines.

The war-lords in this age were sons of local governors in older ages, new

governors placed in districts by the Kamakura and Fujiwara Shogunates, and big land-lords who ascended to war-lordship by hiring warriors for the protection of their estates in the political confusion of the time. The name 'Daimyo' which represented the war-lords in later ages, especially in the Yedo Age, originated in the land-lords, and meant one who owned a large estate or villages. The war-lords, new and old, took advantage of the downfall of the Shogunate after the Ōnin war to consolidate their field of activity all over Japan. They fought each other to obtain supremacy.

The second class of people consisted of farmers, artisans and merchants. The war-lords and Daimyo in the provinces built castles around which artisans and merchants settled, the artisans and merchants increased in number and the castles gradually grew into towns and cities, while progress in foreign trade during the latter half of this age gave rise to such port cities as Sakai, Hakata and Yamaguchi. Artisans and merchants formed guilds as mentioned elsewhere and protected their rights and profits. Farmers who had been trodden under the foot of the ruling classes began to make demands upon their lords who could no longer control them by threats but had to handle them in a more honourable manner. The first record of a farmers' mob movement against their lords was that of the farmers in Kinki (Kyoto and Nara) districts which started in September, 1428. The mob demanded the so-called "Toku Sei", cancellation of debt or a permanent moratorium. Mobs which were united in the faith of Buddhism such as the Jodo or Hokké sects were well organized and had some permanency so that at one time they formed their own government. In the province of Yamashiro the farmers succeeded in organizing their own government and elected members by vote at the Byodoin temple at Uji, Kyoto, in February, 1486. This and other examples of a similar nature were not allowed to continue because of later changes in political affairs, but they laid foundations for the future development of towns and villages and the "Gonin Gumi" as mentioned above.

The lowest class in this period consisted of sons of the same class in the preceding age. The difference was that the slaves of Court nobles or government offices became more despised than the slaves at private houses. The latter were handled by their lords in a much more humane way than in the preceding age. The former, on the contrary, became more disliked by the other people because of their Korean origin and their special work of butchers and skinners, for such work was extremely despised by Buddhism, which taught people not to kill any living thing, even lice, and taboo all flesh. They were called the "Eta," the meaning of which changed from the "butcher" to the "polluted", and lived in groups secluded from others.

Yedo Age
(1602–1867 A.D.)

In 1600 Iyéyasu Tokugawa gained a decisive victory at Sekigahara, near Nagoya, and became the practical ruler of Japan. Except for a small portion allotted to the Imperial House and various religious bodies, over 90 per cent of the entire land was divided among the Tokugawas, their relatives, and favourite generals and lords. Thus the complete unity of the nation was realized by the dual master-and-subject relation between the lords and their people and the Shogun and his lords. This feudal system lasted over 260 years, being quite unparalleled in the history of the world. This was a success primarily for the Tokugawa Shogunate rather than the nation. It was due for one thing to the financial and military strength of the Tokugawa family, secondly to the clever method of administration, best suited to keep wayward war-lords in order, and thirdly to the halting of alien influences from overseas.

Iyéyasu located the seat of the Central Government at Yedo (Tokyo) and governed from there his 200 lords and generals. The financial basis of this Shogunate was superior to that of its predecessors. About 7,000,000 koku ("koku" in this case means the area of land which can produce one koku of rice) or nearly one-fourth of the national area of 30,560,000 koku, was owned by the Shogunate directly or indirectly. Besides, all the ports and places important for political and military purposes, the largest cities and the centres of industrial and commercial activities, and all the mines of any value were under the Shogunate's direct control. It also retained the right of casting coins.

Buké Hatto (Samurai Law) After giving the final blow to the Toyotomis in May, 1615, Iyéyasu Tokugawa ordered the drafting of the law concerning the daimyo (feudal lords) and samurai. In July of the same year the Samurai Law was pronounced before the gathering of the daimyo called for the purpose by the second Tokugawa Shogun, Hidetada. It consisted of 13 articles the gist

of them being as follows : (1) Samurai must be well educated in general learning and versed in the arts of war ; (2) Unbridled drinking and luxuriousness are strictly prohibited ; (3) Criminals must not be aided or concealed ; (4) All treasonous bodies and murderers should be banished ; (5) No person other than the subjects of the daimyo should be allowed to live in his territory ; (6) All repairs to castles need permission of the Shogunate and the building of a new castle is strictly prohibited ; (7) If anyone detects a new castle building or a secret political organization in a neighbouring province he must report it to the Shogunate ; (8) Marriages must not be celebrated privately ; (9) All the lords are required to observe "sankinkotai". (According to this article the lords were divided into two groups, and each group was to come up to Yedo, the seat of the Shogunate, in April every other year, to stay there for one year and the Shogunate prepared their Yedo residences where their families were kept as hostages. These rules were somewhat loosened in later years.) (10) Styles of costume should be regulated according to rank and social position ; (11) Servants ought not freely to use the palanquin (the only vehicle in those days) in travel ; (12) Samurai should be instructed to live frugally ; and (13) the lords should use discretion in appointment of officials. The purpose of this law was to restrict the armament of the lords, to suppress political organization and treason, to effectively inspect the local government of the lords, and to force them to keep order by strict rules on their behaviour. The number of daimyo was 157 according to the Shogunate statistics of 1614.

Kugé Hatto (Court Nobles Law) This law for the court nobles was promulgated in July, 1615, at the assembly of 150 court nobles at the Nijo Castle, Kyoto. It consisted of 17 articles, and included regulations regarding the positions of the Emperor, Imperial Princes and Princesses, the appointment of a Regency and chief councillor, adoption, court ranks, institution of the year name, costumes, the order of promotion, orders issued by magistrates, sentences of the court, and the position, ranks, costumes and honorary titles of the head priests of Buddhist temples. (See p. 100, the Japan Year Book 1936, for the main points of the law.)

System of Control Iyéyasu took scrupulous care not to give any chance to the Imperial House and the greater lords to gather forces against the Shogunate. His first policy was to restrict their powers by the promulgation of the Kugé Hatto and Buké Hatto above mentioned. His second was to allot their districts to the respective lords by an administrative plan deliberately schemed out. The Kanto district in which the seat of the Shogunate was located was put under the direct rule of the Shogun and ruled by his personal generals to protect the General Government from attack. In the districts around Kyoto, the city of the Imperial House, none of the Tozama Daimyo, the conquered lords, were placed, but only the relatives of the Tokugawa and the Fudai Daimyo, lords who had been on the Tokugawa's side from of old ; and in Kyoto itself a representative office of the Shogunate had the responsibility of watching any political move in that city. Along the two main roads, the Tokaido and Nakasendo (or Koshukaido) which connected Kyoto and Yedo, the Fudai Daimyo only were appointed to rule. The Tozama Daimyo were all given lands in the remoter parts and between each two of them a Fudai Daimyo was placed to play the part of a barrier. Such important places as Osaka, Sakai, Fushimi, Nagasaki and Uji-Yamada were administered by governors directly sent from Yedo. The children of Iyéyasu were given large feuds and established the Houses of Mito, Owari, Echizen and Kishu, forming a defensive semicircular line. As a whole. Iyéyasu cleverly divided the land among the lords so as to keep the balance between the east and the west, a policy which proved successful till the balance was broken in the first half of the 19th century when the western lords rose in rebellion. The Shogunate paid scrupulous attention to all travellers along the Tokaido. It put a barrier at Hakoné, and nobody was allowed to pass through the gate without a passport issued from the lords or the Shogunate. After the enforcement of the articles of the Buké Hatto requiring the family of a lord to stay at Yedo, women were almost entirely prohibited from leaving the city for they must get Hakoné passports directly from the Shogunate.

The purpose of the seclusion policy adopted by the Tokugawa Shogunate was to shut out any possible outside political influence and to prevent the local lords from getting large profits out of foreign trade, and rising thereby to financial and political power. The Shogunate did everything to safeguard its supremacy and make the lords obedient, no matter how national progress was hindered or into what miserable condition the people might be thrown.

Organization of the Tokugawa Shogunate The Shogunate was a government of one despotic ruler : the Shogun. No one man, however, can perform all the duties of a government unassisted. Although there were many changes in the organization and the names of offices in the 268 years of its rule the Yedo Government, in the main, had a Cabinet which consisted of one Tairo (the great elder), five Roju (the middle elders), and five Wakadoshiyori (the younger elders). The Tairo was the premier but, though the Shogun at times placed his most reliable and able statesman in the position, the years in which a Tairo held office were but few, the Shogun himself generally undertaking the office. The Roju were the ministers of the administration. They signed the public ordinances and documents of the highest import. Their administration was based on former customs and newly issued laws, while their secretaries had the responsibility of examining old customs and precedents to help their decisions. These five saw to matters concerning the Imperial House, the court nobles and prince monks, and controlled all the lords and high officials, local governors and inspectors, and in wartime commanded the armies of the lords.

The Wakadoshiyori consisted of four or five members who were at once councillors and vice-ministers and controlled the Hatamoto (the generals who directly belonged to the Shogunate), and the lower officials, and in any emergency commanded the armies of the Hatamoto.

Both the Roju and the Wakadoshiyori were appointed from among the Fudai-Daimyo only.

Under the cabinet there were three Bugyo, the Jisha Bugyo (Temple and Shrine Department), the Machi Bugyo (City Department), and the Kanjo Bugyo (Counting Department). The Jisha Bugyo controlled all the temples and shrines in the country and administered justice in the remoter districts. The Machi Bugyo administered the city (Yedo) affairs from administrative business to justice, police and prisons. The Kanjo Bugyo took charge of the treasury of the Shogunate, gathering taxes from the estates directly belonging to the Shogun.

The Roju, the Wakadoshiyori and the three Bugyo formed the Central Shogunate Government, all other officials belonging to or coming under the control of one or other of these. Among the local officials the most important were the Shoshi-dai who represented the Shogunate at Kyoto, the Osakajo-dai who represented the Shogunate at Osaka, the Fushimi Bugyo, overseers of the barriers at Kyoto, the Kobusho Bugyo or military department, and the Nagasaki Bugyo who controlled the lords in Kyushu.

Cultural Life Culture and civilization made greatest progress in the western part of Japan and it was in Osaka and Kyoto that literature and a more refined life developed in the earlier years of the Yédo period. Iyéyasu was anxious to spread knowledge and encouraged the study of the Japanese and Chinese literatures of former days ; scholars of great learning appeared who opened schools and published commentaries or interpretations either of their own accord or by the backing or order of the lords. The progress of the art of printing greatly helped the spread of education by books. But in the early days of the age most of the energy of the ruling class and the common people was spent in readjusting their political and social life to the new state of affairs created by the united and centralized government of the Tokugawa Shogunate, and time was needed for the psychological atmosphere of the people to settle down toward a peaceful enjoyment of life in this better organized society.

It was not until after half a century that a characteristic taste and way of life began to show themselves, discarding the old garbs of tradition. Here it must be noted that the fundamental feature of the literature of the age was that it was the creation of the common people, people who were denied all opportunity of rising to higher social positions or assuming official posts in the government. The so-called Genroku period commenced with the luxurious life of the fifth Shogun, Tsunayoshi, who was a man of enthusiasm, fond of learning, and encouraged lectures and schools. Even before his time the general trend of the period had been toward extravagance and amusement following a century of peace. The Shogun's example, however, quickened and intensified this tendency, and such amusements as "no" drama, joruri (or gidayu), and kabuki (see Chapter XXXVII) were enjoyed by the general masses, while pure literature such as haiku, waka, novels, and stories began also to be written and read among the lower classes. Skill in the fine arts, characteristic Japanese hand-work and special weaving arts reached the highest pitch.

In the Genroku period literary men were able to publish their writings freely and the joruri of Chikamatsu, the novels of Saikaku, and the short poems

of Basho had a great circulation, most of their works becoming literary treasures of Japan for ages to come.

The leadership in civilization was still with Osaka and Kyoto up to the end of this period. But the Sankin-kotai and the power of Yédo, the seat of the Shogunate, did not long allow the centre of culture and fashion to remain in these old western cities, and Yédo had finally assumed the first position in all matters of political and social life by the last quarter of the 18th century. The following 80 years, especially the first 50 years of it, was the golden age of the cultural life before the Meiji Restoration.

The policy of the Tokugawa Shogunate in handling the people from the lowest to the highest, was very severe, and the class most oppressed being the common populace. Social tragedies amply reflect themselves in the literature of joruri writers, Chikamatsu and his contemporaries, and in spite of the apparently good intentions of the Shogunate rulers and advisers to improve the political, economic and social conditions, in many cases the people in general were either trodden down by lawless samurai or entangled and rendered helpless in the network of prohibitive laws.

But the characteristic optimism of the Japanese kept them from falling into hopeless discouragement and their surplus time and money were spent in amusements of all kinds. This repressed energy found its outlet in creative industry and literature, or their enjoyment. Besides the standard works of literature there are preserved smaller illustrated pamphlets, short novels and poems which reflect the life of the common people in those days. They expose the looseness of the social life in many respects, but it is wonderful how they show the innate heart of the Japanese people, optimistic, realistic and humane. If it were not for its partial suppression by the Government this common literature might have attained remarkable progress. All Japanese amusements either originated or took definite form in this age. In the upper classes of society a similar course of development ran through all phases of life. Characteristic Japanese philosophy on human life or Shintoism was created by the combination of Chinese philosophies and Buddhism.

Gradual Economic Decline At the beginning of the Tokugawa Shogunate foreign trade was carried on to a considerable extent but afterwards it was almost entirely prohibited except to a small extent through one trade port, and all hope of increasing the national wealth and economic progress of Japan was lost for the time being. Even with its income from the large territory above mentioned the Shogunate could hardly manage to keep pace with the ever increasing expenditure. Financial unsoundness appeared at the time of the fourth Shogun, and from the fifth Shogun on they were forced to rely upon the profits gained by the recasting of coin. Various improvements and revisions of economic policy wrought no material change of situation for the better. In the Tempo Era (1830–1844), the Government stood on the brink of bankruptcy and during the last years of the Shogunate the financial situation went from bad to worse.

The local lords had territories of 10,000 koku to 1,020,000 koku each, but their income from these was too small to feed all their dependent samurai and soldiers, and to finance the Sankin-kotai travelling expenses. They fell into heavy debt, their creditors being the wealthy merchants and money lenders at Yédo and Osaka, the two business centres of the time. From the middle of the Yédo Age few of the lords could manage without the help of the rich merchants. Seventy per cent of the national wealth was said to have got into the hands of wealthy business men by the end of the age. In 1843 the lords sent about 4,000,000 koku of rice to Osaka, 3,000,000 koku of which went to Osaka merchants as interest on their debt of 60,000,000 ryo (gold coin). All means to which they resorted to increase their incomes proved in vain.

The samurai were also compelled by the Sankin-kotai system to have two houses, one at their rural town and the other in Yédo. They were not allowed to do any productive work but received a kind of salary from their own lords, and mostly lived a leisurely life, although some were given offices in the local governments. The long peace did not necessarily bring happiness to the samurai, but rather drew them into different means of pastime and their fighting spirit was dulled with the increasing tendency to luxury. Their incomes were limited from the beginning and were still more shortened by compulsory loans to their feudal lord out of their 'fuchi' or salaries, or even complete suspension of payment. They had no way of extorting from the farmers, as the lords had, and after losing all their means they could not help but break the law and work secretly for their living as artisans or small mer-

chants. In the end the samurai began to sell their weapons and armour which had become useless in the long years of peace.

In the Yédo Age the country folk still lived on the natural products of their farms, helped out by some small income from their handwork, and each village constituted an economic unit, self-supplying and self-supporting. The political peace benefited farmers especially and increase of production resulted from the improvement of farming instruments and institutions. The kinds of vegetables grown became more numerous, sericulture advanced remarkably, and new areas of arable land were brought under cultivation. At the time of Toyotomi's land survey (1573) the rice production of the whole country had been estimated at 18,000,000 koku. In the Genroku Era (1688–1704) it increased to 25,780,000 koku, and, in 1842, to 30,550,000 koku. But 50% of the farmers' income had to be paid to the lords, they were forbidden to move from one place to another, or to change their occupation, purchase of land was restricted, the Goningumi and other feudal institutions fettered them hand and foot. So this class of people was also thrown into miserable depression, and farmers resorted to such desperate measures as infanticide, fleeing to cities and mob riots to escape from their difficulties or fight for their living.

The number of recorded farmer-mob riots reached 568, including 68 in the early period of the age, 236 in the middle, and 264 in the last. The usual motive for rising in mobs was anger at the unreasonable extortion by the lords, tenant disputes being as yet rare.

It was estimated that the proportion of farmers to the whole population was 80%, and the total population in the Yédo Age showed a slow increase in the first half and a standstill in the latter. This was brought about by such natural causes as famines, prevalence of epidemics and insanitary dwellings; but the dreadful habit of infanticide which originated from the direst difficulty of living among the farming class, must have been the greatest factor in checking the increase of population, for it was usual among farmers to restrict the number of their children to less than three in a family. Another negative measure was to flee from the territory of the despotic lord to large cities. Cities had insufficient capacity to receive the inflow of these country people because as yet there were no industrial factories, but there were many openings for house-workers, day labourers and apprentices in the business houses or artisans' shops.

Commerce and Industry The advance of commerce was helped by the increase of population in the towns and cities where central and rural governmental seats were located and the regular journeys to and from Yédo of the lords and their soldiers in Sankin-kotai. But as all foreign trade was banned, business could not take on any natural or international development. The main commodity of the day was rice, that produced in the Kansai, Chugoku (the Main Island west of Kobé), Shikoku, Kyushu and Hokuriku (districts facing the Japan Sea in the central part of the Main Island) being transported to Osaka ricedealers, while that of Kanto and Ohu or the north-eastern provinces was sold in Yédo. Exchange business in rice had already commenced among Osaka merchants and speculations began to draw common interest. Coins of gold, silver, bronze or copper were in good circulation by this time, although these suffered changes of value at times, and the west of Osaka adopted the silver standard while the east took the gold standard. Paper money was issued by the rural governments so that money economy prevailed all over Japan. Bank business or Ryo-gaé and the credit system made considerable progress.

Yédo had over a million population and Osaka came next with several hundred thousand. There were many other cities of over ten thousand. Seclusion had put a stop to sea transportation to foreign lands, but land transportation within the country made wonderful progress. The five highways, To-kaido, Nakasen-do, Koshu-kaido, Nikko-kaido and Oshu-kaido (Do or Kaido means road) converged at Yédo and men and goods came to the Shogunate capital along them and their byroads from the remotest corners of the land. Coasting sea transportation had the following four main lines: the South Sea line between Yédo and Osaka, the West Sea line between Osaka and Nagasaki, the North Sea line from Shimonoseki to Matsumaé, and the East Sea line between Oshu and Yédo; the most important of these being the South Sea line which connected Yédo the greatest consuming city and Osaka the greatest commercial centre.

On the other hand factories were still undeveloped and most articles were made by hand in individual houses. Industry with large capital and in factories was limited to brewing at Nada, weaving at Ashikaga, Kiriu near Yédo and Hakata in Kyushu, metal foundries in

Chugoku and shipbuilding.

The seclusion policy quenched the enthusiasm of the Japanese for foreign trade which had been greatly stimulated at the time of Nobunaga Oda and at the beginning of the Yédo Age by the activities of the Goshuin-sen or registered vessels and small boats of the pirates. The Islanders were compelled to fall back on the old economic system of self-supply and self-sufficiency, and unwillingly relinquishing the international spirit that had aspired to things Western on a far larger scale than that of China centuries ago.

At the same time, however, it resulted in the creation of many industries and fine arts purely Japanese, and in the course of time, the work of the artisans became minutely specialized numbering over 150 kinds. The artisans were united in guilds according to their kinds, which protected their rights and profits, master, artisans and apprentices comprising each house. There were government purveyors who were protected by the Shogunate and accumulated wealth. The number of merchants greatly increased and the classes of the wholesale merchants, middle men and retailers were definitely established. The wholesale dealers organized associations and gradually, in their financial ascendancy, acquired real power over the samurai and lords.

Social Classes (16th–18th century) The policy of the Tokugawa Shogunate, which followed the national unity of Hideyoshi Toyotomi, clearly marked the class divisions into five, the samurai or buké, farmers, businessmen, educationists and outcasts.

First, taking the place of the former Court nobles came the samurai class. This consisted of the war-lords or daimyo and their warriors and occupied governmental positions and was responsible for all the national political and military affairs, both central and provincial. The samurai lived on the revenue from taxes levied on the farmers and businessmen. In times of emergency unreasonable levies were imposed upon these working classes, and extremely despotic lords often robbed them of their wealth in the name of loans never repaid. This latter injustice was specially repeated by the lords at the end of the Yédo Age when the samurai class was thrown into an economic depression by reasons mentioned elsewhere. According to statistics taken by the Meiji Government in 1872 the number of samurai households was 395,825, with an aggregate membership of 1,911,239, or 7 per cent of the total population at the end of the Yédo Age. There were in 1752, the Shogunate House, its three relative lords, and 258 lords or daimyo. Among the 258 daimyo those who owned an estate above 600,000 koku numbered 3, above 200,000 koku 15, above 100,000 koku 27, above 60,000 koku 20, above 30,000 koku 62, and above 10,000 koku 23. All of these lords were made peers after 1884 when the old daimyo system was done away with by the Meiji Government.

Farmers were divided into three classes, village officials, landowners and tenants. The first of these were the largest landowners in villages who were asked by the daimyo or samurai dignitaries to levy taxes on the villagers. They represented their village and had power over the villagers in both public and private matters as tax-gatherers, police and leaders of the community. Other landed farmers who had no official responsibility owned their own land and farm and were the tax-bearers of the community. The tenants were subjects of the other landed farmers and were the most pitiable of the working classes of the time. Of their production 50 per cent went to the samurai as public taxes and 30 per cent to their master or landed farmers as rent, and they themselves were compelled to live on but 20 per cent of what they had produced. The percentage of these classes of farmer seems to have been 2.5 per cent, 37.5 per cent, and 60 per cent, respectively. Farmers were often stricken by natural calamities in addition to this squeeze by the ruling classes.

The class of businessmen was also divided into two, wealthier merchants or artisans who owned houses and lots, and tenants. In social standing businessmen were regarded lower than farmers, but as a matter of fact their economic condition was much better. Their prosperity depended on the luxury and consequent demands of the samurai class so the samurai and businessmen were economically interdependent, but the businessmen gradually obtained the more powerful position and wealthier "chonin" or merchants became to be much honoured because of their economic power. Toward the latter half of the Yédo Age they actually became freer than the samurai. At times their wealth and lives were forfeit to the Shogunate or local warlords, yet they laid an unshakable foundation for the business classes in new Japan after the Meiji Restoration in 1868.

The educational class consisted of the

Court nobles, monks, priests and physicians. The social standing of the Court nobles was still high. The Emperor was duly respected by the Shogunate and daimyo, but he had no political power. The Court nobles who lived in Kyoto with the Imperial House had but a meagre means of living. They were satisfied to be tutors in one art or another, such as waka, Japanese football, penmanship, astrology, medical science, etc. Yet their hereditary position as the nobility was well established and they formed so strong a class of their own that the Shogunate or the war-lords could hardly disregard their existence, in fact it was by the combined power of the Court nobles and the "ronin" or masterless samurai that the Shogunate was finally overthrown in the middle of the 19th century.

The lowest class in the Yédo Age, as in the preceding period, were the "Eta" and "hinin." The number of "Eta" or "polluted" remarkably increased in this age because war-lords in the previous war age called the butchers and skinners to their castle-towns to manufacture articles for war, and the birth-rate of these "Eta" was great. They lived all over the country instead of only in the Kyoto and Nara districts as in the previous age, forming their own communities. They were despised by other people to the extent that they were not allowed to eat or sit with them. Intermarriage and mixed residence with other classes was strictly prohibited by law. This "Eta" class has been most unreasonably treated to the present, although the Meiji Government declared in 1871 that no legal distinction should exist between the "Eta" and others. The "hinin," outcasts, beggars, and the like were put in the same class with the "Eta". According to statistics taken by the Meiji Government in 1871 the number of the "Eta" was 280,311, beggars 23,480 and others 79,097.

Ronin A characteristic phenomenon of the Yédo Age was the appearance of the Ronin or masterless samurai. Such samurai had existed in previous years, but at the time of the despot Toyotomi their number was insignificant. The samurai who had followed lords defeated and ruined in battles became ronin, their number was added to by the extinction of noble houses in punishment for rebellion and the unemployment of the sons of samurai, other than the first born, who had no share in the inheritance of their father's property or position. Some samurai voluntarily chose the life of a ronin. All these lawless ronin lived from hand to mouth and were either at odds with the ruling class or gave constant trouble to the common people. The event mainly responsible for the creation of this class of people was the battle at Sekigahara (1600 A.D.) which decided the supremacy of the Tokugawas over the Toyotomi. In the 13 years between that battle and the Osaka battle which ended in the final destruction of the Toyotomi family, the number of the lords entirely ruined or partly deprived of territory reached over 100 and the confiscated area to approximately 9,000,000 koku. Some found second masters but the larger number of the samurai were thrown out of work. The Osaka battle was caused by these samurai in a last attempt to preserve the power of the Toyotomis, although it ended in their complete failure. Again, in the 23 years between the Osaka battle and the Shimabara Rebellion in 1637 another 70 lords lost the whole or a part of their territory by the relentless application of the Buké Hatto, and indeed the Shimabara Rebellion was nothing but an outburst of complaints by the Catholics and the ronin against the oppression of the Shogunate. But the power of the Shogunate was unshakable. The number of the ronin, however, was still more increased, and in the 4th year of the Keian Era, 1651, Yui-no-Shosetsu and his colleagues attempted a change of the Shogunate government for the benefit of the ronin, although it was suppressed by the wholesale arrest of the ambitious leaders and the harakiri of Yui-no-Shosetsu himself on July 25 of that year. There were minor events caused by outbreaks of the ronin here and there and at last the Shogunate was awakened by these uprisings to the graveness of the situation and after the Keian Era measures were taken to prevent further increase in the number of these masterless samurai. As a rule, in obedience to Bushido ethics, the samurai did not like to take a second master, and only a small portion found positions, while the rest either remained unemployed or chose some other occupation. Some became merchants or farmers. Others became scholars and opened Terakoya and educated the young in Confucianism and Japanese literature and morals. Still others became specialists in military arts and gave lectures to the samurai and the lords, while there were quite a number of experts in fencing and archery who opened drill-halls or schools in the larger cities. The better element of the ronin played an important part in the social development of the country

standing in a freer position than the regular samurai. And the last and most praiseworthy task they accomplished was to take a prominent part in the movement for aiding the Imperial House which finally led to the Meiji Restoration.

Exclusion Policy

Policy of Toyotomi The Catholic faith spread over Japan very quickly and many churches were built in various places. But the dogmas and institutions of the Church were in many ways unfitting to Japanese ideals and customs. Besides, the friars or missionaries were charged to have behaved without discretion, disregarding the laws of the nation. Hideyoshi Toyotomi therefore destroyed the Catholic Church in Kyoto in 1585, and issued a Prohibition Law in 1587, forbidding the residence of missionaries at Nagasaki and other places. But he still allowed foreigners who did not mean to spread the religion to come.

A little later, when trade with Luzon was opened, Spanish missionaries came to Japan. These missionaries were antagonistic to the Jesuits and tried to preach another form of doctrine among the Japanese people in the face of the Prohibition Law, and quarrelled with the Portuguese missionaries. Hideyoshi issued a more drastic prohibition law and severely punished the breakers; but he died without accomplishing his aim, and both Portuguese and Spanish missionaries came in greater numbers and preached the Gospel more earnestly so that the believers in it increased with remarkable rapidity.

Policy of Iyéyasu Iyéyasu followed in Hideyoshi's steps and encouraged foreign trade. But being anxious lest the people should be misled by the Catholic priests he prohibited their preaching in 1612, expelled them from the country, and strictly ordered the Japanese believers to turn from their faith, and those who did not obey his order were condemned to death. They called this turning from or casting away the Christian faith "Korobi" or rolling over.

Going Abroad Prohibited But missionaries came in considerable numbers, and secretly continued to spread Christianity. The Shogunate saw the difficulty of complete prohibition, and began to take stricter steps. Iyémitsu, the third Shogun, prohibited the importation of foreign books in 1630, forbade any one to go out of the country without permission of the Government in 1633, and prohibited the going abroad of any Japanese in 1636. Finally, no Japanese was allowed to return from other countries. And thus the ambition of the Japanese for foreign expansion was quenched.

Seclusion of the Nation The Shogunate kept a strict watch against the coming in of the Catholic faith and tried to exterminate the believers in the country. Its measures were so severe that the Christian believers rose in rebellion at Shimabara in 1637. The uprising was subdued in a short time, but because of it the Shogunate determined to go a step farther in carrying out the law, and prohibited the coming of foreign people entirely in 1639, with the only exception of the Hollanders who helped the Shogun's armies in the fight against the religious mob at Shimabara and cherished no idea of spreading the Catholic faith among the Japanese. Hollanders were allowed to trade at Nagasaki, but only under supervision of the officials.

With this strict seclusion policy the Shogunate was able to root out Catholicism and remove from the minds of the people the influence of foreign thought and belief, and so gain peace in home affairs. But during those years, foreign affairs became known to only a few of the Shogunate upper officials, and this merely through meagre reports presented by the Dutch Consul. The people were kept in entire ignorance. The result of this isolation from the nations of the world was that the country dropped behind in world civilization.

But general movements among the nations of the world did not allow Japan to stay forever in a secluded condition. In the 18th century, foreign ships began to visit Japan, and the Islanders could no longer leave these intruders at their shores unheeded. The end of the Yedo Age was evidently drawing near.

Foreign Studies Renewed Seventy years after the enforcement of seclusion, books on foreign trade and the state of affairs in the Western world were published and the people were much instructed by such literature. The Shogun Yoshimuné took an interest in Western studies and followed a liberal policy for importing Western books in 1720, this brought about a Renaissance which awakened the Japanese from their long sleep.

Seclusion Law Reinforced The Seclusion Law required the provincial lords to drive foreigners away from the shores of the Empire, but its observance grew lax with the lapse of time. At the end of the 18th century the Shogunate made it milder and allowed foreign ships to come, on condition that

they had no enmity to the nation. Unfortunately, however, the repeated rough conduct of foreign sailors irritated the official mind and caused the reinforcement of the old law, the coastguards being given orders to bombard any foreign boat which came near the shore, to arrest any of the crew who landed, and kill them if necessary. At the same time, strict orders were given to Japanese boats not to have any intercourse with foreign vessels (1825).

National Doors Opened

An American ship, the "Morrison", coming to bring members of a Japanese shipwrecked crew back to their country, met with the bombardment, and went back to China in 1837.

In 1844, William II, King of Holland, sent a confidential letter with a special delegate to Japan, to warn that country to be careful not to follow the miserable example of China. Merchant vessels and warships of England and France many times came to the Loochoo Islands and the French made a forcible landing at Naha, the best port of the Loochoos, put missionaries ashore there and asked for the opening of friendly intercourse in 1844. The Shogunate complied with their request for trade, but drove the missionaries away in 1848.

Treaty of Amity with America In the sixth year of Kaei, 1853 Commodore Perry came to Uraga with a fleet of four warships. A friendly treaty was finally concluded between Japan and America in 1855.

Treaty with Russia Russia also sent Vice-Admiral Poutiatine to Nagasaki in 1853, and a treaty of commerce with Russia was concluded by which Shimoda, Hakodaté and Nagasaki were opened to her vessels, and agreements were made respecting the boundaries of Russia and Japan in the north.

At that time England and Russia were at war, and in 1854 an English warship came to Nagasaki for a supply of provisions. The Shogunate consented to open Nagasaki and Hakodaté for English vessels, and an agreement was reached between the two nations. Hakodaté and Shimoda were opened to Holland also and a treaty was concluded in 1855.

Conclusion of Commercial Treaties In 1856 the United States sent to Shimoda her Consul-General, Townsend Harris, who finally succeeded in coming up to Yédo and got an interview with the Shogun Iyésada in 1857. He earnestly requested the Government's consent to open trade relations, and asked that an American minister might be stationed in Yédo, assuring his hearers of American sincerity. The foreign trade allowed hitherto by the Shogunate was only through the mediation of the officials, and Harris insisted upon free and direct commerce between the merchants of the nations.

The Shogunate officials themselves, already aware of the inconveniences of the old system, complied with his requests, regularly concluded a friendly commercial treaty with the United States, and agreed to open New Kanagawa (the present Yokohama), Nagasaki, Niigata, and Hyogo (Kobé) in addition to Shimoda and Hakodaté. They allowed Americans to settle in those ports for trade, gave them freedom to come in to Yédo and Osaka, recognized their freedom of religious belief and extraterritorial jurisdiction, and regulated the rate of tariff in 1858. This was the so-called Ansei modus vivendi.

In the same year the treaty was sanctioned by the Shogunate, without the Imperial sanction. The Shogunate concluded similar treaties with Holland, Russia, England, and France in the same year; and with Prussia, Switzerland and Belgium a little later.

Opening of the Country The Government appointed a commissioner to administer foreign affairs in 1858, and the Shogun earnestly requested the Imperial sanction for the provisional treaties, and finally got it in 1865. The carrying into practice of all these treaties was realized with the opening of Hyogo (Kobé) port in 1867, the year of the accession of the Emperor Meiji. In the meantime, several international troubles occurred. Russia tried to invade Tsushima in 1861, Satsuma warriors fought against an English fleet off Kagoshima in 1863, and the Nagato clan had an engagement with the combined fleets of France, England, Holland, and America at Shimonoséki in 1864.

Downfall of the Shogunate

Court and Shogunate The Yédo Government adopted the policy of keeping the Imperial Court at a respectful distance, paying apparent homage to it, but actually presenting it only with 120,000 koku of rice, the pension of a middle-class lord.

Uprising of the Loyalists On the other hand, the smouldering fire of loyalty to the Imperial House was gradually fanned into a blaze by the increasing attention paid to the study of Confucianism and old Japanese literature. Confucian scholars taught that the first duty of the people was to be loyal to the King (Emperor) and not to the Conqueror (Shogun), while the students of old

Japanese literature explained the irrationality of the Shogunate régime in the country of which the sovereingty belonged solely to the Imperial House. Down to the middle of the Yédo Age, however, these teachings did no harm to the Shogunate for both the ruling class and the people took them as mere matters of academic interest without practical application. Mitsukuni Tokugawa, the lord of Mito was among the foremost in advocating the virtue of loyalty to the Imperial House, himself beginning the work of compiling a Japanese history to make this characteristic Japanese virtue clearly understood, and erecting a monument to the loyalist Masashigé Kusunoki at Minatogawa, Kobé. Such other scholars as Ansai Yamazaki, Keisai Asami, and Soko Yamaka, mostly praised the virtue of loyalty, though not necessarily to incite any anti-Shogunate sentiment. Their teachings, nevertheless, acted to stimulate Imperial loyalty in the hearts of the samurai and the people till the time came when it should burst into flame. The first instance of these sentiments being transformed into practical action was the movement of Takénouchi Shikibu who came from Niigata to Kyoto and went about among the Court nobles insisting upon the need of a loyalists' uprising. He was banished by the Shogunate in 1759. Daini Yamagata and Umon Fujii followed him, but both were soon put to death. However, the corruption and weakening of the Shogunate régime quickened the anti-Shogunate feeling in general towards the end of the 18th century. Especially the renaissance of Japanese literature and national character brought about by the teachings of the Japanese scholars, Norinaga Motoori and Atsutané Hirata greatly helped the cause of the loyalist movement. Hikokuro Takayama went around the provinces propagating the principle; Kumpei Gamo visited the tombs of the deceased Emperors and publicly bewailed their neglected state. Sanyo Rai wrote a Japanese history in which he praised the Imperial House and chastised the Shogunate with a keen and powerful pen.

The knocking at Japan's doors by foreign countries presented ample chances for the loyalists to take advantage of the confusion and misdoings of the Shogunate Government, and public opinion finally endorsed their movement at the beginning of the 19th century.

The Ansei Coup d'État When Komei, father of Meiji the Great, came to the Throne, he did not hesitate to give Imperial suggestions and command to the Shogunate, and the Imperial power was greatly strengthened. The party which was defeated in its hopes for choosing another man for the 14th Shogun schemed a reformation of the Shogunate from within. They united with other forces and asked for an Imperial edict to accomplished their plans. The Emperor issued an edict and reprimanded the Shogunate for their rudeness in concluding treaties without the Imperial permission. Whereupon the Shogunate sent a delegate to apologize for the steps they had taken, but at the same time the Tairo (premier) Naosuké Ii declared the coup d'état of Ansei, 1858, and punished and put into prison all who worked for the issuance of the Imperial edict. His purpose was to re-establish the governmental authority of the Shogunate. But Ii was assassinated at the Sakurada gate of the Shogun's palace in 1860.

The assassination of the Tairo gave what was to prove a final blow to the Shogunate though the Roju, Nobumasa Ando, schemed a combination or amalgamation of the Imperial Court and the Shogunate to save the latter from ruin. Some of the powerful lords in the west responded to the idea for a time, but public opinion was overwhelmingly against this amalgamation movement on the part of the pro-Shogun party, and the anti-Yédo movement increased still more in power. Most of the loyalists gathered in Kyoto and hotly discussed the matter. The ronin or unemployed samurai flocked to the cause in such great numbers that it was necessary for the armies of the lords of Satsuma, Tosa and Choshu to keep them in bounds in order to preserve the peace of the city.

On the other hand, the Emperor Komei sent a messenger to Yédo to urge the reformation of the Shogunate Government. The Shogun Iyeshigé tried to make improvements in the system of Sankin-kotai, etc., but it was too late to regain the support of the people. The Namamugi incident, in which three Englishmen were killed or injured by the lord of Shimazu's samurai and England demanding compensation, stirred the extreme anti-foreign party to fury and the Kyoto Court sent this time Sanétomi Sanjo to Yédo and ordered the Shogunate to wage war against all foreigners. In 1863 an Anti-Foreign Edict was issued by the Shogunate, and the armies of the Choshu and Satsuma lords attacked foreign merchant ships and warships. The fanatical Kyoto loyalists demanded that a nation-wide anti-foreign movement should be launch-

ed, and the Emperor was inclined to take command of the movement himself, but the more sagacious and saner-minded princes and lords advised him to realize the unwisdom of anti-foreign action, and the leaders of the radical element lost influence and fled to the west. For a while the schism among the loyalists persisted, but the object lesson of the bombardment of Shimonoseki by a combined foreign fleet weakened the anti-foreign movement to a great extent. By 1867, when the Emperor Meiji ascended the Throne, the anti-foreign movement had died away and the loyalists were solely concerned with the destruction of the Shogunate régime, recognizing the inability of the Shogunate to sustain the national honour in the crisis.

Prince Sanetomi Sanjo, one of the seven Count nobles who had fled to the west, joined Prince Tomomi Iwakura in leading the anti-Shogunate movement. The hostility between the two greatest of the western lords, Shimazu, lord of Satsuma province and Mori of Choshu or Nagato, was pacified by the arbitration of Prince Sanjo and they became strongly united in the common cause. Prince Iwakura, succeeding in making a definite plan for the destruction of the Shogunate, gathered many young and gifted samurai under these two lords, such as Takamori Saigo, Toshimichi Okubo of Satsuma and Takayoshi Kido of Nagato, and asked the Imperial sanction for the movement.

On October 14, 1867, the Emperor Meiji gave orders to the Satsuma and Choshu lords to open hostilities against the Yédo Government. On the side of the Shogunate, Toyonobu Yamanouchi, former lord of Tosa in Shikoku, was informed of this secret plan of the Imperial army, and being anxious to avert the impending civil war sent Shojiro Goto to present a memorial to the Shogun Yoshinobu (Keiki) Tokugawa, advising his surrender of the sovereign authority. Whereupon Yoshinobu, who was staying at Kyoto, immediately called an assembly of the representative samurai of the lords then staying in the city to the Nijo Castle on October 13, 1867, and asked their opinion on his determination to surrender. The assembly gladly agreed to his decision on the advice of Shojiro Goto and Tateaki Komatsu, a subject of the Satsuma lord. On October 14, Yoshinobu presented a written request for the Imperial permission, and on October 24 the resignation of the Shogun was formally tendered to the Throne. Thus the Yédo Shogunate ended with the 15th Shogun, after having continued for 265 years, and after a total period of 675 years the sovereign authority was restored to the Throne.

THE NEW JAPAN

Meiji Era
(1868–1912 A.D.)

The Meiji Restoration

In December of the same year, the Emperor Meiji issued an important order abolishing the old officialdom and forming a new Dajokan which should consist of the president, councillors and and vice-councillors, and proclaiming the direct rule of the Throne in every line of national government. The Imperial Prince Arisugawa was appointed President of the Dajokan, and those court nobles and feudal lords who had faithfully worked for the restoration were given the position of councillors, while some other men of ability from among the nobles and common samurai were made vice-councillors. The people were allowed to live in complete equality, discarding the old castes of nobles and common people. This change was called "Ishin" or the renovation of all things. In the following year, 1868, or the first year of Meiji, the Emperor by the advice of Takayoshi (Koin) Kido, a vice-councillor, called together the princes and high officials to the Shishinden or central palace and took the famous oath of five articles before the ancestral gods. These five articles of the Imperial oath provided the foundation to the new régime. They were as follows: "(1) We will call councils and rule the nation according to public opinion; (2) Men of upper and lower classes without distinction shall be united in all enterprises; (3) Civil officials and military officers shall be in one accord and all the common people shall be so treated that they can attain their aims and feel no discontent; (4) Old unworthy ways and customs shall be destroyed and the people shall walk along the highway of heaven and earth; and (5) Knowledge shall be sought among the nations of the world and the Empire shall be led up to the zenith of prosperity. To accomplish this unprecedented reformation, We go before the people, and proclaim the fundamental national principles, even in the pres-

ence of the gods of heaven and earth, to establish the way for the public welfare. Ye, Our subjects, shall be united all together, according to these principles." In August of the same year, the formal celebration of the Emperor's ascension to the Throne was held at the central palace, and in September the year-name Meiji was given.

Removal of the Capital The Emperor Meiji paid his first visit to Tokyo in the first year and made the castle of Yédo his permanent palace in the second year of the new era. The Government was subsequently removed to Tokyo.

The Organization In the first year of Meiji, 1868, a new Central Government was established in accordance with the five principles above mentioned. It was called Dajokan, or Great Government, and there were seven departments in it. The council played the part of the future parliament; the five departments of general political, religious, financial, military and foreign affairs were administrative; and the last, the penal department took charge of justice, and the mutual independence of the legislature, the executive and the judicature was for the first time established. In a few years several adjustments were made, but by the fourth year all the official machinery of the central government was systematically arranged.

Surrender of Fiefs The Imperial Court had confiscated all the territory belonging to the old Shogunate, and set up prefectural offices and appointed governors, but the feudal lords still owned their lands and their feudal subjects. In the first year of Meiji, Takayoshi (Koin) Kido submitted an opinion on the surrender of all feudal possessions to the Emperor to complete the purpose of the Restoration, through Sanétomi Sanjo and Tomomi Iwakura; and at the same time he advised Lord Mori, Daimyo of Nagato, to return his territory to the Court. The latter was quite willing to do so, thereupon Takayoshi Kido worked with Toshimitsu Okubo and succeeded in getting the consent of Lord (Daimyo) Shimazu of Satsuma, Lord Nabeshima of Hizen and Lord Yamanouchi of Tosa. These four lords tendered their petition for the territorial surrender in joint signature. Other lords followed them, and their petition was accepted in the second year. The lords gave up all their land and people, asking for nothing in return in a most admirable spirit of patriotism and loyalty. For the time being they were requested to continue as governors of their districts, and the feudal system was completely destroyed.

The country was divided into 8 urban prefectures, 26 prefectures and 262 clan districts. But the governors of clan districts, the former feudal lords, governed their people mostly in the old style, preserving the "chief-and-subject" relationship. The orders and ways of administration were greatly distorted and the authority of the Central Government was ineffective. Fortunately, however, Yoshii of Gumma and Sayama of Osaka soon resigned their governorships, realizing the defects of the system, and many others followed their lead. Kido again was quick enough to grasp the situation, and taking advantage of the general trend he endeavoured with his powerful friends Toshimichi Okubo and Takamori Saigo to do away with the clan governors and unify the whole nation under the same form of prefectural government. The Emperor called all the clan district governors to Tokyo in 1871, and kindly explained to them about the abolition of their office. They were given conveniences to live in Tokyo, and were replaced by the prefectural governors. Through many changes, the country was finally divided as at present into one "Do" or district, three urban prefectures and forty-three prefectures in 1889. (Foreign relations are dealt with in Chapter VI.)

Social Reforms

After the cessation of samurai government the social system could not remain unaltered. In 1869, when the resignation of the lords was accepted, the names "Kugé" (court noble) and "Daimyo" (feudal lord) were abolished and the nobles and lords were all made "Kazoku" (flowers of the nation) or peers. Clan samurai were given the class-name of Shizoku, and in the following year the common people were allowed to take their own family names, which they had not previously borne. In 1871, intermarriage was permitted between the peers and Heimin or common people, while the peers and "Shizoku" were allowed to engage in the ordinary business of agriculture, industry and commerce. Thus the social castes of the feudal age were entirely broken to pieces. Social institutions and customs changed also. With the official recognition of friendly intercourse with foreign people, international traffic and relations became busier and more intimate. Many a Japanese who went abroad brought back Western customs and introduced new institutions, and the people were quick to adopt them in their daily social

life. In the second year of Meiji telegraphic communication was opened between Tokyo and Yokohama; in the fourth year, the regular mail service between Tokyo, Kyoto and Osaka was begun; and in the fifth year, the first train ran between Tokyo and Yokohama. In the fourth year, men were ordered to cut off their topknots and walk on the streets without wearing swords. In the same year, laws regarding European costumes and uniforms of officials were issued, the old lunar calendar was discarded and the solar calendar was adopted in its place, and national holidays were newly appointed. In 1871, the Department of Education was added to the Government and, in 1872, the national educational system was established and it became compulsory for all children to be sent to public elementary schools. Buildings in European styles began to appear in the cities and people gradually acquired a taste for foreign food.

New Military System

After the appearance of the Samurai class in the middle age they held all the military power in their hands, and the people at large had nothing to do with it. But with the reforms following the Restoration, the military system was also revised and in the fifth year of Meiji the provisional Department of Military Affairs was changed into the two departments of Army and Marine, and in the following year the law of conscription was issued and, in accordance with the old-time ideas of the Japanese and on the pattern of most of the European powers the people were all ordered to share in universal military service for the protection of the country. The military system made singular progress through the many national crises of the Meiji Era.

Cultivation of Hokkaido

At the beginning of the Meiji Era the cultivation of the waste land of the north was proposed, and in the second year the Colonization Bureau was opened. The name Hokkaido, or north-sea-district, was given to the land, formerly known as Yezo. In the third year, Kiyotaka Kuroda was appointed vice-president of the Bureau and he made untiring efforts to civilize the natives, to construct roads, to promote industry and to encourage immigrants from the other islands. In 1875, he invited the Samurai class of the three northeastern prefectures of the Main Island to form a colonial militia to guard and cultivate the land at the same time. The farming and other population of Hokkaido has rapidly increased since. A troublesome question in the north was the boundary between Japan and Russia. The Shogunate had several diplomatic negotiations with the Russian admirals, and at the beginning of the Meiji Era this question again arose with the opening of the Colonization Bureau. Japan's wish was to divide the Island of Saghalien into two with the border line at 50° north latitude. Kuroda wished to abandon Saghalien and concentrate all efforts on the colonization of Hokkaido, and the Government sent Vice-Admiral Buyo Enomoto to Russia and tried to settle the question. In 1875 a compromise was reached and the whole of Saghalien was adjudged to belong to Russia and all the Kurile Islands were given to Japan. This so-called exchange of Saghalien and the Kuriles finally settled the long dispute over Japan's northern boundaries.

Civil Wars

The Cause The political and social reforms of the Meiji Restoration were so vast in scale and so rapid in progress that the mass of the people could hardly understand their need and meaning, being still prone to the old ways and systems. There were some who were offended by various policies of the Government. These people became a constant cause of political and social unrest, there were repeatedly assassinations of high officials; while in the country districts disturbances broke out one after another. Shimpei Yeto, caused some trouble in Saga prefecture; but he was soon subdued by the Imperial army. In Kumamoto, an adjacent prefecture to Saga, Otaguro and others formed a party called the Jimpuren or Divine-wind-party, and made an attack on the Kumamoto garrison in 1876, only to be defeated by the soldiers of the garrison. At Hagi, the north-western end of the Main Island, Maehara rose in accord with the Jimpuren party, but he was killed and his men dispersed.

The Saigo Rebellion Takamori Saigo could not realize his ideas about the Korean problem, and was deeply grieved at the failure. After his resignation he went back to his native place, Kagoshima, at the southern end of Kyushu Island. Over a hundred officers and soldiers who had been under him in the Tokyo Imperial Guard followed him to the city thus causing a great commotion in the country. His followers, such as ex-major-generals Kirino and Shinowara, elected Saigo to the leadership of their party and the head of their

private school. In 1877 Saigo, Kirino and Shinowara gathered an army of over 15,000 soldiers, proclaiming their intention of impeaching the Government for its social and political failures, and came up to Kumamoto and besieged the Kumamoto castle of the Imperial garrison. But the commander of the garrison, Major-General Tateki Tani, bravely fought against Saigo's army and did not surrender. The Emperor Meiji was then travelling in the districts near Kyoto and Osaka, and stopped in Kyoto to take command of the Imperial army. He appointed the Imperial Prince Arisugawa to be Commander-in-Chief, and Lieutenant-General Aritomo Yamagata and Vice-Admiral Sumiyoshi Kawamura to be the heads of the army and navy respectively. Saigo's troops were compelled to raise the siege under the pressure of the big Imperial armies, and they retreated in disorder back to Kagoshima, and made Shiroyama their final stronghold. Shiroyama was a promontory in the outskirts of the town and there the great Saigo killed himself with his colleagues in the face of the assailing Imperial soldiers. This rebellion was really the last of the civil wars accompanying the Restoration. After this South-Western Civil War, the wounded soldiers, loyalist and rebel alike, were cared for impartially at the Imperial army hospitals, and the Emperor Meiji, the Empress and the Empress-Dowager showed them special kindness. It may be mentioned that the Japan Red Cross Society was founded on this occasion.

Dawn of Constitutional Government

The Constitution In the first year of Meiji, government institutions were reformed in many ways, and representatives of prefectures were made members of the lower council. In the following year the public assembly was opened, and the prefectural representatives became its members. But this assembly consisted of members who were all chosen by the Government, and it gave rise to a demand for the establishment of an assembly of represetatives really elected by the people. In 1873 Kido, who had come back from his European tour of investigation, proposed the establishment of the national constitution; while in 1874, Soyejima, Goto, Itagaki and Yeto presented a petition for the establishment of parliament by popular election. The Government did not adopt either proposal as the time was not yet ripe, but in 1875 they established the Genro-in, a kind of Senate, as the chief seat of legislation, and the Supreme Court of Judicature for the administration of justice, and summoned district governors to Tokyo to learn of the requirements of the people. In 1876, the Emperor ordered the Genro-in to make plans for the formation of the Imperial Constitution and in 1879 prefectural assemblies were opened for deciding on district finances and representative government was first tried in the local districts.

Prefectural Elections The South-Western Civil War was ended and the foundation of the Central Government became unshakable. But in a few years Japan lost most of her able statesmen one after another. Saigo died in the battle just mentioned, Kido passed away from illness, and Okubo was assassinated in 1878. These were the three pillars of the Reformation, and Shigénobu Okuma, Hirobumi Ito and the like had to carry on their strenuous task. Public faith in these new statesmen was not yet assured, but they were young and progressive and endeavoured to absorb Western ways and civilization for the benefit of the rising generation. In April, 1878, the second local governors' conference was held and Ito was its chairman. The items for discussion were rules on prefectural assemblies, local taxes, and the organization of towns and villages. In July of the same year the rules on prefectural assemblies were issued, and according to the articles public election of representatives and local self-government were for the first time to be put into practice in the following year. This was a further step toward constitutional government. As a matter of fact, it might be considered a rehearsal of the formation of a national diet. The election was most sincerely carried out, because the people honoured the candidates as those who must in truth represent them not only in wisdom and political ideas but also in personality and social standing. The result was that the prefectural assemblies were composed of the best class of men in the districts. For instance, the chairman of the Tokyo prefectural assembly was Genichiro Fukuchi and the vice-president was Yukichi Fukuzawa, founder of Keio-Gijuku University, while the members were all men of honour. The famous members of the Imperial Diet and great statesmen of later days mostly came out of these primitive local assemblies.

Political Dissensions Political dissensions, which had appeared even under the turmoil of military struggles, came

to the fore, and hot discussions on both sides were carried on both in debates and through printed pamphlets. The one who attracted most public attention with his progressive opinions was Taisuké Itagaki of Tosa. In September, 1878, a meeting was held at Osaka under the leadership of Itagaki's society to pass a resolution calling for the realization of the national assembly. It was a meeting of Samurai-class people as yet. But their second meeting, in March, 1879, gathered together 80 members who represented 21 societies in 19 prefectures, and the third meeting in November made resolutions to send a petition to the Emperor, and drafted a letter with a long heading, "Letter of Appeal to the Public for demanding the establishment of the National Assembly," which was printed and distributed among the people.

Petition for Opening Diet In the city of Okayama, a little west of Kobé, hot-blooded young politicians composed a manifesto and distributed it, this moved their youthful contemporaries more strongly than the first had done. When the fourth meeting of the Patriots' Society was held at Osaka in April, 1880, 114 delegates from the 87,000 members of different societies met together, formed the "Volunteers' Association for Demanding the Opening of the National Assembly," and drafted a petition. It is said that over 50 such petitions were presented to the Government during the one year of 1880. In the midst of such movements a new scholar of French politics, Kimmochi Saionji, the last Genro or Elder Statesman came back from Paris and published the "Toyo Jiyu Shimbun" (Eastern Liberal News), and to the great surprise of the authorities, instructed the people in the principles of liberal politics. The acute state of affairs seemed to presage the early appearance of an Imperial Diet when the political events of 1881 occurred.

Imperial Edict Issued In that year the Government was going to sell to the Kansai Trade Society the land, buildings, ships, dock and hunting fields which belonged to the Colonization Bureau. The actual price was estimated at a little over ¥300,000, while the Government had invested and spent as much as ¥14,096-800 on them. There was a strong suspicion of favouritism for the Kagoshima merchants, for many of the high officials came from that district, and criticisms arose against the abuse. This public criticism was caught up by those who demanded liberty and they bitterly censured the official autocracy. The very evening of his return from a tour of the north-eastern districts on the 11th of October, the Emperor Meiji gathered together the members of the Cabinet and the councillors and a meeting was held in his presence at which it was resolved that the government sale should be stopped at once and that the Imperial Diet should be summoned in the twenty-third year of Meiji, (1890). These resolutions were published in the Imperial edict issued on the following day, October 12th, 1881. With the issuing of this edict the boisterous outbursts of discussion and debate among the people gradually died down and political parties began to be organized for carrying out their political principles in readiness for the opening of parliament ten years later. The principal ones were the Jiyu-to, Liberal party of Taisuké Itagaki and the Kaishin-to, or Progressive Party of Shigenobu Okuma.

Preparation of Constitution In 1882 the Government sent Hirobumi Ito to make thorough investigations regarding Western institutions, to find good models and suggestions for the Japanese parliament. Ito and his attendants mostly stayed in Germany and there studied Western politics and constitutions, and came back in the following year. In 1884 the Government established an Investigation Bureau in a part of the Imperial Palace and appointing Ito the president of the Bureau, ordered him to make a draft of the Constitution and plans for the new institutions. It was in this year that a law for the peers was enacted and the five ranks of nobility—prince, marquis, count, viscount and baron—were first defined. In 1885, at the instance of Prince Sanjo and to lay the foundation for true constitutional government, the officialism of the Central Government was reformed and a real cabinet of a modern nature was formed for the first time, the old positions of councillor and minister being abolished. It consisted of the Premier and Ministers for Home Affairs, Foreign Affairs, Finance, Army, Marine, Justice, Education, Agriculture and Commerce, and Communications. The function of these ministers was to take joint responsibility on national politics in place of the Emperor and help him in good government over his faithful subjects. In the Court there were the Naidaijin or Keeper of the Privy Seal and the Minister of the Imperial Household. The first Premier was Ito himself, who held the additional post of the Ministership of the Imperial Household. In 1888 the Privy Council was established, the most excellent and patriotic statesmen were ap-

pointed to its membership, and it was made the highest body for Imperial consultation on important political affairs. Ito also was the first President of the Privy Council. The draft of the Constitution was completed by this year and the Emperor put it before the Privy Council as the first item of discussion. The Emperor Meiji was present at all sessions on the Constitution, earnestly listening to the opinions of the different members, and playing a great part in framing and discussing the resolutions.

Promulgation of the Constitution On the 11th February, the 2,549th anniversary of the accession of Jimmu Tenno, 1889 in Western reckoning, the Emperor Meiji reverently reported the promulgation of the Constitution to the ancestral gods and appeared in person with the Empress before the Imperial Princes, Cabinet ministers, high officials, representative people, and foreign ministers, and solemnly issued the Imperial Constitution. (See Appendix.) He issued an accompanying law relating to the Imperial family which regulated future accessions, and relative positions of the Imperial Princes, that no trouble might ensue on the question of the successor to the Throne. Other laws which were to accompany the Constitution were on the election of the members of the lower house of parliament and the institution of it. They were issued in the same year, and in November, 1890, the first Imperial Diet was convened in Tokyo and the opening ceremony was held in the presence of the Emperor. Local self-government had been established and improvements made in the institutions of cities and towns for the past two years, and in this year another improvement in the prefectural and county institutions was made, confirming their self-government, although county government was abolished later.

Laws Since the downfall of feudalism and return of fiefs to the Emperor, enacted uniform laws for the proper control of the people became an acute necessity and the Government first took in hand the criminal laws and issued revised ones in the sixth year of Meiji. Other laws were revised or newly compiled according to the need of progressive society and with due regard to foreign relations. The code of civil procedure, the commercial law and the civil law were enforced by 1899. The criminal law was revised in 1908 and the code of civil procedure in 1924 according to the advanced ideals and needs of the times.

Revision of Treaties
(See Chapter VI)

Sino-Japanese War

In August, 1894 Japan declared war against China, the Emperor setting-up his headquarters at Hiroshima. Lieutenant-General Notsu routed the Chinese soldiers and drove them back from the boundaries of Korea in that month, and Vice-Admiral Yukyo Ito, Commander-in-Chief of the combined fleet, defeated the Chinese North-Sea fleet on the Yellow Sea. In October, Commander Aritomo Yamagata led his First Army through Chosen to Southern Manchuria and advanced victoriously to the west, while Commander Iwao Oyama, head of the Second Army, crossed the Yellow Sea and entered China direct, to act in conjunction with the Imperial fleet on the sea. Port Arthur was captured in November and Weihaiwei in February, 1895, and the Chinese naval power was annihilated. In March, the peninsula of Liaotung was seized by the Japanese armies and Peking was threatened by attack, while Southern China lay at the mercy of the Japanese fleet. The Emperor Meiji appointed Imperial Prince Akihito Arisugawa generalissimo over the whole army and navy to reduce China to submission. China yielded and asked for peace, appointing Li Hung-chang ambassador. Japanese ambassadors Premier Ito and Foreign Minister Mutsu met him at a peace conference at Shimonoseki. According to the peace treaty concluded in April, 1895, China recognized Korean independence, gave Japan the Liaotung Peninsula, Formosa and Boko Islands, paid about ¥300,000,000 to her, and opened four new ports for trade.

Return of Liaotung In alliance with Germany and France, Russia intervened and advised Japan to give back the territory to China, and the Peninsula was returned to China at the end of 1895 for an indemnity of about ¥45,000,000.

The newly acquired territory of Formosa was first governed by Governor-General Kabayama. In 1896, the whole island of Formosa was pacified and the new people began to understand the Japanese rule. In 1898 Gentaro Kodama became the Governor-General and encouraged industry and improved traffic so much that the island was really transformed into a valuable part of the Empire. After the Sino-Japanese War, the Japanese Government and people united their efforts in many enterprises. Military preparations were strengthen-

ed, schools improved in number and quality, industry and commerce throve, communications were also greatly improved, and the national power remarkably augmented. In 1897 Japan adopted the gold standard, on the foundation of the gold coin received from China as indemnity.

The Boxer Rebellion In the meanwhile, anti-foreign feeling began to spread among the Chinese people, and, in 1899, the so-called "Boxer Rebellion" suddenly broke out in Shantung. The rebels hoisted the banners of "protect China, exterminate foreigners", murdered many Christian missionaries, destroyed churches, and, in the following year, advanced to Tientsin and attacked the residences of Europeans there. Later they united with the Government soldiers controlled by the Empress-Dowager and coming up to Peking attacked the foreign legations, some Japanese and German delegates being killed. Japan headed the combined forces of the Powers which marched on the capital for the relief of the legations. The Chinese yielded, asked for peace, punished the leaders of the anti-foreign movement, and agreed to pay a 450,000,000 tael indemnity, and to send delegates to Japan and Germany to make apology.

Anglo-Japanese Alliance After the experience of the North China incident, England abandoned her historical policy of "splendid isolation" and allied with Japan in 1902 for mutual help in Far Eastern problems. According to the terms of alliance, Japan and England were to be united in maintaining Chinese and Korean territorial integrity and to help each other if any two other nations united to attack either one of the allies in the Far East.

Russo-Japanese War

Russia Reluctant to Go Under pressure of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance and the American Government, Russia promised China to return Manchuria, but was by no means ready to keep her promise and on the contrary, in 1903, she sent larger armies to Manchuria and was busy constructing permanent strongholds at Port Arthur, dispatched warships to the port, appointed Alexeiev Governor-General with his headquarters at Port Arthur, acted as the sovereign power in diplomatic, civil and military affairs in the Far East, and in August of the same year invaded the northern part of Korea. This unrestrained Russian advance menaced the territorial integrity of Korea, the existence of Japan, and the peace of the Far East, and Japan was compelled to take a firm stand against these designs, proposing a mutual understanding about the limitations of rights of both nations to avoid the impending danger of collision. But during the course of the negotiations, Russia continued to menace Japan, treating her with contempt and preserving her own aggressive attitude. The Japanese final proposal on the problems in Manchuria, of the 12th January, 1904, was left unanswered by Russia for two weeks, and the Imperial declaration of war against Russia was issued on Feb. 10th, 1904.

War on Sea The combined fleet of Admiral Togo immediately attacked the Russian warships off Port Arthur and Chinnampo and constantly pressed the Russian navy in Port Arthur. The warships in Vladivostok often came out into Japanese waters, harassed the communications of the Japanese army on the continent and hindered the transport of soldiers, but they were also destroyed in August by the second squadron under Rear-Admiral Kamimura.

War on Land On land, General Kuroki headed the First Army and marched into Manchuria through Korea in May; the Second Army, with General Oku in Command was landed on the Liaotung peninsula and devising a united stratagem with the Fourth Army, General Notsu, defeated the enemy in every place, and the three armies simultaneously advanced to Liaoyang. In June the Emperor ordered Generalissimo Oyama, Commander-in-Chief of all the armies, and General Kodama, Chief of the General Staff, to go to the front, and they spurred the whole army to victory over the Russian soldiers in the town. In October the Russian reinforced armies came down to retake the town, but the Japanese armies encountered them at Sha-ho and defeated them.

In the meantime the Third Army under General Nogi turned from Liaotung to the attack of Port Arthur. Nogi began the famous but awful siege warfare, and captured the so-called "203-metre hill" in December. In January, 1905, General Stoessel, head of the Russian garrison, surrendered to General Nogi and sued for peace.

After the unsuccessful Battle of Sha-ho the Commander-in-Chief of the Russian army, General Kuropatkin, gathered over 600,000 soldiers at Mukden and awaited his chance. In February, 1905, the Japanese Manchurian armies were reinforced by the Third Army from Port Arthur, and General Kawamura's Yalu River army, and rallying 400,000 soldiers they advanced towards Mukden

from three directions. After a fierce battle of 14 days the Japanese armies defeated the immense armies of the enemy, who returned to the north in a complete rout. This momentous event took place on the tenth of March, 1905.

The Baltic Fleet Before the downfall of Port Arthur and the defeat at Mukden, Russia had seen that the weakness of her naval power in Japanese waters delayed any possible victory over Japan. She therefore formed the Second and Third Pacific Squadrons out of her Baltic fleet and sent them to the Pacific under the leadership of Vice-Admiral Rozdhestvensky. The Russian squadron made a long voyage to the Far East and Togo was able to make full plans to meet them in the most convenient place for the Japanese fleet. Had the Russian warships safely entered the port of Vladivostok the defenceless shores of Japan would have been exposed to their bombardment while the Japanese Manchurian armies might have been starved to death, unable to get supplies from the home islands. Togo was right when he hoisted high on the main-mast of his flagship the signal, "The fate of Japan will be decided with this battle; every sailor is requested to exert his best for the country," at the moment the outlines of the Russian fleet came into sight. The 38 boats of the two Russian squadrons sailed straight in majestic lines for their destination across the East China Sea. Togo kept the utmost secrecy as to his hidding place and chose the narrow Tsushima Straits to encounter the Russian fleet. It took only a few hours from the evening of the 27th May to the following morning to sink most of the Russian warships or blow them to pieces, and Rozdhestvensky and his staff were taken captive. In July of the same year a part of the Japanese army was landed in Saghalien and subduing the Russian resistance quickly captured the whole island.

The Peace Mr. Roosevelt, President of the United States seeing the disastrous conditions, financial and otherwise, which threatened both countries after the battles at Mukden and the Japan Sea initiated peace-proposals between Japan and Russia, and was successful in pursuading the rival parties to open a peace conference in America. Japan sent Jutaro Komura and Kogoro Takahira as her ambassadors extraordinary and plenipotentiary to Portsmouth to meet with the Russian ambassadors Witte and Rosen. The peace treaty was concluded in September, 1905. Russia recognized the supreme rights of Japan over Korea, surrendered the southern half of Saghalien to Japan, and handed over the special rights of lease which she possessed in Kwantung, the railroad south of Changchun and the mining of coal along it.

After the Russo-Japanese War

Post-war Readjustment The Russo-Japanese war raised Japan's position in world politics, putting her almost on the same level as the European Powers, especially in regard to Oriental affairs. The international relations of Japan with the Western Powers became so intimate and important that all of them exchanged ambassadors with Japan in place of the former ministers. In home affairs Japan made special efforts in the education of the people to keep abreast with the times. Industry in all lines leaped forward under the leadership of able business men. The state-ownership of railroads was realized to improve the traffic of the islands. The patriotic contributions of the business men and merchants after the war must not be overlooked. In 1906 Port Arthur was made a naval station for the defence of the Kwantung littoral, and the South Manchuria Railway Company was established to manage the railroad and mining business which had been handed over by Russia. Dairen and a part of Port Arthur were opened for international trade. In 1907 the Saghalien national boundary was fixed at 50° north latitude, and the Government opened an office there and encouraged the emigration of Japanese to the island.

Relation with Korea
(See Chapter VI.)

Treaties with Powers
(See Chapter VI.)

Demise of the Emperor Meiji In July, 1912, the Emperor Meiji passed away after only a few weeks of illness in his Tokyo Palace. His demise caused such profound grief among the people that an English correspondent was said to have telegraphed home "Japan is going into a decline!" with the death of the great Emperor. He died beloved of all, a love which was attested by the splendid Meiji Shrine which was built in his honour, and which draws more worshippers than any other shrine. The Emperor Yoshihito (the late Emperor Taisho) came to the Throne immediately after his father's death, according to the provisions in the Imperial code on the succession.

Blending of East and West Immediately after the Restoration the Government had been eager to invite and introduce all things Western, and the

people had responded to the policy with alacrity. There followed, as a matter of fact, an age of Europeanization. It was during those days that so many Japanese treasures of Buddhism and fine arts went out of the country for very meagre amounts of money, and many beautiful old customs and precedents were carelessly dropped. But then came the victories over China and Russia to give confidence and conviction to the Japanese and turn them from a mere imitation of the West to the recognition of their own special abilities and valuable inheritances. Cries for the preservation of national characteristics were raised and the blending of the Occidental and Oriental civilizations, the creation of a new Meiji civilization, was started and the nation began to make a steady and healthy advance in all phases of national life.

Taisho Era
(1912–1926)

The World War

Japan's Contribution In August, 1914, the World War broke out and Japan was compelled according to the terms of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance to take necessary steps to combat German activities in the Orient. She requested Germany to withdraw her war vessels from Japanese and Chinese waters, and to return Shantung by a fixed date to China. Needless to say, Germany did not comply, and Japan declared war in the same month.

Tsingtao Falls Japan lost no time in dispatching her army and navy to Tsingtao. The Second Squadron commanded by Vice-Admiral Sadakichi Kato blockaded the gulf while the First Squadron of Vice-Admiral Tomosaburo Kato kept watch over the Yellow Sea and other China north-eastern seas. The 18th Divisional Commander Kanwo attacked the fortress from behind, in conjunction with the navy. Some British troops also took part and they all besieged the fortress in October, 1914. The attack was so aggressive that in but ten days all the batteries were captured and in November the German Governor Waldeck and his staff surrendered the port and fortress. In deeper waters, the Japanese Third Squadron commanded by Rear-Admiral Tsuchiya kept watch over not only the China seas but also went as far as Philippine waters. A detachment of the First Squadron was sent to the South Seas and acting in concert with the British navy tried to destroy the German Asiatic fleet. The Marshall Islands were occupied in September, and the Mariana and Caroline Islands in October, and possession was taken of all German naval stations in the South Seas. British vessels met the German fleet in the Indian Ocean, and off the coast of South Africa, and destroyed it in December, 1914. Germany's strength in the Orient was thus completely wiped out.

Japan helped Russia also, chiefly by enabling her to attend to the War without any anxiety about Eastern affairs, and by supplying her with as much ammunition as she could. Russia was grateful for this friendly attitude of Japan and the relations between the two nations becoming more intimate a new treaty was concluded in 1916 to cooperate for the maintenace of perpetual peace in the Far East, and to negotiate freely with each other for the protection and defence of the special rights and territorial domination already recognized, instead of competing. With the progress of the World War, Japan dispatched a special-service fleet as far as the Mediterranean. The special-service fleet tried its best to protect trade and communications in that part by bravely and effectively attacking German submarines in co-operation with the Allied fleets and in harmony with the orders of the British Mediterranean Fleet Commander. In 1917 the Russian Revolution broke out in the midst of the War. The Romanoff dynasty was overthrown and the radical revolutionaries came into power and concluded a separate peace with Germany. This resulted in the permeation of the military influence of Germany and Austria into Russia and even to the Far East. A large body of Czechoslovak troops who had escaped into Russia, and were trying to make their way home to Europe by way of Siberia, suffered greatly in consequence. Japan kept a keen watch on these Russian disorders. In 1918 she sent ships to Vladivostok for the protection of the Japanese residents and to maintain order in that district for international benefit, in co-operation with the warships of other nations. And later, in agreement with America, Japan dispatched an army under General Otani to Vladivostok and helped the Czechoslovak army, in conjunction with the soldiers of other nations.

Japanese Massacred In March 1920 the Japanese garrison and citizens, about 700 in all, were massacred by Russian communists at Nikolaievsk. This caused intense indignation in Japan. She sent armies to Siberia immediately and occupied a part of the coast district and the remainder of Saghalien. Ne-

gotiations were opened again between the two nations and in 1925 a new Russo-Japanese treaty was concluded. According to its terms Japan withdrew her soldiers from North Saghalien while Russia gave Japan the mining rights and freedom of cultivating under licence the oil-fields in that district (See Chapter VI on Foreign Relations.)

The Kanto Earthquake On Sept. 1st, 1923, Japan underwent the sad experience of the Kanto earthquake, in which tens of thousands of houses were destroyed or damaged in Tokyo, Kanagawa, Shizuoka, Saitama and Chiba prefectures, and a hundred thousand people were killed or injured, with an estimated loss of several thousand million yen. (See Chapter I.) The great fires caused by the earthquake in Tokyo and Yokohama caused far more deaths than those which were directly attributable to the shocks. But, undaunted by the terrible disaster, the people not only of the metropolis but of all Japan stood up in a splendid spirit of determination to reconstruct all her damaged cities and towns by the help of the sympathetic nations of America and Europe. The wonderful improvement in the streets and buildings of the new cities materially exhibited the strength of Japan's national power, so that the great earthquake rather quickened than retarded the splendid advance of Japan as a whole.

Demise of the Emperor Taisho In December, 1926, the Emperor Taisho passed away at the Hayama Winter Palace and the Regent, Crown Prince Hirohito, succeeded him as Ruler, the year-name of Showa, or Enlightened Peace, being given to his era. Under his rule Japan is continuing her painstaking efforts to keep pace with world progress and cope with complicated international relations.

The birth of Manchoukuo in 1932 and the trade and industrial expansion in recent years have greatly strengthened Japan's position in the Orient.

Chronicle of Important Events

Age of Traditions
(660 B.C.–531 A.D.)

1. Beginning of the Empire
   - 660 B.C.—The Emperor Jimmu ascended the Throne at the Kashiwara Palace, Unebiyama, Yamato province, near the present Nara.
2. Subjugation of Clans and Tribes.
   - 88 B.C. Neighbouring clans subdued by the armies of the Imperial Princes.
   - 11 A.D. The Great Shrine of Isé built by the Emperor Suinin in honour of Amaterasu-Omikami.
   - 97-110 Clans and tribes in Kyushu and the eastern half of the Main Island subdued by the armies of the Emperor Keiko and Prince Yamatotakeru his son.
   - 135 The Emperor Seimu divided his dominion into administrative districts.
3. Intercourse with Korea
   - 200 The Empress Jingo conquered Silla.
   - 285 Confucianism introduced.
   - 313 The Emperor Nintoku established the capital at Naniwa (Osaka) for the convenience of intercourse with Korea.
   - 463-512 Troubles with Korea.

Age of Foundation
(532-709)

4. Introduction of Continental civilization.
   - 552 Buddhism introduced.
   - 562 Japanese Office in Mimana is destroyed by Silla.
   - 593 Imperial Prince Shotoku became Regent, and propagated Buddhism, building Horyuji and other temples.
   - 604 The Regent Shotoku proclaimed the Constitution.
   - 607 An Embassy sent to Sui.
   - 630 An Embassy sent to Tang.
   - 645 The Sogas punished and extirpated.
   - 592-645 The Asuka or Empress Suiko's Period of Art history.
5. The Taika (Taikwa) Reformation and After.
   - 645 The custom of 'year-names' introduced, the first one being called Taika (great reformation).
   - 646 The Taika Reformation.
   - 660 Yezo (Hokkaido) subjugated by the army of Hirafu Abé.
   - 663 Control over the Korean Peninsula abandoned.
   - 701 The Taiho Law promulgated and the organization of the Imperial Government is fixed.

646-707 The Hakuho Period of Art history.

Nara Age
(710-793)

6. Establishment of the Capital at Nara and Compilation of a History of Japan.
   - 710 The Empress Gemmyo founded Nara as her capital.
   - 620-720 The first books of Japanese history, Nihon Shoki (Japanese Annals) and Kojiki (Antiquities) compiled.
7. Spread of Buddhism and Progress of Religious Fine Art.
   - 747 Building of Todaiji temple and other provincial temples.
   - 756 The Empress Komyo donated the treasures of the late Emperor Shomu to Todaiji temple. They are kept in the Shosoin Museum, built a little later.
   - 769 Dictatorship of Dokyo, Buddhist pope, opposed by the great loyalist Kiyomaro Waké.
   - 710-781 The Tempyo Period of Art history.

Heian Age
(794-1191)

8. Founding of Heian (Kyoto) the Capital, and troubles in the north.
   - 794 The Emperor Kammu founded the new capital Heian and the Government removed there from Nara.
   - 801 Revolts broke out in Yezo, finally subdued by the expedition of Tamuramaro Sakanoue.
   - 794-800 Establishment of governmental and private schools.
   - 794-887 The Konin period of Art history.
9. Rising of the Fujiwaras.
   - 858 Yoshifusa Fujiwara assumed the Regency.
   - 887 Mototsune Fujiwara the Daijo Daijin and Regent became Kampaku (Chief Councillor) at the same time.
   - 901 Michizane Sugawara, candidate for Kampaku reduced to the position of governor of Kyushu by the Fujiwara scandal.
10. Foreign Relations.
   - 894 Official intercourse with Tang broken off by the advice of Michizane Sugawara.
   - 727-900 Bokkai, a maritime monarchy in Manchuria, traded with Japan.
11. Disorder in Rural Districts and Rise of the Samurai.
   - 939 Masakado Taira rebelled and proclaimed himself Emperor.
   - 941 Sumitomo Fujiwara disturbed the coasts of the Inland Sea but is suppressed.
   - 950 The Samurai families of Minamoto (Genji) and Taira (Heishi or Heike) gradually rose to power.
12. Fujiwara Despotism.
   - 1016 Michizane Fujiwara assumed the Regency for the next 20 years and his son Yorimichi for 50 years. Climax of the Fujiwara despotism and prosperity.
13. Incessant Wars.
   - 1019 Toi tribe in the north-eastern part of Korea invaded the islands of Iki and Tsushima.
   - 1028 Tadatsune Taira's treason in Shimoosa province.
   - 1039 Armies of Buddhist monks rose in revolt.
   - 1054-1062 The Abes in the Ohu district declared independence.
   - 1086 The ex-Emperor Shirakawa took part in politics for nearly 40 years and set a precedent for government by ex-Emperors.
   - 1085-1087 The Ohu district again disturbed by the Kiyowaras.
   - 1087 For about a century the family of Kiyohira Fujiwara who subdued the Kiyowaras ruled over the Ohu district.
   - 1156 Strife between the armies of the Emperor and the ex-Emperor (Hogen war).
   - 1159 The Fujiwaras and Minamotos waged war against another branch of the Fujiwaras and the Tairas (Heiji war).
14. The Gen-pei (Minamoto and Taira) Period.
   - 1167 Kiyomori Taira promoted to Daijo Daijin.
   - 1167-1180 Autocracy of Kiyomori and his family.
   - 1180 Rise of the Minamotos in rivalry to the Tairas. Yoritomo Minamoto established headquarters at Kamakura.
   - 1185 The Tairas destroyed by the armies of Yoshitsune, brother of Yoritomo.
   - 1185 Yoritomo appointed local military police and tax-gatherers for rural districts.

889-1185 The Fujiwara Period of Art history.

Kamakura Age
(1192-1337)

15. Beginning of the Kamakura Shogunate Regime.
    - 1192 Yoritomo Minamoto promoted to Seii-Tai-Shogun (Generalissimo) and the Shogun Government formally sanctioned. For the next 675 years Japan ruled by the 'samurai statesmen'.
    - 1204 Tokimasa Hojo became chief executive of the Shogunate regime.
    - 1219 Minamoto Shogunate ended with the third Shogun, Sanetomo. But Masako, widow of Yoritomo, (called the 'Ama' or Nun Shogun) officiated as Shogun for several years.
    - 1221 Trouble between the Kyoto Court and the Hojos (Shokyu affair).
16. Hojo Rule.
    - 1224 Yasutoki Hojo became chief executive of the Kamakura Shogunate.
      The Hojos continued to exercise the Shogun's duties for over a century.
    - 1232 The Joyei Code promulgated for the discipline of the samurai.
    - 1274 Yuan invasion.
    - 1281 Second Yuan invasion and defeat by the armies of Tokimune Hojo, the chief executive.
    - 1324 An attempt for the restoration of the Imperial Rule.
    - 1331 War between the Imperial and the Hojo armies.
    - 1333 The Hojos destroyed.
17. The Emperor Godaigo and Takauji Ashikaga.
    - 1333 Temporary restoration of the Imperial direct rule by the Emperor Godaigo.
    - 1335 Takauji Ashikaga rebelled against the Emperor.
    - 1336 Masashige Kusunoki, famous loyalist, died in the battle of Minatogawa (Kobe).
    - 1336 The Emperor Godaigo moved to Yoshino mountain.
    - 1336 The Imperial House divided into two, the South and the North (Yoshino and Kyoto) for 57 years.
    - 1192-1337 The Kamakura period of Art history.

Muromachi Age
(1338-1602)

18. Beginning of the Muromachi Shogunate and the luxurious age of Yoshimitsu.
    - 1338 Takauji Ashikaga proclaimed himself Shogun and established the Muromachi Shogunate in Kyoto.
    - 1342 Takauji sent the Tenryuji-buné (trade boats) to China.
    - 1368 Yoshimitsu Ashikaga publicly appointed Shogun and the Muromachi Shogunate officially sanctioned.
    - 1399 The Oei Rebellion.
    - 1401 Yoshimitsu traded with Ming: indulged in luxurious living.
19. Corruption of the Muromachi Shogunate and Political Commotion.
    - 1438 The Yeikyo Rebellion. Rising of military lords in Kanto district.
    - 1441 The Kaki Rebellion.
    - 1467-1475 The Ohnin war: Kyoto reduced to ashes in the street fighting. The Court and the Shogunate both lost power and the whole country became a scene of warfare among the military lords.
20. A Century of Civil Wars Among the Feudal Lords.
    - 1491 Soun Hojo captured Odawara Castle and ruled over the Kanto district.
    - 1476-1573 Feudal lords struggled for supremacy, the greater lords being as follows: Kanto district; Hojo, Uesugi. Ohu district; Date, Ashina, Mogami, Tamba, Akita. Central district; Uesugi, Takeda, Imagawa. Kinki (Kyoto-Osaka) district; Saito, Asai, Asakura, Oda, Matsudaira. Chugoku (Western Main Island) district; Ukida, Amako, Ohuchi, Mori. Shikoku Island; Miyoshi, Kono, Chosokabe. Kyushu Island; Otomo, Ryuzoji, Shimazu.
    - 1543 Coming of the Portuguese.
    - 1543 Introduction of fire-arms.
    - 1549 Christianity introduced.
    - 1337-1573 The Muromachi Period of Art history.
21. The Oda and Toyotomi Period.
    - 1568 Nobunaga Oda came up to Kyoto by Imperial order and repaired the Palace.
    - 1571 Nobunaga destroyed Enryakuji

temple to suppress the power of the monks.
1573 Downfall of the Muromachi Shogunate.
1576 Building of the Azuchi castle.
1582 Nobunaga assassinated.
1582 Hideyoshi Toyotomi's supremacy.
1588 Hideyoshi promoted to be Kampaku and Daijo Daijin.
1590 Unity of the Empire realized by Hideyoshi, all the lords completely subdued.
1592 Invasion of Korea by armies of Toyotomi.
1597 Second invasion of Korea.
1598 Hideyoshi Toyotomi died at Fushimi castle (Momoyama Palace).
1574-1598 The Momoyama period of Art history.

Yedo Age
(1602-1867)

22. Beginning of the Tokugawa Shogunate.
1600 Battle of Sekigahara assured the supremacy of Iyeyasu Tokugawa (1542-1616).
1603 Iyeyasu appointed Shogun and founded the Yedo Shogunate.
1609 Began trade with Hollanders.
1609 The Loochoo Islands subjugated by Lord Shimazu.
1610 Sending of official letters to Nova-Hispania and Spain.
1612 Iyeyasu prohibited the preaching of the Catholic Faith.
1613 The lord Masamune Daté sent Hasekura to Rome.
1613 Opened trade with the English.
1615 The Toyotomis destroyed at the Battle of Osaka.
23. Stabilization of the Yedo Shogunate.
1615 Proclamation of the Kuge Hatto (Court Nobles Law) and the Buke Hatto (Samurai Law).
1616 Death of Iyeyasu.
1623 Iyemitsu (1604-1651) became the third Tokugawa Shogun. Under his enlightened rule the position of the Yedo Shogunate became unshakable.
1630 Introduction of Western literature prohibited.
1636 Japanese forbidden to go abroad.
1637-1638 The Shimabara Rebellion.
1651 Death of Iyemitsu and attempted rebellion by Yuino Shosetsu and his colleagues.
24. The Golden Age of the Yedo Shogunate.
1657 Mitsukuni Tokugawa, lord of Mito began the compilation of the Dai Nippon Shi (Great Nippon History).
1687 The Shogun Tsunayoshi's Edicts for the protection of animals caused much loss of human life.
1688-1708 The Genroku Era of luxurious living.
1702 Revenge of the '47 Akao Ronin'
1709 Hakuseki (Kunmi) Arai's Reformation.
1716 The 8th Shogun Yoshimune regulated officialdom and improved the administration, reigned for 30 years.
1720 Yoshimune loosened the Prohibition Law against Western books.
1759 Punishment of Takenouchi Shikibu, a loyalist.
1764 Norinaga Motoori commenced his commentary on the Kojiki (Antiquities).
1772-1784 Misrule of the Roju Okitsugu Tanuma.
Succession of natural calamities.
1787 Adjustment of the administration by the Roju Sadanobu Matsudaira (Rakuo).
25. Waning of the Shogun Regime.
1792 Punishment of Shihei Rin (Hayashi) who warned the Government of possible invasion by foreign Powers.
1792 Coming of Laxsman to Hokkaido.
1804 Coming of Lesanov to Nagasaki.
1808 Coming of an English boat to Nagasaki.
1825 Shogunate order to shut out all foreign ships by force.
1830 Great famine of the Tempo Era.
1837 Rebellion of Heihachiro Oshio to relieve the starving masses.
1837 Coming of the American ship Morrison.
1841 The Roju Tadakuni Mizuno's attempt at reformation.
1842 The 1825 order removed. A step towards the 'open door' policy.
1842 Controversies between the anti-foreign party and the liberalists became hotter.
1844 King of Holland gave advice to the Shogunate.
1846 First request of America for the 'open door.'
1853 Arrival of the American fleet under Commodore Perry.
1853 Coming of the Russian delegate

Poutiatine to Nagasaki.

1854 Institution of the Sun Flag to symbolize Japan. (Sanctioned by the Meiji Government in 1870.)

1854 Conclusion of Amity Treaties with America, England and Russia.

1855 Conclusion of Amity Treaty with Holland.

1856 Arrival of the American envoy Townsend Harris.

1858 Conclusion of Commercial Treaties with Foreign nations by the Shogunate.

1858 The Ansei coup d'état by the Tairo Naosuke Ii.

1860 The Japanese envoy Masaoki Niimi sent to America.

1860 The Tairo Ii assassinated at the Sakurada gate of the Shogun Palace.

26. Downfall of the Yedo Shogunate.

1862 Rise of the Anti-Shogunate movement.

1862 The Namamugi Affair.

1863 The Anti-Foreign Law, and attack on foreign ships at Shimonoseki and Kagoshima.

1863 Defeat of the Anti-Foreign party ; the seven Court nobles flee to Nagato.

1864 The Anti-Foreign party demanded the release of the seven Court nobles by force ; battle at the Hamaguri gate of the Kyoto Imperial Palace.

1864 A combined fleet of America, England, France and the Netherlands bombarded Shimonoseki.

1865 Imperial Sanction given to the treaties of 1858.

1865-1867 Hostilities between the Shogunate forces and the army of the Choshu (Nagato) Lord who represented the Anti-Shogunate and Anti-Foreign Party.

1866 Demise of the Emperor Komei.

1867 Ascension of the Meiji Tenno (1852-1912), the 122nd Emperor.

1867 The Emperor ordered armies opposed to the Nagato Lord to withdraw.

1867 Rapid progress of Anti-Shogunate movement and a definite scheme promoted by Sanjo, Iwakura, Saigo, Okubo and Kido.

1867 The Emperor gave orders to the lords of Nagato and Satsuma to move their armies against the Yedo Shogunate in compliance with the request of Sanjo, Iwakura and their colleagues, October 14.

1867 On the same day (October 14) the Shogun Yoshinobu Tokugawa asked Imperial sanction for the return of all authority of the Government to the Throne. On October 24 the Emperor complied with his request and accepted Yoshinobu's resignation.

1867 Proclamation of the Restoration, December 9.

1868 The rise of the lords and warriors loyal to the Shogunate. Battle of Toba-Fushimi. March of the Imperial armies to Yedo. Surrender of the Yedo Castle without bloodshed. Batties at Ueno, Utsunomiya and Aizu.

1869 Battle at Hakodate, May, after which all disturbances in the wake of the political change completely subdued.

1602-1867 The Yedo period of Art history.

The New Japan

(1868–)

27. The Meiji Era.

1868 Enthronement of the Emperor Meiji.

1868 The first year of Meiji, beginning with September.
Proclamation of the Five Imperial Pledges.
Establishment of the Dajokan.

1869 Removal of the Capital to Tokyo.
Surrender of fiefs by the lords.
New organization of the Government.
Telegraphic communications opened.

1870 Ministers sent to foreign countries.
Social castes done away with.

1871 Japan is divided into 1 "Do," 3 urban prefectures and 72 prefectures for administrative purposes. (The number being reduced in 1889 to the present 1 Do, 3 urban prefectures and 43 prefectures.)
The people allowed to cut off their cues and the samurai forbidden to wear swords.

1872 Institution fo the national school system.
The Loochoo Islands definitely

included within Japanese territory.
Opening of railway line between Tokyo and Yokohama.

1873 Adoption of the solar calendar.
Institution of the Conscription system of military service.
Controversy over Korean affairs.

1874 Expedition to Formosa.
Request for opening the House of Representatives.
The Saga Affair.

1875 Karafuto exchanged for the Kuriles.
First Convention of the local governors.

1876 Kumamoto incident, a reactionary movement by the Jimpuren band of Kumamoto Samurai.
Similar events occured at Akitsuki and Hagi.

1877 The South-Western Civil War, the rebellion of Takamori Saigo and his colleagues.

1879–1890 Rapid influx of things and ideas from Europe, called Rokumei-kan period.

1879 First opening of local assemblies.

1880 Promulgation of new penal code.

1881 Imperial Edict promising the opening of the national assembly.

1882 Hirobumi Ito sent to Europe for the study of Western constitutional governments.

1884 Drafting of the constitution started.

1885 Institution of the cabinet.
The Tientsin Treaty.

1886 Japan became a member of the International Red Cross Association.

1888 Institution of city, town and village divisions.

1889 Proclamation of the Dai Nippon Teikoku Kempo (The Constitution of the Great Empire of Japan), Feb. 11.

1890 The First Imperial Diet convened in November.
Issuance of the Imperial Rescript on Education.
Institution of the system of courts of justice and promulgation of court procedures.

1894 New Anglo-Japanese Treaty.

1894–1895 Sino-Japanese War.

1895 Shimonoseki Peace Treaty, April.
The Three Powers' Intervention and return of the Liaotung Peninsula to China.
Formosa ceded to Japan.

1898 Promulgation of the Civil Law.

1899 Promulgation of the Commercial Law.
Boxer Uprising in China.

1902 Anglo-Japanese Alliance.

1904–1905 Russo-Japanese War.

1905 Capture of Port Arthur, January 1.
Battle of Mukden, March 10.
Battle of the Japan Sea, May 27.
Portsmouth Peace Treaty, September.
Korea became Japan's protectorate, November.

1906 Establishment of the Kwantung Government-General.

1907 Opening of the Karafuto Office.
Promulgation of the Revised Penal Code.

1910 Annexation of Korea, August.

1911 Revision of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance.
Revision of Treaties with Western countries on equal footing.

1912 Demise of the Emperor Meiji, July 30.

28. The Taisho Era.

1912 Ascension of the Emperor Taisho, July 30.

1914–1918 The World War.

1914 Capture of Tsingtao, November.

1915 New Treaty with China. So-called '21 Demands'.

1917 Gold embargo.

1918 End of the World War, November.

1919 Conclusion of the Versailles Treaty.
The South Sea Islands mandated to Japan.
Japan became a member of the League of Nations.

1921 Crown Prince's tour to Europe.
Crown Prince became Regent.

1921–1922 The Washington Conference.
Termination of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance.

1923 Great Earthquake of Kanto district, September 1.

1925 Conclusion of Treaty with the U. S. S. R.
Promulgation of the new Election Law (Universal Suffrage).

1926 Demise of the Emperor Taisho, December 25.

29. The Showa Era.

1926 Ascension of the present Emperor, December 25.

1927 Financial Panic.

1930 Removal of gold embargo.
The London Disarmament Conference.

1931 Outbreak of the 'Manchurian Incident,' September 18.
Replacement of gold embargo.

1932 The Shanghai Affair.
Independence of Manchoukuo, March 1.
The 'May 15 Affair' (assassination of Premier Inukai).

1933 Withdrawal from the League of Nations, March.
The World Economic Conference at London.

1934 Manchoukuo became an Empire with Kangte (Mr. Pu Yi) as first Emperor, March 1.
Japanese Government notified the U. S. Government their intention to terminate the Washington Naval Treaty, December 29.

1936 Japan withdrew from the London Naval Conference, January 15.
The 'February 26 Affair' (assassination of three political dignitaries, M. Saito, K. Takahashi, and General J. Watanabe).

CHAPTER IV

GOVERNMENT

The Constitution

The fundamental source of all laws and ordinances, and of the administrative system is the Constitution of the Japanese Empire. This document, however, contains simply an outline of the principles involved, and there are many constitutional laws, written and unwritten, which condition the functioning of state organs. There are four fundamental sources of the laws of Japan; (1) the Constitution, (2) the Imperial House Law, (3) certain laws containing constitutional provisions, and (4) the unwritten constitution.

The Constitution of the Japanese Empire was promulgated on Feb. 11, 1889, and is composed of 7 chapters and 76 articles (given in full in Appendix). It was accompanied by an Imperial Declaration, the essence of which has the same legal force as the articles of the Constitution. In the declaration, the Emperor Meiji made four points clear: that the purpose of the establishment of the Constitution is to promote the welfare of his subjects and sustain the progress of the nation; secondly, that the monarchy of Japan is unchanged in form and identical with what it has always been, in the principles of the harmonious rule of sovereign and subjects and of constitutional and responsible government; thirdly, the proper means for revision of the Constitution, and that it limits not only the lawful actions of the subjects, but also the powers of the sovereign; and fourthly, the date of its coming into effect, that of the opening of the first session of the Imperial Diet or November 25, 1890.

The Highest Expression of State Will The Constitution was given by order of the Emperor and is the highest expression of the will of the State. All laws must conform to it, while the functions of the highest political organs of the nation are stated in it. But there is no means specified for prevention or correction of a breach of the Constitution by those organs, whether they be constitutionally established or not, except in so far as the interpretative power of the Privy Council, (See section on Privy Council), can be said to constitute such a check. Otherwise, this can only be provided for by the reciprocal restraint exercised by the Executive and the Legislature, the power of public opinion, or other means which are not specified by law. It must be remembered that not all the parts of the Constitution are new creations. Most of them are rather the expression of old laws in a new written form; many of the important political customs had already been incorporated in legal enactments before the Constitution came into being.

The Constitution does not include the whole of the law of the Constitution nor all the constitutional laws. It is one of the simplest constitutions in the world. For instance, such laws as the Imperial House Law or the laws concerning the composition of the Imperial Diet are not included in the Constitution, the reason being that, whereas the revision of these laws in accordance with changes in public thought may be necessary, it is undesirable that the Constitution itself should be revised easily and often. Revision of the Constitution must be initiated by the Tenno (Emperor), and the Imperial Diet has the power of deciding only on such revisions as are indicated by the Throne. No revisions have been made or constitutionally suggested since its establishment.

Other Constitutional Provisions The Imperial Household Law (See Appendix) mainly regulates matters concerning the Imperial Household and Family, but there are many constitutional provisions contained in it. Of special importance are the articles concerning the succession to the Throne and Regency, which determine the form of the highest organ of the State and are therefore clearly of equal importance to the Constitution itself.

Other legal enactments containing constitutional provisions are the following: The Law of the Houses, the Imperial Ordinance concerning the House of Peers, the Imperial Ordinance concerning the Election of Members of the House of Peers, the Imperial Ordinance concerning the Cabinet, the Penal Law concerning the infringement of Ordinances, the Judicial Court Formation

Law, the Court of Administrative Litigation Law, and the Board of Audit Law, which were enacted simultaneously with the Constitution; the Imperial Ordinances concerning the Privy Council and the Military Establishments, which were enacted before the promulgation of the Constitution; the Electoral Law and the common law for the formation of departments of the central government, which were promulgated after the Constitution. In addition there are many examples of post-Constitution laws with minor constitutional provisions.

Unwritten Provisions The Constitution of Japan is a written one in principle, but it does not exclude all unwritten provisions. There are still some spheres of government action which are not regulated by any document. Moreover, there are many cases in which the written laws have to be interpreted by unwritten laws or by national political custom or reason. For instance, the relation of the Japanese nation to the Shinto Shrines, the relation of State and religion, the site of the capital, the nature of the National Flag, the Calendar, and the customary procedure of the Imperial Diet are not defined in written laws, but are nevertheless constitutional observances. Other political customary observances of importance are that the Cabinet is formed, as a rule, by the members of the majority party in the House of Representatives, and that the Genro, Elder Statesmen, (at present only one, Prince Saionji) are consulted by the Emperor on the choice of a new Prime Minister.

The Form of Government

The form of the Japanese Government is that of a constitutional monarchy. The Empire is ruled by the Emperor (Tenno) according to the first article of the Constitution, "the Empire of Japan shall be reigned over and governed by a line of Emperors unbroken for ages eternal." The representatives of the people in the Imperial Diet participate in the rule of the State, but have no sovereign power. Sovereignty belongs entirely to the Emperor and all power is exercised in his name only. The Japanese Reigning House is the oldest dynasty in the world and, in stability and historical continuity, the Japanese monarchy is unique in history. The actual power of the Emperor at the present time is much greater than that of other constitutional monarchs.

The actions of all governmental organs are regulated by the Constitution and the collateral laws and usages above mentioned, and all the organs are coordinated by the central government. The supreme power is concentrated in the State, and the exercise of sovereignty is all in the hands of the central government which gives orders to all other administrative organs.

The People

All Japanese subjects are registered with the census authorities according to the Law of Nationality, and are recognized as the constituency of the State and protected by the State laws. They are required to submit completely to the control and orders of the State. By the terms of the Constitution they may, subject to qualifications determined by law or ordinance, be appointed to civil or military offices equally and may fill any other public positions. They are liable to service in the army and navy and to the duty of paying taxes according to the provisions of law. The duties they owe to the State are numerous, but these two are specially mentioned in the Constitution.

Japanese subjects are guaranteed liberty of abode and of changing the same. Within the limits of law, they shall not be arrested, detained, tried or punished unless according to law, shall not be deprived of their right of being tried by the judges determined by law, except in cases provided for by the law, their houses shall not be entered or searched without their consent, the secrecy of their letters shall remain inviolate, and their right of property shall remain inviolate. They enjoy freedom of religious belief, speech, writing, publication, public meeting and association; and they may present petitions to the authorities in the forms provided by law.

The feudal social castes were abolished at the Meiji Restoration, and the class names of Kazoku (Peers), Shizoku (Samurai class), and Heimin (Common people) were given according to family standing and lineage. The two last are purely social and represent no political distinction. Peerage carries with it the privilege of membership of the Upper House of the Legislature (Kizokuin, House of Peers), subject to certain conditions. In 1884 the peerage was divided into the following five ranks: Prince, Marquis, Count, Viscount, and Baron. The class name of "Common people" has fallen into complete disuse, while that of "Samurai class" is being rapidly forgotten.

Tenno, The Emperor

The Japanese Throne is hereditary. The custom was established with the

foundation of the State 2,596 years ago, and had been a constitutional unwritten law till it was clearly stated in the Imperial House Law by order of the Emperor Meiji. According to this law, the Japanese Throne "shall be succeeded to by male descendants in the male line of Imperial Ancestors" (Art. 1). In the history of Japan there were some Empresses in their own right, but their cases were always regarded as exceptional. The succession to the Throne as defined by the Imperial House Law is as follows :

(1) Imperial eldest son. (Kotaishi)
(2) Imperial eldest grandson. (Kotaison)
(3) Other male descendants of eldest son.
(4) Imperial son next in age.
(5) Male descendants of same in the same order as above.
(6) Other Imperial sons in order of age.
(7) Male descendants of same in the same order as above.
(8) Imperial brothers in order of age and their male descendants in the same order as shown above.
(9) Imperial uncles and their male descendants in the same order as above.
(10) Next nearest relative of the Emperor.

In all cases precedence is given to descendants of full blood over those of half blood.

The Three Sacred Treasures The Imperial heir ascends the Throne and is invested with the three Sacred Treasures, the Mirror, the Jewel, and the Sword, of the Imperial Ancestors upon the demise of the Emperor, and in no other circumstances. In ancient days, the Throne was succeeded to only for this natural reason, but the good custom was broken in the middle ages. The Imperial House Law aims at the re-establishment of the oldest custom and absolutely prohibits the abdication of the Throne in the Emperor's life time. The Imperial heir ascends to the Throne immediately upon the demise of the Emperor, although the ceremonial ascension comes later. For instance, the present Emperor came to the Throne in a room of the Hayama Winter Palace, where his father died, immediately after the demise was announced by the doctor on December 25, 1926, while the formal ceremony of ascension was held about two years later in accordance with Art. 11 of the Imperial House Law which states that the ceremonies of Enthronement shall be performed and a Grand Enthronement Banquet (Daijosai) in honour of the Ancestral Gods held at Kyoto. Upon the ascension, a new era is inaugurated and the name of the era remains unchanged during the whole reign of the Emperor.

The Regency As abdication of the Throne is impossible, Art. 19 of the Law provides for a regency to be instituted when the Emperor is a minor (the Tenno, Kotaishi and Kotaison attain majority at 18 years of age), or when he is prevented by some permanent cause from personally governing. In the second case the advice of the Imperial Family Council and of the Privy Council is required. The Regency shall be assumed by major members of the Imperial Family in the following order :

Family Status	Majority Age
(1) The Imperial Eldest Son	18
(2) Imperial Eldest Grandson	,,
(3) Imperial Prince	20
(4) Prince	,,
(5) The Empress	,,
(6) The Empress Dowager	,,
(7) The Grand Empress Dowager	,,
(8) Imperial Princess or Princess	,,

Imperial Prerogative

According to the provisions of the Constitution, the Japanese Emperor is the head of the Empire, combining in himself all the rights of sovereignty. According to the provisions of the Imperial House Law, he is the head of the Imperial Family, and he carries out his function as such by the advice of the Minister of the Imperial Household without reference to the Diet. By hereditary custom he assumes the position of the Highest Priest of the national cult of Shinto and conducts august ceremonies in honour of the gods of heaven and earth and of the ancestral gods directly and in person. He is in supreme command of the Imperial Army and Navy and exercises this power with the help of special organs established to that end and independently of the advice of State ministers. Lastly, he has power to confer all titles of nobility, rank, orders and other marks of honour.

The Emperor uses these sovereign powers with the assistance of various organs. In exercising legislative power he gets the consent of the Imperial Diet as a rule, although Imperial ordinances are often issued independent of the Diet, (under Article 9 of the Constitution), and for the colonies the exercise of ordinance power is unlimited

by the Constitution. In the administration of State affairs he is advised by the Ministers of State, and in certain special cases by the Genro, the Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals, and the Privy Council. In Military administration he is advised by the chiefs of the Naval and Military General Staffs, while in the exercise of judicial power, he is represented by the Courts of Law.

"The Emperor is sacred and inviolable" (Constitution, Art. 3). He cannot be removed from the Throne for any reason; and he is not to be held responsible for over-stepping the limitations of law in the exercise of his sovereignty. All responsibility for the exercise of his sovereignty must be assumed by the Ministers of State and other organs. Thus, no criticism can be directed against the Emperor, but only against the instruments of his sovereignty. Laws are not to be applied to the Emperor as a principle, especially criminal laws, for no court of law can try the Emperor himself and he is not subject to any law.

The Cabinet

The Ministry is composed of 13 State ministers headed by the Prime Minister. The twelve ministers are (1) the Minister of Foreign Affairs, (2) the Minister of Home Affairs, (3) the Minister of Finance, (4) the Minister of War, (5) the Minister of Marine, (6) the Minister of Justice, (7) the Minister of Education, (8) the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, (9) the Minister of Commerce and Industry, (10) the Minister of Communications, (11) the Minister of Railways, and (12) the Minister of Overseas Affairs.

Though all the ministers are separately responsible to the Emperor for all the administrative work under their respective jurisdiction, they are united by the Prime Minister (Naikaku Sori Daijin), one of whose functions is to preserve unity among the State ministers. Through this specific function of the Premier (which, though not mentioned in the Constitution, is prescribed in the Cabinet Organization Ordinance), and the rapid growth of party government, his controlling power over the other State ministers has, of late, been greatly augmented, and as all matters of national importance are decided upon in cabinet meetings, State ministers are now, as a matter of fact, held jointly responsible to the Emperor.

Thus, each departmental minister has a twofold function, first as a State minister and secondly as a departmental executive head. As a State minister he is an adviser to the Emperor in the exercise of his sovereign power over national administration, and for the advice given assumes a joint responsibility with his colleagues. As the head of a department his function is to direct, control and supervise all the administrative affairs within his departmental jurisdiction, for which his responsibility is individual.

As it is imformed in the chapter on parties and politics the Hirota Cabinet resigned early in February, 1937, and was succeeded by the Hayashi Cabinet which assumed position for but four months and the present Konoyé Cabinet was formed on June 4, 1937. The names and careers, therefore, of members of both cabinets are given below:

The Hayashi Cabinet Prime Minister, General Senjuro Hayashi: born 1876; second lieutenant, 1897; Major-General, 1921; Army representative to the League of Nations, 1923; Commander of the 2nd Infantry Brigade, 1925; Lieutenant-General, 1926; Commander of the Tokyo Bay Fortress, 1926; President of the Staff College, 1927; Director of the General Affairs Bureau of the Department of Military Training, 1928; Commander of the Imperial Guard Division, 1929; Commander of the Chosen Army, 1930; Head of the Department of Military Training, 1932-34; Minister of War, 1934-35; retired from active service, 1936.

Minister of Education, portfolio held concurrently by the Prime Minister, General Senjuro Hayashi.

Minister for Foreign Affairs, Naotaké Sato: born October, 1882; graduated from Tokyo Higher Commercial School, 1904; entered service in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1905; stayed in Mexico, Russia, 1905–14; Consul-General, 1917; First Secretary at the Japanese Embassy, Paris, 1921; Minister to Poland, 1923–27; Chief of the Japanese Office of the League of Nations, Geneva, 1927; Ambassador to Belgium, 1930–33; appointed concurrently Minister to Luxenburg, 1931–33; Ambassador to Paris, 1933–37.

Minister for Home Affairs, Kakichi Kawarada; born January, 1886; graduated from the Law Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1909; successively assumed sectional directorship of several prefectural governments and in the Home Ministry; sent to Geneva as the Government representative to the International Labour Conference, 1919, 1924 and 1928; Vice-Governor-General of Taiwan, 1928-29; Vice-Minister of Home Affairs, 1931-32; a trustee of the Kyochokai (a semi-Governmental association for labour

arbitration), 1932-37.

Minister of Finance, Toyotaro Yuki; born May, 1877; graduated from the Law Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1903; entered the Bank of Japan, 1903; Head of the Osaka Branch, 1918; a trustee of the Bank, 1919; Chief of Directors of the Yasuda interests, 1931; President of the Industrial Bank of Japan, 1930-37.

Minister for Overseas Affairs, portfolio concurrently held by Minister of Finance, Toyotaro Yuki.

Minister of War, General Gen Sugiyama; born January, 1880; graduated from Military College 1900; second lieutenant, 1901; graduated from Staff College, 1909; Major-General, 1925; Director of the Supplies Section, Aeronautical Department, 1925; Director of the Board of Military Affairs, 1928; Lieutenant-General, 1930; Vice-Minister of War, 1930; Commander of the 12th Division, 1932; Head of the Aeronautical Department, 1933; Vice-Chief of the General Staff and President of the Staff College. 1934; Head of the Department of Military Training, 1936; General, 1936.

Minister of Marine, Admiral Mitsumasa Yonai; born February, 1880; graduated from Naval College and entered service, 1901; graduated from Naval War College, 1914; Rear-Admiral, 1925; Commander of the First Overseas Fleet, 1928; Vice-Admiral, 1930; Commander of Chinkai Minor Naval Station, 1930; Commander-in-Chief of the Third Fleet, 1932; Commander-in-Chief, Sasebo Naval Station, 1933; Commander-in-Chief of the Second Fleet, 1934; Commander-in-Chief, Yokosuka Naval Station, 1935; Commander-in-Chief of the Combined Fleet and the First Fleet, 1936-37; Admiral, 1937.

Minister of Justice, Suéhiko Shiono: born January, 1880; graduated from the Law Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1906; public procurator at District Courts, Local Courts and Tokyo Court of Appeal, 1908-1930; Director of the Prison Bureau, Ministry of Justice, 1930-35, Chief Public Procurator at Nagoya Court of Appeal, 1935-36; Vice-Director of the Public Procurator's Bureau, Supreme Court, 1936-37.

Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, Tatsunosuké Yamazaki: born June, 1880; graduated from the Law Department, Kyoto Imperial University; an official of the Taiwan Government-General, 1906; successively chief of the Budget Section of the Education Ministry, chief of the Bureau of Technical Education, and chief of the Bureau of Common Education; Parliamentry Vice-Minister of Education, 1927; Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, 1934-1936; has been elected 5 times member of the House of Representatives.

Minister of Commerce and Industry, Vice-Admiral, Dr. Takuo Godo: born September, 1877; graduated from the Technical Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1901; entered service at the Kuré Naval Dockyard and after assuming several sectional directorships became Chief of the Naval Dockyard, 1923-28; Constructor Rear-Admiral, 1923; Constructor Vice-Admiral, 1926; Doctor of Technology, 1928; a trustee, South Manchuria Railway Company, 1930-34; President of Showa Iron Foundry, 1929-37.

Minister of Railways, portfolio held concurrently by Minister of Commerce and Industry, Vice-Admiral, Dr. Takuo Godo.

Minister of Communications, Count Hideo Kodama: born 1876; graduated from the Law Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1900; Head of the General Bureau, Chosen Government-General, 1912, Chief Secretary of the Cabinet, 1916; President of the Merit Bureau, 1918-21; Governor-General of Kwantung, 1924-27; Vice-Governor-General of Chosen, 1929-31; Minister for Overseas Affairs, 1934-36; has been member of the House of Peers since 1918.

The Present Cabinet Prime Minister, Prince Fumimaro Konoé, M.H.P., born October, 1891; graduated from the Law Department, Kyoto Imperial University, 1917; member of the House of Peers by virtue of being a prince, 1916; sent to Europe for study, 1917-19; an attaché to the Japanese delegate at the Paris Peace Conference, 1919; Vice-President of the House of Peers, 1931-33; President of the House of Peers, 1933-37.

Minister for Foreign Affairs, Koki Hirota, M.H.P.; born February, 1878; entered the Foreign Office service, 1906; Minister to Holland, 1926; Ambassador to the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, 1930-32; Minister for Foreign Affairs, 1932-36; Prime Minister, 1936-37; member of the House of Peers by Imperial Order, 1937.

Minister for Home Affairs, Dr. Eiichi Baba, M.H.P.; born October, 1879; entered service in the Revenue Inspection Office, 1903; Doctor of Law, 1920; Chief of the Legislation Bureau, 1921-23; member of the House of Peers by Imperial Order, 1922; President of the Hypothec Bank of Japan, 1927-36; Minister of Finance, 1936-37.

Minister of Finance, Okinori Kaya; born January, 1889; graduated from the Law Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1917; entered service in the Finance Ministry, 1917; sent to the U. S. A. and Europe for many years and to Geneva and London as an attaché to the Japanese delegates at disarmament conferences; Director of the Accounts Bureau, Finance Ministry, 1933–36; Director of the Bureau of Fund Employment, 1936–37; Vice-Minister of Finance, February, 1937.

Minister of War, General Gen Sugiyama (held the same portfolio in the Hayashi Cabinet).

Minister of Marine, Admiral Mitsumasa Yonai, (occupid the same portfolio in the Hayashi Cabinet).

Minister of Justice, Suéhiko Shiono, (had the same portfolio in the Hayashi Cabinet).

Minister of Education, Eiji Yasui; born September, 1890; graduated from the Law Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1916; entered service in the Home Ministry, 1916; Director of the Local Bureau, Home Ministry, 1932; Governor of Okayama prefecture, 1934; Governor of Osaka prefecture, 1935–37.

Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, Count Yoriyasu Arima, M.H.P.; born December, 1884; graduated from the Agricultural Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1910; assistant professor of the same university, 1910; elected member of the House of Representatives, 1924; elected member of the House of Peers, 1929; Parliamentary Vice-Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, 1932; Chairman of the trustees of the Central Chest for Co-operative Associations and Head of the Central Council of Co-operative Associations, 1933–37.

Minister of Commerce and Industry, Shinji Yoshino; born September, 1888; graduated from the Law Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1913; entered service in the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce and sent to the U.S.A. for study, 1913; sent to Europe and America, 1924; Director of the Bureau of Industry, Ministry of Commerce and Industry, 1928–31; Vice-Minister of Commerce and Industry, 1931–36; Head of the Tohoku Industrial Company and Tohoku Electric Power Company, 1936–37.

Minister of Communications, Ryutaro Nagai, M.H.R.; born April, 1881; graduated from the Political Department, Waseda University, 1905; sent to England and Germany for study, 1905; Professor at Waseda University, 1907–17; Parliamentary Vice-Minister for Foreign Affairs, 1929–31; Minister for Overseas Affairs, 1932–34; has been elected seven times, since 1920, member of the House of Representatives and is the General Secretary of the Minseito.

Minister of Railways, Chikuhei Nakajima, M.H.R.; born 1884; graduated from Naval Engineering College and Naval War College and was sent to France for the study of airplanes; Engineer Lieutenant, 1916; retired from service and established the Nakajima Airplane Works at Ota, Gumma prefecture in 1917, and has been head of the Works since; Parliamentary Vice-Minister of Commerce and Industry, 1936–37; has been elected member of the House of Representatives 4 times since 1930 and is one of the four leaders of the Seiyukai.

Minister for Overseas Affairs, Sonyu Otani, M.H.P.; born 1886; made visits to European countries as a Buddhist monk, 1910; Acting head of the Hompa Hongwanji group of the Shin sect, 1921–30; member of the House of Peers by Imperial Order, 1928.

The Prime Minister

The Prime Minister presents reports on administrative matters of importance to the Emperor as the head of the Cabinet. When necessary he can order the suspension of an administrative operation or of the application of an administrative order (Meirei) by any executive organ, pending the final decision of the Emperor. The Premier issues Cabinet Orders (Kakurei) in virtue of this official function or by special commission. He is empowered within his functional jurisdiction to direct the Metropolitan Chief of Police and the Prefectural Governors. Matters that should be presented to the Cabinet Council are prescribed as follows:

(1) All legislative and budget bills.
(2) Treaties and other international matters of importance.
(3) Ordinances to be issued.
(4) Disputes among the various Departments regarding jurisdiction.
(5) Pettitions from the people received from the Emperor or from the Diet.
(6) Outlays not prescribed in the budget.
(7) Appointments and removals of officials of "chokunin" rank and also of prefectural governors.

PREMIERS SINCE 1885

Date of Formation of Cabinet	Premier
Dec. 22, 1885	H. Ito
April 30, 1888	K. Kuroda

Date of Formation of Cabinet	Premier
Dec. 24, 1889	A. Yamagata
May 6, 1891	M. Matsukata
Aug. 8, 1892	H. Ito
Sept. 18, 1896	M. Matsukata
Jan. 12, 1898	H. Ito
June 30, 1898	S. Okuma
Nov. 8, 1898	A. Yamagata
Oct. 9, 1900	H. Ito
June 2, 1901	T. Katsura
Jan. 7, 1906	K. Saionji
July 14, 1908	T. Katsura
Aug. 30, 1911	K. Saionji
Dec. 21, 1912	T. Katsura
Feb. 20, 1913	G. Yamamoto
April 16, 1914	S. Okuma
Oct. 9, 1916	M. Terauchi
May 29, 1918	T. Hara
Nov. 13, 1921	K. Takahashi
June 12, 1922	T. Kato
Sept. 2, 1923	G. Yamamoto
Jan. 7, 1924	K. Kiyoura
June 11, 1924	T. Kato
Aug. 2, 1925	,,
Jan. 30, 1926	R. Wakatsuki
April 20, 1927	G. Tanaka
July 2, 1929	O. Hamaguchi
April 14, 1931	R. Wakatsuki
Dec. 13, 1931	T. Inukai
May 26, 1932	M. Saito
July 8, 1934	K. Okada
March 9, 1936	K. Hirota
Feb. 2, 1937	S. Hayashi
June 4, 1937	F. Konoé

Cabinet Bureaux

Important offices of the Cabinet are the Secretariat, Pension Bureau, Statistics Bureau, and Printing Bureau. There are three other bureaux which are affiliated to the Cabinet and which are under the Premier's direct control, namely the Legislation Bureau, Merit Bureau and Resources Bureau. All bills to be submitted to the legislature by the Government and all ordinances to be promulgated are drafted at the Legislation Bureau in accordance with the order of the Premier. Proposals of amendment or repeal of laws or ordinances are also submitted to this bureau. In the discharge of his duties the Chief of the Legislation Bureau is at liberty to present his opinion to the Cabinet.

The Merit Bureau handles all business pertaining to the Orders of Merit, decorations and the pensions affiliated to them, national and international. The Resources Bureau supervises all matters concerning the planning, utilization, and administration of the national resources, human and material.

On December 26, 1934, the Bureau for Manchurian Affairs was established. The bureau is under the Premier's direct control as are the other three bureaux. Its function is to supervise all matters concerning Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone through the Kwanto Bureau in the Japanese Embassy in Hsinking.

There are many committees under the direct control of the Premier, important ones being as follows :—(a) The Higher Civil Service Examination Committee which is in charge of the higher civil service examinations, and of recommendations to certain higher posts. It consists of 8 members who are chosen from among high officials of the Government and its chairman is the Premier, (b) the Pensions Arbitration Committee, (c) The Resource Investigation Committee, (d) The Merit Examination Committee, (e) The Welfare Promotion Committee for the North-Eastern Districts, (f) The Committee for the Celebration of the 26th Centenary of the founding of the Empire, (g) The Election System Investigation Committee organized in July, 1936, and (h) the Diet Organization Investigation Committee instituted in July, 1936.

(The Naikaku Shingikai or Cabinet Advisory Board was abolished on May 5, 1936.)

On May 10, 1935 (Imperial Ordinance, No. 119) the Cabinet Investigation Bureau was established to make investigations on important national policies and to handle matters in connection with the working of the Cabinet Advisory Board. The bureau is under the direct control of the Prime Minister and consists of 37 officials besides the director.

Kikakucho (Planning Bureau) was established in May, 1937, for drawing most important Governmental policies and study of administrative measures proposed by individual ministries.

The Executive Departments

Department of Foreign Affairs. The Minister of Foreign Affairs administers all the diplomatic affairs of the Empire ; organizes the protection of the Empire's commercial interests and Japanese subjects resident in foreign countries ; and directs and supervises Japanese diplomats and consuls. The Department of Foreign Affairs is subdivided into five bureaux, namely, (1) East Asiatic, (2) European and Asiatic, (3) American, (4) Commercial, and (5) Treaties.

The East Asiatic Bureau is divided

into three sections : the First Section handles diplomatic matters related to China, Hong-Kong and Macao ; the Second Section those concerning Siam and protection and control of Japanese residents in those countries ; and the Third Section those concerning Manchoukuo.

The European and Asiatic Bureau is divided into two sections : the First Section handles diplomatic matters related to the U.S.S.R., Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Turkey, Poland, Persia and Afghanistan ; the Second Section those of all the European and other countries not coming under the control of any other bureau or section.

The American Bureau is divided into three sections : the First Section handles diplomatic matters concerning Canada, the United States of America and her territories ; the Second Section, the Central and South American countries ; the Third Section handles matters concerning emigrants and passports.

The Commercial Bureau is divided into three sections : the First Section handles matters concerning institutions and policies of trade and navigation ; the Second Section control, promotion and protection of trade and navigation ; the Third Section commercial affairs and reports.

The Bureau of Treaties is divided into three sections : the First Section handles matters concerning drafting, interpretation, sanction, publication and revision of treaties with foreign countries ; the Second Section international judicial matters ; the Third Section the League of Nations.

There are three other offices of importance. The Information Bureau is divided into three sections. The First Section handles matters concerning news in daily papers and broadcasting ; the Second Section books, magazines, publication, foreign news agencies, propaganda, international meetings ; the Third Section distribution of diplomatic knowledge.

The Investigation Bureau is divided into five sections and their duties are as follows : the First Section general business and study of diplomatic facts ; the Second Section keeping of records and materials ; the Third Section investigations on diplomatic and commercial situations in Asia and the Near East ; the Fourth Section investigations on Europe and Oceania ; the Fifth Section political and diplomatic investigations on North and South American countries.

The Cultural Works Bureau handles matters concerning the cultural works for China which mainly consist of promotion and assistance of cultural investigations and enterprises on China.

Japanese Embassies, etc. (See Chapter VI, List of Envoys.)

Department of Home Affairs The Minister of Home Affairs is in charge of national shrines, prefectural administration, national and local political elections, police, public undertakings, public health, town planning, publication and copyrights, etc. It is also his function to supervise the Chief of the Metropolitan Police Board and the prefectural governors. The Ministry of Home Affairs has in recent years become the most important Government office politically, inasmuch as it supervises elections and administers local public works. The Minister is assisted by a parliamentary vice-minister, a vice-minister and a counsellor. The department has five bureaux, respectively in charge of the following affairs :—(1) Shrines, (2) Local Affairs, (3) Public Order, (4) Public Works, and (5) Public Hygiene. The Bureau of Social Affairs is affiliated to the Ministry and responsible to the Minister.

The Bureau of Local Affairs has a vast field to supervise. It has to be in close touch with (1) all matters affecting elections, (2) all the work concerning local public associations and other general administration, (3) financial and economic matters of various local public associations, (4) all matters concerning conscription and requisition to be executed by the prefectural governments, (5) all matters concerning forests, reclamation and settlement in Hokkaido and other matters in Hokkaido which do not come within the scope of any other bureaux.

The Bureau of Public Order is invested with the highest authority over ordinary as well as political police matters, and the publication of books and other printed matter.

The Bureau of Public Works is in charge of all public undertakings, not only those under the direct control of the Home Department but also those of all the prefectural governments. All matters regarding expenditure for public works of all sorts directly undertaken by the Department of Home Affairs and the subsidies to be granted for prefectural public works are handled by this Bureau.

The Bureau of Public Hygiene is in charge of measures for the prevention of the spread of epidemics. The Bureau is also in charge of quarantine work, and supervises the medical, pharmaceutical and dental professions, including the issue of licences to practice, and

the sale of medical goods. All matters concerning hygienic associations and local hospitals come also under the supervision of this Bureau.

The Bureau of Social Affairs handles all matters concerning :— (1) labour, (2) enforcement of the factory law, (3) miners, as prescribed in the mining law, (4) application of the minimum-age-for-factory-employment law, (5) arbitration of labour disputes, (6) social insurance, (7) the prevention of unemployment and relief of the unemployed, (8) international labour arrangements, (9) protection of children, (10) military relief work, (11) the Japanese section of the International Labour Office at Geneva, and (12) other social works.

The following institutions also come under the control of the Minister of Home Affairs :— the Asylum for Disabled Soldiers, the National Shrines Building Office, the Police Educational Institute, the National House of Correction for the Improvement of Juvenile Criminals, the Hygiene Laboratories, the Food Investigation Laboratory and the National Leper-Houses. Ten special committees advise the Minister on the following matters :— (1) Investigation of a Proper System of Shinto Shrines, (2) Examination of Medical Practitioners, (3) Examination of Dentists, (4) Examination of Pharmacists, (5) Central Hygiene, (6) Sanitary Investigation, (7) Town Planning, (8) Labour Insurance, (9) Labour Exchanges, and (10) Opium.

The Department of Finance The Minister of Finance is in charge of accounting, payments and receipts of public money, taxation, government bonds, coins, money in deposit and custody, negotiable instruments owned by or in custody of the Government and all matters concerning banking, trust business, "ko" (an oriental mutual loan association), and sale of negotiable instruments. He also supervises the finances of the prefectural governments and other local public bodies.

The Finance Department has the following four bureaux :— (1) The Accounts Bureau, which handles all matters concerning the national budget and settlement of accounts, special accounts, co-ordination of treasury business, control of accounting officials, etc. (2) The Bureau of Taxation, which handles matters pertaining to the levying of national taxes, supervision of taxation affairs, the land register, and customs and excise tariffs. (3) The Bureau of Fund Employment, which is in charge of matters concerning the employment of national funds, the administration of national treasury money, the coinage, general circulation of money, national loans, accident and relief funds, deposits and negotiable securities, annuities, and public loans floated by public associations. (4) The Banking Bureau, which takes charge of matters concerning special, ordinary and savings banks, other matters pertaining to banks, the central chest of the industrial unions and credit unions in the cities.

The following other bureaux and institutions are attached to the Department of Finance and are under the direct jurisdiction of the Minister :— (1) The Deposits Bureau, which handles a huge amount of deposits from the middle and lower classes of the people, special importance being always attached to the question of how to utilize this money, (2) The Foreign Exchange Control Bureau, (3) The National Property Bureau, which is in charge of all national properties, and makes arrangements for their disposal or acquirement. (4) The Mint Bureau, located in Osaka, which is in charge of the minting and melting down of all coins, the casting of national medals or decorations, and laboratory work on metals. (5) The Customs Bureaux, which not only handle matters concerning the collection of import duties but also take charge of the control of ships going in and out of the trade ports, medical and health examination of passengers and crews, plants and animals, and registration of epidemics in accordance with the epidemics or tuberculosis prevention laws for men and animals. Customs Houses under these Bureaux are located at the six trade ports, namely, Yokohama, Kobé Osaka, Nagasaki, Moji and Hakodaté. (6) The Revenue Superintending Bureaux, which handle matters concerning tax collection. (7) The Monopoly Bureau, which administers the three government monopolies, salt, camphor and tobacco.

One laboratory and several committees are under the direct control of the Minister of Finance, namely, the Brewing Laboratory and the Committees on Tariff Petitions Examination, the National Property Survey, Building Central Offices of the Government, Tariff Investigation, etc.

The Department of War The function of the Minister of War, who is appointed from among Generals or Lieutenant-Generals in active service, is to direct the military administration. He controls all the men enlisted in the Army and supervises all branches of the Army. Though the War Minister is assisted by a parliamentary vice-minister and a counsellor they have nothing

to do officially with military secrets and military orders (for the organization of the Department and its detailed functions, see Chapter VII).

The Department of Marine The Minister of Marine is appointed from among Admirals or Vice-Admirals in active service and is responsible for all naval administration. He controls all the men enlisted in the Navy and supervises all branches of the Navy. The parliamentary vice-minister and counsellor have nothing to do with naval secrets and naval commands (for the organization of the Department and its detailed functions, see Chapter VII).

The Department of Justice. The Minister of Justice supervises courts and procurators' offices; and controls all judicial proceedings. The Department contains three bureaux, dealing respectively with civil affairs, criminal affairs, and prisons.

Judicial procedure is divided into three instances. The courts of first instance are the District and Local Courts. In the District Court are tried civil cases of minor importance and those involving sums not exceeding one thousand yen. The Court also deals with criminal cases which are not felonies and those which do not require preliminary examination. The District Court handles cases of bankruptcy and those concerning personal status and arbitration. In rent and commercial disagreements, an arbitration committee, composed of one judge and two laymen experienced in the matters involved in the dispute, may be appointed. The jurisdiction of a District Court covers an average area of 2,587 square miles and a population of about 219,000.

The Local Court conducts trials of first instance of cases beyond the jurisdiction of the District Court and preliminary examinations of criminal cases of a complicated character.

The Local and Appeal Courts are the courts of second instance. The former handles cases on appeal from the District Courts, and the latter appeals against the first instance decisions of the Local Courts.

The court of third instance is the Supreme Court, which tries all civil and criminal cases which are brought before it, and conducts preliminary trials for (1) serious offences against the Imperial House, (2) high treason, and (3) offences committed by members of the Imperial Family.

There is one Supreme Court, seven Courts of Appeal, 51 Local Courts and 282 District Courts.

Attached to each of these courts is a procurators' office, its functions being to conduct investigations, institute prosecutions, supervise the execution of sentences in criminal cases, and act as representative of the public interest in civil cases (For further details, see Chapter XXVII).

The Department of Education All matters relating to education, art, science, literature, and religion are under the direction and supervision of the Minister of Education. There are seven bureaux and one division in the Department, i. e. (1) Bureau of Semmon (College) Education, (2) Bureau of Common Education, (3) Bureau of Technical Education, (4) Bureau of Social Education,(5) Bureau of Books, (6) Bureau of Religion, and (7) Bureau of "Thoughts".

Six imperial universities, 2 commercial universities, 7 medical universities, 1 technical university, 2 normal universities, 4 higher normal schools, and 79 colleges and special educational institutions come under the direct administration of the Department (see Chapter XXVIII).

The following institutions are also established and controlled by this Department:—the Imperial Library; the Central Meteorological Observatory; the Marine Meteorological Observatory; the Aerological Observatory; the Latitude Observatory; the Tokyo Science Museum; the Physical Education Laboratory; the Navigation Institute; the Geodesy Committee; the Government Research Institute of National Culture; the Examining Committee for Teachers' Licences; the Physical Sciences Literature Committee, for preparing a national list of books on physical sciences, as a branch of the International Committee for the same purpose; the Imperial Academy, which is composed of one hundred scholars appointed by the Emperor and is established for the promotion of science and culture; the Imperial Academy of Arts, which is composed of 30 members under a president, its main work being organization of the annual exhibition for the promotion of fine arts; the Text Book Committee; the Science Council; the National Language Committee; the Aeronautics Council; the School Hygiene Committee; the Earthquake Disaster Prevention Committee; the Religious System Investigation Committee; and the National Treasure Preservation Committee.

The Department of Commerce and Industry The Minister of Commerce and Industry is assisted in administration of the Department by a parliamentary vice-minister, vice-minister and counsellor.

There are six bureaux in this Department, dealing respectively with commerce, industry, mining, foreign trade, insurance, and patents. Examination and control of weights and measures is under the Central Weights and Measures Office. Other affiliated offices of importance are the Mine Supervision Bureau and the Temporary Rationalization of Industry Bureau.

In May, 1932, an ordinance was issued empowering the Minister of Commerce and Industry to establish two industrial laboratories, in Tokyo and Osaka respectively. These laboratories are opened for the examination, analysis, and appraising of industrial commodities for the benefit of interested parties. Other institutions under the Department are as follows : the Fancy Mat conditioning Houses, the Silk Experimental Stations, the Earthenware and Porcelain Experimental House, the Silk Goods Export Conditioning House, the Industrial Advice and Information Office, the Fuel Laboratory, the Industrial Art Examination Committee, the Unreasonable Low Price Investigation Committee, the Gas Business Committee, the National Products Promotion Committee and the Motor-car Manufacturing Business Committee.

The Department of Agriculture and Forestry The Minister of Agriculture and Forestry controls all matters concerning agriculture, forestry, marine industry, stock-breeding and the enforcement of the Rice and Cereals Law. The Department is divided into the following seven bureaux :—(1) The Agriculture Bureau, which takes charge of matters concerning agriculture, tea production, subsidiary industries among farmers, industrial unions, the central chest of the co-operative associations, and the enforcement of Cereals Law. (2) The Forestry Bureau, which deals with all matters concerning forests and meadows. (3) The Fisheries Bureau. (4) The Stock Breeding Bureau, which deals with the improvement and breeding of domestic animals, their hygiene, insurance and hunting. (5) The Silk Bureau handles matters concerning sericulture and the silk industry. (6) The Horse Bureau, which was established in July, 1936, deals with improvement, breeding and other matters concerning horses and their pastures ; and (7) The Rice Bureau for control of price of rice and its supply.

The following institutions are under the direct control of the Minister :—the Agricultural, Horticultural, and Forestry Experimental Stations, the Fisheries Institute and Fisheries Experimental Stations, the National Stock-sheep Pastures, the Animal Disease Examination Institute, the National Bull Pastures, National Poultry Station, the Sericultural Laboratory, the Raw Silk Conditioning Houses, the Tea Experimental Houses, the Rice and Cereals Committee, the Silk Price Committee.

The Department of Communications The Minister of Communications administers the State post, telegraph, telephone, broadcasting and beacon services, and is in charge of all matters relating to electricity, hydraulic power and aviation. All business enterprises of electricity, ship-building, and water transportation together with navigation routes, ships and seamen are under his supervision. He also directs the operations of the Nippon Wireless Telegraph Company.

The Minister is assisted by a parliamentary vice-minister, and a counsellor, The Secretariat, beside the ordinary secretarial work, supervises the training of clerks who are expected to enter the communications service and all matters concerning communications exhibitions. There are seven main bureaux in the Department :—Postal Service Bureau ; Telegraph and Telephone Service Bureau ; Bureau of Engineering ; Bureau of Electricity ; Bureau of Mercantile Ships ; Aviation Bureau ; and Bureau of Accounts and Supplies.

There are in addition the following affiliated offices :—Bureau of Savings, Bureau of Post Office Life Insurance, Lighthouse Bureau, and Communications Bureau. The Savings Bureau handles matters concerning the Post Office savings, and their transfer to the national deposit. The Post Office Insurance Bureau handles matters pertaining to insurance and pensions for the working classes.

The following institutions are under the direct supervision of the Minister : —the Electro-Technical Laboratory, the Marine Court of Inquiry, the Marine Labour Exchange Committee, the Post-Office Life Insurance Investigation Committee, the Post-Office Life Insurance Reserve Fund Utilization Committee, the Electricity Committee and the Aviation Control Committee.

The Department of Railways The Minister of Railways administers all the affairs relating to the railways operated by the Government and supervises the operations on land of all private railway companies. The Department is divided into seven bureaux, namely, Bureau of Local Railway Administration, Bureau of Traffic and Operation, Bureau of Construction, Bureau of Mechanical

Engineering, Bureau of Maintenance and Improvement, Bureau of Electricity, and Bureau of Finance and Purchasing. During the last few years there has been operated a special Tourist Industry Bureau for attracting foreign tourists, which is subdivided into the Controlling and Investigating Section and the Promoting Section. The administrative work of the state railways is apportioned to six local regions : Tokyo, Nagoya, Osaka, Moji, Sendai and Sapporo. Each region is in charge of a director who has full powers to conduct all but the most important affairs within his jurisdiction.

There are three committees affiliated to the ministry, the Railway Council, the Tourists Committee and the Railway Fare Investigation Committee. (See Chapter XXV, State Railways.)

The Department of Overseas Affairs

The Minister of Overseas Affairs supervises the administrative work of the Chosen Government-General, the Taiwan Government-General, the Kwantung Government, the Karafuto Government, and the Government of the South Sea Islands. He also supervises the business operations of the South Manchuria Railway Company and the Oriental Development Company. He directs all matters concerning emigration excepting those of a diplomatic nature. For the performance of these duties,the Minister is empowered to direct and supervise consuls stationed in foreign countries in consultation with the Foreign Minister. There are, besides the Secretariat, the following four offices in the Department ; the Chosen Office, (having a special status and being always under the direction of the vice-minister), Industry Development Bureau, the Supervision Bureau, and the Exploitation Bureau.

The Privy Council

The Privy Council is a consultative body to advise the Emperor on questions of grave importance. The Council is composed of one President, one Vice-President (non-voting) and 24 Councillors. All the Councillors are officials of shinnin (highest) rank. All these members are appointed by the Emperor on the advice of the Prime Minister. Cabinet Ministers are entitled by virtue of their office to sit in the Privy Council as councillors and have the right to vote. Princes of the Blood who have attained their majority and are resident in Tokyo can sit in the Council under the same conditions.

The questions that are to be submitted to the Privy Council for deliberation cover :

(1) All matters that fall within its jurisdiction according to the provisions of the Imperial House Law.

(2) All matters concerning interpretation of the provisions of the Constitution and laws and ordinances supplementary thereto.

(3) Proclamation of Martial Law under Article 14 of the Constitution, Imperial ordinances under Article 8 and Article 70, and any other Imperial ordinance which has a disciplinary clause.

(4) Treaties and all other international pledges.

(5) All matters involving an amendment in the organization and procedure regulations of the Privy Council.

(6) Other matters submitted to the Council by the Emperor.

Though the Privy Council is thus the highest consultative organ of the Emperor in important matters of State, it has nothing to do with the actual government administration.

Ministers Outside the Cabinet

There are two important offices of a quasi-administrative character of which the holders are styled "Daijin" (Minister). These "Ministers" are not members of the Cabinet and do not change with the Government.

The Office of the Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals is generally regarded as the senior of these offices. Its holder has the duty of keeping the Imperial Seal and the Seal of State, and of supervising secretarial work in connection with Imperial Edicts and Rescripts and other documents of the Imperial Court. The other office is that of Minister of the Imperial Household Department. The Minister is in charge of all business concerning the Imperial Household. (Consult the chapter on Imperial Court for fuller information as to their duties.)

The Board of Audit

The Board of Audit is provided for by Article 72 of the Constitution and is on an equal footing with the Ministers of State. It is composed of a president, three divisional chiefs and 12 inspectors, who are appointed by the Emperor on the advice of the Prime Minister, but cannot be dismissed, transferred or placed on the retired list except by effect of either a criminal or a disciplinary trial.

The function of the Board is to audit accounts of the central government and other corporate bodies, public or private, receiving government subsidies or guarantees.

The Court of Administrative Litigation

The law of 1890 which established this Court is envisaged in Article 61 of the Constitution. The Court is entirely distinct from ordinary judicial courts and its function is to decide on the validity of administrative acts. The Court is not interfered with by the Government. According to the law the Court of Administrative Litigation is to be located in Tokyo and no local court established. It is composed of a President and 11 Counsellors. Its members are appointed by the Emperor on the advice of the Prime Minister and are not to be removed, suspended from office or deprived of position, without their consent. This is exactly the same as with ordinary judges (see Chapter XXVII), but the differences are that the former's position is not for life, while the latter's is and that there is no institution of the retiring age for the former. The present head of the Court is Dr. Hyoji Futakami.

The Court passes on cases relating to (1) the levying of taxes and fees except the customs tariff ; (2) dispositions for the recovery of taxes in arrears, (3) the prohibition or suspension of business, (4) water-ways and public works, and (5) fixing the boundary between the Government and private owned lands.

An appeal is immediately taken by the Court and the decision on it is given by a majority vote of the council of more than 5. The decision is the first, and at the same time, final.

Government Officials

Civil officials are divided into four ranks according to their grade of merits, education and ability, and their salaries differ accordingly, The four ranks are : (1) Shinnin rank, appointed by His Majesty directly, (2) Chokunin rank, appointed by His Majesty's order indirectly, (3) Sonin rank, appointed by His Majesty's approval, and (4) Hannin rank of minor officials appointed by the heads of different offices.

At the end of 1935, civil officials who received salaries from the State Treasury numbered 142,543 in total, their salaries amounting to ¥170,419,940, of which officials of shinnin and chokunin rank numbered 1,615 with an aggregate salary of ¥8,433,826 a year, officials of sonin rank 14,781 with ¥38,708,427, and officials of hannin rank 126,147 with ¥123,277,687. The average salary of officials of chokunin rank was ¥5,220 a year, that of officials of sonin rank ¥2,618 and that of officials of hannin rank ¥977.

As to the number of officials of chokunin, sonin, and hannin ranks classified according to departments, the Department of Railways had the largest with 31,884, which was followed by 30,014 of the Department of Communications, 13,871 of the Government-General of Chosen and 12,453 of the Department of Finance. Departments other than those given above had less than 10,000 each, viz. the Department of Justice had 8,684, the Department of Education 7,922, the Government-General of Formosa 6,336, the Department of Agriculture and Forestry 4,058, the Home Department 2,641, Department of War 2,422, Government of Kwantung Province 2,078, the Department of Commerce and Industry 1,249, the Department of Marine 1,791, the Government of Saghalien Island 1,226 and the Department of Foreign Affairs 1,178. Other Departments had less than 1,000 each. Among prefectural offices, Hokkaido Office had 2,262, Tokyo Metropolitan Police Office had 1,441 and all other prefectures together 9,735. Each prefectural government office had 200 on the average.

Number and total amount of salaries paid to civil officials of the Government in the past 10 years follow :

Year	Number	Salary
1926	148,014	¥161,150,445
1927	124,116	147,096,570
1928	128,792	156,572,037
1929	134,831	163,745,391
1930	126,995	160,265,485
1931	134,537	160,644,249
1932	130,988	157,688,618
1933	132,987	159,579,259
1934	135,692	163,333,026
1935	142,543	170,419,940

The Imperial Diet

The Parliamentary system could not develop in Japan before the Meiji Restoration because politics was controlled by the Samurai class for hundreds of years. Thus, the Imperial Diet was established solely according to the pattern of Western countries. In accordance with the promise contained in the Charter Oath of the Emperor Meiji, councils or assemblies of various kinds were established at the beginning of the Meiji Era, but their members were not elected by the people and consequently they were of a different nature from the parliaments of the West. In 1881 it was promised to convoke a National Assembly within 10 years, and the Imperial

Diet on Western lines was first opened in 1890.

The Diet is much limited in its power and the duration of its sessions, but in its fundamental nature it has much in common with the national assemblies of Western countries. According to Art. 5 of the Constitution, the legislative power belongs to the Emperor and the Diet's function is only to give (or presumably withhold) consent to legislation proposed by the Throne. But this is a formality, and the Diet has almost the same power of legislation, including that of initiative as the parliaments of other civilized nations. At the same time, the Diet, in virtue of its being an assembly of representatives, has been invested with the power of supervising the administrative organs, as represented by the State ministers. It is a bicameral legislature, consisting of the House of Peers and the House of Representatives, and the decisions which are harmoniously made by both Houses are the decisions of the Imperial Diet.

The House of Peers The House of Peers is composed of the Imperial Princes, Peers, and the Imperial nominees, according to the provisions of the House of Peers Ordinance. This Ordinance was promulgated at the same time as the Constitution and has been revised several times since. In 1925, important revisions were made, the number of the peerage members being lessened while that of the representatives of the wealthy people was increased, also there was an addition of representatives of the Imperial Academy. Thus the former majority of peerage members was brought to an end and their number became equal to that of members chosen by Imperial order.

According to the present House of Peers Ordinance, the House is composed of the following members :

(a) . all the Imperial Princes above 20 years of age, and the Kotaishi and Kotaison, if above 18.

(b) all Princes and Marquises above 30 years of age, with the term of office for life.

(c) 18 Counts, 66 Viscounts and 66 Barons elected by the Peers of their respective ranks. They must be above 30 years of age and their term of office is 7 years.

(d) Imperial nominees from among statesmen and scholars who have made valuable contributions to politics or science. They must be above 30 years of age their term of office is for life. Their number must not exceed 125.

(e) 4 members of the Imperial Academy, elected by the members thereof and nominated by the Emperor. Their term of office is 7 years.

(f) Members elected by and from among the highest tax-payers, in any prefecture, in direct national taxation on land, income and business profits. Each member represents 100 such high taxpayers, his age must be above 30, and his term of service is 7 years. The number of this class of members must not exceed 66.

The House of Peers, therefore, consists of 150 Counts, Viscounts, and Barons, 195 representatives of statesmen, scholars and wealthy business men, and a certain number of Imperial Princes, Princes and Marquises, the number of the last named not being fixed for obvious reasons. The present (January, 1937) total of the members of the House of Peers was 408.

The House of Representatives The House of Representatives is composed of members elected by the people in accordance with the provisions of the Electoral Law. This Law was first promulgated simultaneously with the enactment of the Constitution in 1886, and has undergone many minor revisions since. Important revisions were made in 1900, 1919 and 1925. The Law of 1889 required yearly payment of direct national tax of ¥15 as a qualification for both candidates and voters, and prescribed the system of small constituencies and the open ballot. In 1900, the requirement of tax payment was removed in the case of candidates and lowered to 10 yen voters. Constituencies were divided into two classes municipal and rural, making each city an independent district and each prefecture one district; and the secret ballot was adopted. In 1919, the tax requirement was again lowered to 3 yen and the old small constituency system revived. In 1925, the male universal suffrage system was finally adopted, the division of municipal and rural districts was abolished, and a system of constituencies electing from 3 to 5 representatives each was established.

The universal suffrage of Japan is restricted as yet in comparison with that of Western countries, as to sex, age, residence and the conditions of eligibility. Women are totally ineligible and the age qualification for male voters is 25. The Electoral Law itself says nothing of the restriction on residence, but the list of voters must be made by Sept. 15 of the year previous to that of the general election and only persons who have lived a minimum period of one year in the same city, town or commune are eligible for inclusion. The Law also contains provisions for withholding the

right to vote from criminals, legally disabled persons, such as bankrupts, etc., actual holders of a peerage, persons engaged in the active combative services.

Candidates must be 30 years of age; otherwise their qualifications are the same as those for voters, except that of residence. The number of the members of the House of Representatives was 464, vacancies 2, at the end of March, 1937.

According to the relevant articles of the Constitution, the Diet has power over all affairs of state which belong to the responsibility of the State Ministers. There is, however, a working but not complete separation of the legislative and executive powers between the Diet and the Ministers. There are certain statutory limitations of the Diet's power to control the executive. The Imperial Diet must not interfere with matters pertaining to the Imperial House. Except in regard to matters within the Diet itself, it can neither use the power of administration directly upon the people nor represent the State vis-à-vis foreign nations.

Fixed Number of Lower House Representatives and Number of Votes at Recent General Elections

Date of Election	Representatives	Voters
March, 1904	379	757,788
May, 1908	379	1,582,676
May, 1912	381	1,503,650
March, 1915	381	1,546,341
April, 1917	381	1,422,118
May, 1920	464	3,069,787
May, 1924	464	3,288,368
Feb., 1928	466	12,409,078
Feb., 1930	466	12,813,192
Feb., 1932	466	13,095,621
Feb., 1936	466	14,479,553
April, 1937	466	13,938,456

Eunction of the Diet The Diet has five functions, namely, constituent, legislative, financial, general supervision of the administration, and executive on matters in the Diet itself.

(1) The constituent power of the Diet is confined to deliberation on constitutional amendment initiated by the Throne. Action can only be taken by a two-thirds majority of a quorum of two-thirds of the membership of both Houses, as provided for in Article 73 of the Constitution.

(2) The Emperor exercises the legislative power with the consent of the Imperial Diet, all laws and legislative ordinances must obtain that consent. Bills may be presented by the Diet itself as well as by the Government. The right of consent of course contains the rights of amendment and rejection. This right is subject only to the condition that the Diet's action does not contravene the Constitution, the Imperial House Law, and international law. Thus the power of legislative "consent" contains within it that of initiative. Legislative ordinances promulgated by the Emperor must be submitted to the Diet at the next session for approval or rejection but not amendment.

The legislative authority of the two Houses is equal in theory, and projects of law may be initiated in either. Naturally, therefore, no legislative enactment is complete without the consent of both Houses to all its provisions.

(3) The national budget must get the consent of the Diet. The budget is presented by the Government first to the Houses of Representatives, but consent to it must be accorded by both Houses. Article 70 of the Constitution, however, empowers the Government to take all necessary financial measures by Imperial Ordinance, and Article 71 empowers it, if the Diet has not voted on the budget or if the budget "has not been brought into actual existence" to carry out the budget of the previous year. National loans must obtain the consent of the Diet. All contracts outside the budget which involve state financial liability must also be approved by the Diet. Any disbursement of public money by the Government made without the Diet's consent between sessions must be submitted for approval at the earliest opportunity. The restrictions of the Diet's financial power, other than those mentioned above, are clearly stipulated in Article 67 of the Constitution. It is to be noted that the Budget as a project of administrative action is confined to expenditure. Revenue is determined by law, so that the Diet's control thereof comes within its general legislative competence.

(4) The responsibility of Ministers, collective or individual, to the Diet is not clearly established either in law or custom, but so far as the responsibilities of Ministers are concerned, the Diet clearly has a certain supervisory power. The Government can do what it wishes without the consent of the Diet in its administrative function, but the Houses can express independently of each other their judgement on what the Government has done. They may present written appeals to the Emperor against the actions of State Ministers. They can make proposals by resolution to the Government concerning administration.

They may receive petitions from the people (the only function of the Diet to keep a direct contact with the people), and if these concern administrative matters, they are handed to the Government with the opinion thereon of the Houses to which they were addressed. The Houses may also pass resolutions on important state matters which are not addressed to the Government directly, but which, being made public as they are, naturally have an effect on the Government's popularity if they contain adverse criticisms. In these ways the Diet subjects the Government to a limited measure of control.

The Diet has the right of investigating the conduct of the administration, although this is very narrowly limited and rarely used. The Diet has the right of making inquiries on the responsibilities of the Ministers, the right of receiving reports from the Government on the income and disbursements of the National Treasury, on the handling of petitions sent in by the people through the Houses, and on serious diplomatic questions, unless they are such as require absolute secrecy.

(5) The Houses of the Diet have the right of self-government as to the regulations of their own Houses, on the procedures of session, on the police system in the Houses. The House of Peers has also the right to be consulted by the Emperor as to the privileges of peers.

The Diet is convoked annually by the Emperor (under Article 41 of the Constitution) for a period of ordinary session of 90 days. This period may be prolonged if necessary by Imperial Order. Extraordinary sessions can be convened in the same way. The annual session is usually called at the end of the year, although there is no regulation to this effect in the Constitution, and continued to the end of the following March, so that the budget can be voted before the new fiscal year begins. The Emperor may give orders to open or close the Diet; or suspend the session for a certain number of days for negotiations between the Diet and the Government or the two Houses; or dissolve the House of Representatives. All these actions are taken on the advice of the Prime Minister.

Officials of the Houses Each House has a President and Vice-President. The President not only presides and keeps order during the sessions but also directs the business of the House between sessions. The manner of appointment of the officers differs in the two Houses. In the House of Peers, they are appointed by the Emperor from among its members for a term of 7 years, the House itself having nothing to do with the appointment. In the House of Representatives, the House chooses three candidates for each of these positions and the Emperor makes the appointments from among the candidates. Their term of office is that of the life of the House.

There is an Official Bureau attached to each of the Houses, and officials such as the Chief Secretary, secretaries, stenographers, and the chief sergeant are appointed by the Government, although they act under the orders of the respective House Presidents. Several things in the Japanese parliamentary system have been copied from the British and this official bureau is one of them.

The House of Peers has five and the House of Representatives four standing committees, and special committees are appointed when the need arises. Each House may sit as a committee of the whole for which chairmen are elected at the beginning of the session. The procedure of discussions and resolutions is similar to that customary in the English-speaking countries.

Local Government

The units of local government are four: the prefecture, the city, the town, and the commune.

The Prefecture Japan proper, except Hokkaido, is administratively divided into 3 urban prefectures and 43 prefectures which are administered by governors. The function of the governor is to be the highest local administrative organ of state, and, at the same time, the head of the prefecture as a unit of local self-government. He is directly controlled by the Ministers of State and takes charge of the general national administration within his prefecture. In a prefecture all administrative business is unified under the control of the governor who supervises every kind of administrative work in the district according to the orders of the Premier and Ministers of the Central Government. Thus, the scope of his function is quite large and complicated. The appointment and dismissal of governors is made by the Minister of Home Affairs.

The system of prefectural government has undergone several changes and the nature of the work done is not necessarily the same in all the prefectures, but it is common, at present, to divide the duties into three divisions, namely, the Home Affairs Division, the Educational Division and the Police Division.

Some prefectures have an Engineering Division.

As a unit of local self-government the prefecture stands between the state and the municipalities. It has a prefectural assembly and a prefectural council as organs for decision, but the right of decision of these organs is much narrower than that of the city assembly and council, while the chief executive is the governor who is officially appointed by the Central Government.

The prefectural Assembly is elected by universal suffrage, and the number of members is fixed by the law. Membership of the assembly is honorary and the term of service is four years.

The Prefectural Council is composed of 10 members elected by and from among the assemblymen. The Governor is ex-officio chairman of the council, which is in fact a standing committee of the assembly, although entrusted with certain functions of arbitration which are not specifically devolved from the larger body.

Hokkaido is not divided into prefectural districts, but is itself an administrative unit as a whole, under a governor, although it covers an area of 88,775,04 square kilometres and is thus many times as large as most of the perfectures. The Governor is controlled by the Minister of Home Affairs directly and his function and duties are mostly the same as those of a prefectural governor. The special features of his function are that he undertakes colonization work, that as there is no national forestry law applied to the district the administration of forestry is left altogether in his power, and that he has to take care of the native Ainu according to the Protection Law for the Hokkaido Natives. The Hokkaido office is divided into five divisions, namely, Home Affairs, Education, Civil Engineering, Colonization and Police. The organization and rights of the Hokkaido Assembly and Council are almost the same as those of similar bodies in the prefectures. (On the governmental system of the Colonies see Chapters XL-XLIII.)

The Municipality (City, Town, Village) In 1935 there were 127 cities, 1,680 towns and 9,788 villages in Japan proper. (A village here means an administrative unit composed of a village or villages.)

There was some measure of local self-government in old Japan. The heads of villages were chosen from among the villagers and were asked to rule over them. For some time after the Meiji Restoration, these customs were continued, although the official names of the heads of villages were changed. Moreover, towns and villages were allowed to exercise the right of managing public affairs with their own money as financial units. But it was with the formation of prefectural assemblies according to the new laws issued in July, 1878, that the local self-government of Japan began to assume a modern form. The self-government system of cities, towns and communes has been several times revised, the last revision being that of 1929.

There were formerly several restrictions on citizenship of the local communities, but according to the laws now in force every man is entitled to it in virtue of the male universal suffrage principle. The requirements of citizenship are about the same as those for the right to vote in parliamentary elections. Every male inhabitant of and over 25 years of age who has resided for a minimum period of two years in the same municipality is a citizen of the same and has the right to vote or to be elected and, at the same time, has the duty of accepting any honorary post of service to which he may be elected.

The organs of local self-government are the assemblies of the representatives and the chiefs of the municipalities. The fixed minimum number of representatives in these assemblies is 30 in the cities and 12 in the towns and communes. The cities have also councils of ten members elected by and from among the assemblymen.

The Mayor of a city is a salaried official while the corresponding posts in a town or commune are honorary in principle. Mayors are elected by their respective assemblies for a term of four years. Their function and responsibilities are diverse, for they not only administer the affairs of the municipalities but also handle matters delegated to them by the central and prefectural governments and are entrusted with the supervision of some public bodies. As servants of the central government they take charge of the census register and all the business related to it, the election of the members of the Lower House, several kinds of national investigation, public engineering, public hygiene, relief work, educational supervision and encouragement, and certain work under the Conscription Law. This work is done without consulting the local assemblies, but simply as entrusted by the respective national officials.

CHAPTER V

PARTIES AND POLITICS

Pre-party Cabinet Period

Japan's modern political life fairly started with the promulgation of the Constitution on February 11, 1889, and the opening of the Diet on November 25, 1890. The Imperial Edict for opening the national assembly within ten years was issued (see Chapter III) on October 12, 1881.

Party Formation Upon the issuance of the Imperial Edict parties began to be formed with a view to be prepared for the opening of the Diet. On October 18, 1881, the colleagues and comrades of Taisuké Itagaki drafted the rules of the new Jiyu-to Party and elected Itagaki President and N. Nakajima Vice-President at a preparatory meeting which was held at Asakusa, Tokyo. The governing principle of this party was that of Rousseau's social contract.

The next great party to be organized was the Kaishin-to. It came into being in March, 1882, with Shigenobu Okuma as President. The leading thought of this party was English liberalism, and it aimed at a healthy, mild policy with the educated class of people as its central constituency. It was, therefore, natural that the Kaishin-to won the sympathy of the intelligentsia of the cities, while the Jiyu-to got a hold on the people in the country districts, where the inhabitants were peasants who sympathized with more radical political thought because of their long sufferings under the feudal governments. Many parties were born contemporaneously. Besides the Kaishin-to and the Jiyu-to, 40 other parties, mostly local, were said to have been formed.

The first Ito Cabinet, which was organized in 1885 was not, of course, connected with any political party.[1]

The First Election The Jiyu-to was once dissolved into smaller groups, and the first general election was carried out on July 1, 1890, amid a general confusion of political parties. Its result was as follows so far as the political parties were concerned :

Daido Club 55, Kaishin-to 46, Patriotic Public Party 35, Conservative Party 22, Kyushu Association 21, Jiyu-to 17, Jichi-to 17, Officials 18, neutrals 69, independents 2.

This result presented a grave problem to the political parties, for none had a clear majority in the House of Representatives, so various amalgamations were effected before the opening of the first session of the Imperial Diet, and when it opened on November 25, 1890, the classification of the 300 members became as follows :

The Rikken-Jiyu-to (or Constitutional Liberal Party) 130, the Rikken-Kaishin-to (or Constitutional Progressive Party) 41, Taisei-kai 79, National Liberal Party 5, and outsiders 45. The first two were anti-government parties, while the second two were pro-government. The remaining 45 were neutral.

The House of Peers consisted of 252 members, classification being as follows :

10 Imperial Princes, 10 Princes, 21 Marquises, 15 Counts, 70 Viscounts, 20 Barons, 45 High-Tax-Payers, and 61 "Chokusen," i. e. those nominated by Imperial order.

According to the report of K. Suyematsu, Director of the Prefectural Bureau, Home Ministry, on the first election on July 1, 1890, the number of voters was 450,365 in all Japan of which abstention was but 6.1 per cent.

Franchise was given only to those who paid national tax of more than ¥15 a year and the prefecture which had the greatest percentage of voters as against the number of population was Shiga prefecture with 2 in every 100 of poulation, while Osaka and 25 prefectures had more than 1, and all other prefectures had less than 1, Tokyo standing lowest with 0.38. At that time Shiga was the richest prefecture, and Tokyo had but a small number of landowners who comprised most of the voters in the election in the previous century when Japan's industrialization was in its infancy and the accumulation of wealth in cities was just beginning.

Of the 300 members elected, 109, or one-third, was of the samurai class. As to the rate of representation Shizoku or

1 For the political movement before the issuance of the Imperial Edict see the Japan Year Book, 1933.

the samurai class sent 1 person in every 18,132 to the House of Representatives while Heimin or the common people sent 1 person in every 207,438. The number of people of the samurai class was 1,976,480, while that of the common people was 37,630,754 out of Japan's total population of 39,607,234 in 1890.

The average age of members was 42.3 classified as follows :

Age	No. of members
31	7
32-37	85
38-43	99
44-47	40
48-61	59
Above 62	10

The average age was more than 10 years younger than that of the members of the House in the 17th election in 1930, which was 52.6. Several reasons may account for this change, but probably the strongest was that, political questions rather than business enterprises held by far the greater attraction for the ambitious men in their thirties and forties, for politics was almost the sole topic of national interest at the time of the first election. Another reason is in the natural increase of the age of old members who have been elected many times.

The first platform of the Constitutional Liberal Party was : (1) To maintain the sacredness of the Imperial House and to extend the rights of the people, (2) To oppose such policies as might interfere with the individual freedom of the people in home affairs, and to conclude treaties on equal terms in foreign affairs, (3) To realize parliamentary government and organize a party cabinet. And with these ideals the party men waged a fight for the establishment of a real parliamentary government. The number of anti-government members in the Lower House far exceeded that of the pro-government, and the bureaucratic Yamagata Cabinet feared for its very existence. Hostilities between the two started with the choice of the President of the House of Representatives and continued over the first budget subjected to the discussion of the House. The budget amounting to ¥83,075,000 was cut down to ¥75,194,300, or about 9% reduction. But the first session of the Imperial Diet was closed in March, 1891, without dissolution.

Itagaki's Party Suffers The party which suffered most from the poison of secret governmental control was the Constitutional Liberal Party, and they held a general meeting at Osaka immediately after the first session of the Diet. At the meeting, Itagaki, who had retired when the party had been once dissolved, was again chosen President, its name was made simpler by cutting away the first word "Constitutional," and the unity of its members was strengthened. The Matsukata Cabinet was formed in May of the same year ; its head was as strong a foe to political parties as Yamagata, if not more so. Then there occurred, on May 11, 1891, the attack of a murderous fanatic on the Crown Prince of Russia at Otsu near Lake Biwa and a great earthquake wrought fearful destruction in Gifu and Aichi prefectures ; the Government was unable to cope with these emergencies while it was discredited in its policy against the parties.

Matsukata Cabinet Falls The second session of the Imperial Diet was convoked on Nov. 21, 1891, in a menacing atmosphere from the outset, and was finally dissolved on Dec. 25. The general election of Feb. 15, 1892, was carried out under extreme interference of the Government. Shinagawa, Minister of Home Affairs, ruled the local governors with an iron hand and used every measure for obtaining as many pro-governmental members as possible, the freedom of the vote being completely trodden underfoot. It was reported that 25 persons were killed and 388 were injured in this savage struggle. The result was, however, the victory of the anti-governmental party men, who numbered 163 against 137 of the pro-governmental. The unconstitutional policy of the Home Minister provoked the indignation of the people and Ito, President of the Privy Council, and compelled the Cabinet to change the Home Minister, and caused a discord among Cabinet members. The House of Representatives passed a vote of non-confidence in the third session, although the stubborn Matsukata Cabinet clung to its position in defiance of it.

But the Cabinet fell to pieces from within, right after the third session of the Diet, and the second Ito Cabinet was formed in August, 1892. It was Ito who drafted the Constitution and stood aloof from the political parties, although he later became the President of the Jiyu-to or the Liberal Party himself. And the Ito Cabinet cleverly managed the fourth session of the Diet which threatened a collision between the Cabinet and the Diet over the question of the Budget. But the Cabinet was taken to task by the Diet over the misbehaviour of some Ministers and the fifth

session was dissolved without any reason given on Jan. 30, 1894. At the third general election which occurred on March 1, 1894, the Ito Cabinet took a very fair attitude because Ito was always anxious to be or at least to seem constitutional. Its outcome was again disadvantageous to the Government, and the sixth session, which was convoked on May 12, 1894 was dissolved on June 2 because of the non-confidence resolution on the last dissolution and the diplomatic inability of the Government. It may be remarked here that Tsuyoshi Inukai, the late Premier, appeared on the surface of the political world for the first time at this session. He was a member of the Lower House from the beginning and had organized a progressive party of his own a little before this, but his motion of wholesale non-confidence was the first occasion that his earnestness and sincerity for the maintenance of parliamentary authority began to show itself.

The Sino-Japanese War The interval between the sixth and seventh sessions was but half a year, yet it was marked by many important political and diplomatic affairs. The Sino-Japanese War, 1894–1895, broke out in July, 1894. The general election was carried out on September 1 of the same year. The seventh session had been expected to witness a repeated collision of the Diet and the Government, but the first international war drew all the attention of the people and the session closed peacefully after lasting but four days instead of a week as fixed, on the 22nd of October, 1894, at Hiroshima, where the Emperor was staying during the war to command the Imperial Army and Navy. All parties were united for the national cause and supported the Government with one accord, and the military emergency budget amounting to ¥150,000,000 was immediately passed without any reduction. All the political conflicts at home were stilled in the face of the international war and the eighth session convoked on Dec. 22, 1894, was quietly carried out. The peace treaty with China was sanctioned on March 20, 1895. But the interference of the Three Powers on the lease of the Liaotung Peninsula aroused indignation throughout Japan, and this feeling soon centred in an attack on the Government.

A Political Bloc The Kaishin-to, Kakushin-to, People's Association, Chugoku Progressive Party, Financial Kakushin-to and Ohté Club were united in criticizing the Government's weak diplomacy, and formed a union called the Central Representative Club. The Liberal Party did not join the Club, because it had come to some understanding with the Government, and had a special connection with Ito, who gradually had drawn nearer to this political party. Just before the 9th session the Liberal Party took off its mask and openly declared its coalition with the Ito Cabinet. This was the first instance of a political party being publicly united with the Government.

The Progressive Party Ito's policy was a success and the 9th session ended in the victory of the Government by the faithful support of the Liberal Party. The defeated parties recognized the need of a stronger union and on March 1, 1896, the Kaishin-to, Kakushin-to and three other bodies dissolved themselves and organized the Shimpo-to or Progressive Party under Okuma. The platform of the new party was to exalt the sacredness of the Imperial House and to advance the rights and welfare of the people, (1) by establishing a responsible cabinet with the removal of political evils, (2) by enlarging the national power with the renovation of diplomacy, and (3) by developing private enterprises with the readjustment of the financial policy.

Since then the Liberal Party and the Progressive Party, as the two greatest political parties in the country, became rivals. The members of the Lower House, by party grouping, were as follows at the end of March : the Liberal Party 110, the Progressive Party 100, People's Association 32, Yamaguchi Group 5, Kishu Group 4, unaffiliated 49.

Itagaki Joins Ito After the 9th session, Itagaki of the Liberal Party entered the Ito Cabinet and took the post of Home Minister. The Ito Cabinet was in power three full years and managed numerous political matters of importance but it collapsed in August, 1896, mainly because of the difficulty of making the Budget meet the post-war financial need. The Matsukata Cabinet which came next was a coalition of Matsukata's Satsuma clan and Okuma's Progressive Party, for these two characters were most fitted to manage the financial difficulty of the country. This cabinet took a very progressive policy in removing long existing political evils and financial defects and its activity was welcomed with much expectation. But the Liberal Party, now in opposition, was ready to make attacks against the Cabinet which contained Okuma, their political enemy. The tenth session which was convoked on Dec. 25, 1896, passed off with little trouble for

the Government, although the Liberal Party attacked it on the score of its foreign diplomacy. It is to the credit of the Matsukata Cabinet that it established the gold standard of national currency.

Exit Okuma Okuma, Foreign Minister, resigned in November, 1897, and the relation between the Cabinet and his party was severed. Matsukata now endeavoured to get the support of the Liberal Party but in vain, and the Cabinet faced the 11th session of the Diet without any assistance from political parties. A non-confidence resolution was proposed by 38 members in the session and seconded by 150. On Dec. 25, 1897, the Lower House was suddenly dissolved, but the Cabinet itself resigned in miserable defeat. Itō was ordered to form a cabinet for the third time, and it was again a transcendental one. The 12th session was begun on May 14, 1898. The Government proposed an increase of taxes on land, saké, and incomes, but was defeated by an absolute majority of 247, and the House was dissolved in revenge. This action of the Government, however, greatly stimulated the development of anti-governmental parties and brought about an extraordinary political phenomenon. It was but a faint herald of the dawn of party government, but it gave a real shock for the first time to the foundations of the clan and bureaucratic forces in Japanese politics. Both the Liberals and the Progressives had had a very hard time in the past to wage war against clan statesmen and bureaucracy, but in most cases they had been treated by the latter like mere instruments for accomplishing their own purposes. Now they came to their senses and saw that their real foes were these same clansmen and bureaucrats who monopolized the government, and that their first aim must be the destruction of them. On June 21, 1898, both parties held final meetings simultaneously and dissolved themselves, and on the 22nd they all met at the Shintomi Theatre, Tsukiji, Tokyo, and amalgamated themselves into a new party, the Kenseikai, or Constitutional Party, to put an end to bureaucratic government and to establish a party government.

The Kenseikai and Itō All the elder statesmen, clan and bureaucratic bodies were alarmed in the extreme by this organization of the Constitutional Party. A meeting was called before the Emperor on the 24th and a hot discussion on counter measures against the power of the party was continued for several hours. Itō asserted that there were but three ways for him to meet the situation: either to form a governmental party himself to carry on the government, or to resign first and form a party to support the Government from outside, or lastly to surrender altogether before the Constitutional Party and let them organize a cabinet with Okuma and Itagaki at their head. Yamagata of the Nagato or Choshu clan was firmly opposed to this proposal and declared, "It is against the Japanese Constitution to establish a cabinet upon a party foundation; let us quit the Constitution for the time being if necessary to meet the critical moment!" On June 27, 1898, however, Okuma and Itagaki were finally called to the Imperial Court and ordered to form a cabinet. A coalition cabinet was thus formed on the 30th of that month, all the posts except those of Navy and War Ministers being filled by party men. Its composition was as follows:

Premier and Minister of Foreign Affairs, Okuma (Progressive); Home Minister, Itagaki (Liberal); Minister of Finance, Matsuda (Liberal); Minister of Justice, Daito (Progressive); Minister of Education, Ozaki (Progressive); Minister of Communications, Hayashi (Liberal); Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, Oishi (Progressive); Minister of War, Katsura (Choshu clan); and Minister of the Navy, Saigo (Satsuma clan).

It was, however, a combination of antagonistic forces for convenience' sake, and the partisans soon began to quarrel among themselves, so that the Constitutional Party, which tried to advance too quickly, soon split up again into the former Liberal and Progressive Parties, largely by the tactics of Toru Hoshi, who played an influential part in politics as a member of the Liberal Party, and was assassinated later in a room of the Tokyo City Hall. So the first party cabinet was compelled to dissolve without meeting a session of the Diet on Oct. 31, 1898, within four months of its formation.

Yamagata Returns Now came the turn of bureaucracy again, under Yamagata of the Nagato or Choshu clan (these two Japanese words indicate the same Nagato province at the south-western end of the Main Island), in November, 1898. Yamagata had had bitter experience with political parties and this time he succeeded in getting the support of the Liberal Party (which called itself Kenseitō as yet) and handled the 13th session of the Diet as he wished, many important revisions of the national laws being made,

and the military preparations being enlarged by raising the taxes on many important items.

It was during the life of this cabinet that the new treaties which had been concluded with foreign nations at the time of the former Ito Cabinet were put into force, and Japan came to stand on an equal footing with the other civilized countries of the world politically and diplomatically. This was on July 17, 1899. The Yamagata Cabinet accomplished great feats in the administration of complicated and extensive political affairs after the Sino-Japanese War, and laid the foundations for the future development of Japan. But as a representative of the old bureaucracy, a survivor of the discarded clan officials, he left many bureaucratic traces in the law and the governmental system by establishing the rule that the posts of War and Navy Ministers can be held only by officers on the active list, and by enlarging the power of the Privy Council, which hindered the healthy development of political parties in later days.

Satisfied with his own performance in the enlargement of military preparations, completion of laws and institutions in general, revision of the election law, improvement of local governments, and advancement in the educational system and institutions, Yamagata tendered his resignation to the Throne in September, 1900.

Ito Forms the Seiyukai A little before that, Ito returned from his tour of China and wanted to organize a powerful political party himself, and the Liberal Party was anxious to get him to revive its power after its separation from the Yamagata Cabinet. The party wished to put Ito at its head, while Ito wanted to organize a party purely of his own without the help of any existing party. But the general trend of political affairs at this time finally compelled these two to become united into one, and the Liberal Party was renewed by Ito, assuming a new name, Rikken Seiyukai, or Constitutional Party, on Sept. 15, 1900. On Oct. 9, 1900, Ito formed a cabinet for the fourth time, and it was welcomed by the party men and the people at large, but the reactionary movement of the House of Peers shortened its life, and Ito never again had an opportunity for organizing a cabinet, although he had much to do yet for national politics, especially in the field of Korean affairs.

The Katsura Cabinet On June 2, 1901, General Katsura formed his cabinet upon the basis of bureaucracy again. Katsura and the members of his Cabinet were rather young compared with those of the preceding cabinets, and the Elder Statesmen were anxious about their ability, but Katsura was quick to see the unrest in the Seiyukai and immediately took steps to control it for the convenience of the Government. In this he succeeded fairly well, and the 16th session of the Diet passed off in peace, at the beginning of the year 1902, winning, at the same time, the general applause of the people on the conclusion of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance on Feb. 12, 1902. The 7th general election was held on Aug. 10, 1902, in which the number of the Lower House members was enlarged from 300 to 376, and as the result the Seiyukai gained 189 seats, the Kensei-honto (Progressive Party) 104, the Empire Party 18, the San-shi Club 7, and independents 58. As is always the case with a bureaucratic cabinet, even this clever and skilled tactician met with strong opposition from the Elder Statesmen and the two great parties over the problem of raising funds for naval expansion by increasing the land tax, and the 17th session was dissolved because of a direct collision between the Lower House and the Katsura Cabinet. It did not end in the victory of the Government, but Katsura again made a painstaking effort to utilize parties, and found a way out in the 18th session by changing his policy from raising the land tax to floating a public loan to obtain the necessary means for the proposed naval extension.

Saionji Succeeds Ito The Katsura Cabinet had been in power over two years already and the general atmosphere suggested a change when the threatening state of affairs in Manchuria was further complicated by the aggressive policy of the Russian Government. Katsura was ordered to stay at his post although he tendered his resignation, largely because of the pressure of Ito, who was a Genro (see Chapter IV, Government, for the meaning of "Genro") and the head of the Seiyukai at the same time. According to the advice of Yamagata and Matsukata, who were also Genro, Ito and Saionji exchanged positions and President Ito of the Seiyukai was appointed President of the Privy Council; while Saionji, President of the Council, succeeded Ito as that of the Seiyukai.

Saionji is the only remaining Genro at present. He was a progressive statesman, and it was his earnest desire to see a pure party cabinet come into existence. He had been many times suggested as Premier but had always re-

fused, as he considered it unreasonable and bureaucratic to form a cabinet with no backing in the House of Representatives, so he gladly accepted this proposal of the Seiyukai and made great efforts for the revival of the party, which had shrunk to 120 from its absolute majority of 193 at the beginning of the 18th session largely because of long inner disturbances.

At the same time, the rival party Kensei-honto was also experiencing the same kind of internal troubles because of Katsura's despotic policy for reducing the power of all parties, and it was natural that the two parties should unite to impeach the Katsura Cabinet. The 19th session was convoked at the end of 1903, with Kono as President of the House of Representatives and Iyesato Tokugawa, that of the House of Peers. But this session was dissolved immediately after its opening meeting because of the resolution impeaching the Government.

War with Russia War was declared against Russia on Feb. 10, 1904. The emergency session of the Diet was convoked on March 18 and the regular one on Dec. 28 of the same year, and in the latter the Diet unanimously passed a budget of ordinary expenses ¥110,000,000 and war disbursement ¥780,000,000. The famous victories at Port Arthur, Mukden and the Japan Sea finally brought peace, and by the mediation of President Roosevelt the peace treaty was concluded between Japan and Russia on Sept. 5, 1905. On the same day riots broke out in Tokyo and other big cities because of the general dissatisfaction with the terms of the peace treaty, and Tokyo was put under martial law. Ito, President of the Privy Council, went to Korea by Imperial Order in November and that country was made a protectorate of Japan, Ito becoming the first Resident-General, while Komura, who returned from Portsmouth, immediately went to Peking and concluded treaties with China on Japanese rights and privileges to settle the problems arising from the peace treaty.

The Saionji Cabinet The Katsura Cabinet remained in power as long as 4 years and 7 months and accomplished several important enterprises, but taking the responsibility for the riots and for a disturbance in the Tokyo Imperial University, which also occurred in connection with the conclusion of the Peace Treaty, resigned in January, 1906, and Saionji was ordered to form a cabinet; but failed to organize one of pure party-government because of the great power of bureaucracy behind the national politics. The most important measure in the 22nd session of the Diet was that for the State ownership of all railways. With great difficulty it was passed with an amendment by the House of Peers. The peace-loving Saionji strove for the civilization of Manchuria, transforming the military rule into civil administration. It was an expression of this policy that the South Manchuria Railway Company was established in this year.

While the Seiyukai became prosperous as the government party, the Kensei-honto had a hard time and Okuma finally left it on Jan. 20, 1907.

The Saionji Cabinet continued for two-and-half years fighting against the forces of bureaucracy, and the Seiyukai obtained an absolute majority of 190 at the 10th election, May, 1908. But Saionji left his position a little after the election partly because of his illness and partly owing to the stubborn pressure of the bureaucrats, who were specially critical of his liberal policy toward the socialists, who had gradually increased in number since the Sino-Japanese War.

The Second Katsura Cabinet The second Katsura Cabinet which was formed on July 14, 1908, was of course bureaucratic. One notable event of the 10th election was the appearance of representatives of business men in the Lower House, prophetic of the rise of the business class who now rode on the universal tide of capitalism. Katsura saw the change of the times and allied himself with business men to realize his policy for a readjustment of the taxation system and consolidation of the public loan. But the Seiyukai having so large a number of seats as 193 in the Lower House at the 25th session, Katsura could do nothing without their agreement. With his usual tactics he came to a full understanding with them and the 25th and 26th sessions passed off very quietly.

The Kensei-honto kept only 65 seats in the Lower House and internal discord caused it to dwindle further. But stimulated by the increase of the Seiyukai, it united with other forces on March 13, 1910, and merged itself into a new party named the Rikken Kokuminto or Constitutional Nationalist Party. This new party had 92 members in the Lower House and was led by Inukai and Oishi.

During the three years' régime of the second Katsura Cabinet the outstanding events were the first general arrest of socialists and the annexation of Korea. The latter was hastened by the assassination of Ito by a Korean at Harbin

station on Oct. 26, 1909. Terauchi, Minister of War, was appointed to the additional post of Resident-General of Korea in May, 1910, and on Aug. 29 of the same year Korea was at last annexed to Japan.

Army Division Increase Question Saionji became Premier for the second time on Aug. 30 1911. His Cabinet was supported by 214 Seiyukai members in the House of Representatives and this time he could form it without much regard for bureaucracy, although he could not yet wholly get rid of its interference, both public and secret. While he was in power, the Emperor Meiji passed away amid the sorrow and lamentation of the people on July 30, 1912, and the Emperor Taisho came to the Throne. After this national event, bureaucratic forces began to work again and caused General Uyehara, Minister of War, to propose an increase of two Army divisions. Uyehara resigned his position independently because of the rejection of his proposal by he Cabinet. Saionji asked Yamagata to recommend his successor, but this Elder Statesman, who had himself established the military minister system for military and naval departments, and was the leader of the bureaucratic and military forces, rejected Saionji's request, and the Cabinet collapsed at once.

But this plot of the dark forces stirred up the party men to the extreme, and loud cries arose for the destruction of bureaucracy and protection of constitutional government, when Katsura appeared for the third time to form his bureaucratic government. Katsura tried every means to still the general antagonism, but in vain. Inukai, Ohoka and other influential party men led the national movement with the backing of public opinion for putting an end to bureaucracy, and the situation became so critical that to push Katsura's policy further meant something like the outbreak of a civil war, consequently he was compelled to resign after but 53 days. This was an epoch-making event in the political history of Japan and real party-government was now at hand although Katsura was succeeded by Yamamoto, who was one of the foremost navy men at that time.

Yamamoto to Okuma The defeated Katsura sadly realized the power of parties and organized the Rikken Doshikai or Constitutional Comrades Party after his resignation, and the 31st session of the Diet was held at the beginning of 1914, with the classification of members of the Lower House as follows :

Seiyukai	203	Chuseikai	37
Doshikai	93	Independents	7
Kokuminto	40		

The Yamamoto Cabinet was supported by the Seiyukai and had no doubt about passing the Navy Increase Bill. But the unexpected exposure of bribery in high naval circles, the so-called "Commission Scandal", caused the overthrow of the Government at the end of March, 1914. The council of Genro had difficulty in choosing the person to be recommended for the Premiership and after considering several candidates Okuma was finally ordered to form a cabinet.

About 15 years had passed since Okuma left his party the Kenseito, and when he once more took the position of Premier the public welcomed him with sympathy and he answered to the public goodwill by reducing the power of navy men in politics with the support of the Doshikai which contained many former members of the old Kenseito. It was during his premiership that Japan entered the World War on Aug. 23, 1914.

It was the Seiyukai's turn to tread the thorny path of opposition. President Saionji had left it in 1913, and Hara had been its practical leader since then, and the number of members was declining when the question of election of the President arose. Opinions were divided and many a member wanted to call Saionji back, but he was too unselfish to accept the proposal and earnestly recommended Hara to be the new President of the Seiyukai.

The new President Hara was a plain untitled man, but a man of rare ability, and the Seiyukai renewed its strength under his leadership.

Okuma's Sweep The 35th session was dissolved because of the rejection of the Army Division Increase Bill by the Seiyukai and the Nationalist Party. The general election of March, 1914, ended in victory for the pro-government parties, largely because of the aggressive interference of Oura, the Home Minister, the backing of a business clan and the sympathetic campaign conducted by the faculty and students of Waseda University, which had been founded by Okuma. The Doshikai gained 150 seats in the House of Representatives against 104 of the Seiyukai, which was reduced to half its former number. But the latter stubbornly attacked the Government on Oura's interference with the election and other matters, and compelled Oura to leave the Cabinet by bringing a public suit against him. O-

kuma once tendered his resignation to the Throne in relation to this matter, but was asked to stay at his post and reorganize the Cabinet on July 30, 1915, thereby prolonging its existence for three months.

The Rice Riots At this time the Kenseikai was organized under Takaaki (Komei) Kato by the combination of the Doshikai Party, the Koyu Club, and the Chuseikai on Oct. 10, 1915, in the expectation of organizing the next cabinet. But Masataké (Seiki) Terauchi was recommended instead, and he again formed a transcendental government, a sort of off-shoot of the old Choshu clan; he soon met with a vote of non-confidence by the Lower House, and the 38th session was instantly dissolved. After the general election the Terauchi Cabinet got the support of the Seiyukai and the Nationalist Party and managed to get through the 39th and 40th sessions without damage to the Government. But the general cost of living shot up to unreasonable heights owing to the vast increase of capitalistic business during the World War, and the artificial rise in the price of rice caused nationwide rice riots in August, 1918, which shook the foundation of the Cabinet, so that Terauchi was forced to resign on Sept. 21.

Formation of Party Government

Among the five Genro, Inouyé and Oyama, who had been the commander of armies at the time of the Russo-Japanese War, had died, and Yamagata, Matsukata and Saionji were the only ones now left, and they chose Saionji, the youngest, to be the next Premier. The Emperor requested Saionji to form a cabinet, but he was clever enough to see the progress of democracy among the people and courteously declined the Imperial appointment and recommended Hara instead. Yamagata finally yielded and gave his consent to this decision, but asked Hara to form a coalition cabinet of the Seiyukai and the bureaucrats.

The First Party Cabinet Hara rejected his suggestion and for the first time in Japanese party history a cabinet was organized by party men only, except for two or three ministers who were mostly pro-Seiyukai.

As was mentioned above, the political parties of Japan were originated by the statesmen of the samurai class and had much of the bureaucratic element in themselves, and the clan statesmen had the confidence of the Imperial Court and wielded real power in general politics as a matter of fact, regardless of the public opinion represented and expressed by the political parties or through the press. Up to the first half of the Taisho Era the political parties could not make much progress as independent bodies, and were almost always made use of by the clan statesmen or military leaders, not having enough power of their own to form a party cabinet, but allowing themselves to become tools of bureaucracy even when the head of the party himself organized a cabinet. But the remarkable development of capitalism and the rapid progress of democratic thought among the people at the time of the World War and afterwards caused a decline in the power of the bureaucrats. The coming of Hara, President of the Seiyukai, who was a commoner, into power gave almost the last blow to the old bureaucracy, which gradually faded away by the beginning of the Showa Era.

Hara's Policy The policy of the Hara Cabinet was, in outline, the completion of national defence, the improvement of the educational system, the promotion of all business and the adjustment of traffic organs. The establishment of the jury system, the improvement and enlargement of the higher educational organs, and the revision of the Election Law must be counted to the credit of this Cabinet. Hara showed his democratic spirit in revising the military governmental system of Taiwan and Chosen so that a civil official might become the Governor-General of a colony. The 41st session passed without much disturbance. But the Seiyukai had not yet an absolute majority and when the anti-cabinet parties proposed the bill of universal suffrage at the following session, Hara took advantage of it and dissolved the Lower House to get his much-wanted majority. The result of the general election held on May 10, 1920, was as follows:

Seiyukai	279	Kokuminto	29
Kenseikai	108	Neutrals	48

Hara was able to do as he pleased, for he again had the support of the great Seiyukai, and pushing aside all opposition from his political foes he was advancing brilliantly toward the completion of the said policies when he fell a victim to the dagger of a young assassin at Tokyo Station on Nov. 4, 1921. He was succeeded as President of the Seiyukai by Korekiyo Takahashi, who organized his Cabinet after the incident, but it was short-lived and was compelled to resign within 6 months. The Seiyukai had troubles among them-

selves, while the other great party, the Kenseikai, was rather weak so that bureaucratic cabinets were organized one after another for about three years. When Count Kiyoura formed his bureaucratic Cabinet in Jan., 1924, the Seiyukai was divided into two on the question of supporting or not supporting the new cabinet, and the majority of its member who were pro-cabinet seceded from the Seiyukai and organized the Seiyuhonto under the leadership of Yamamoto, Motoda, Nakahashi and Tokonami.

The General Election of 1924 The Kiyoura Cabinet dissolved the 48th session of the Imperial Diet and at the general election which was held in May, 1924, the opposition parties, namely, the Kenseikai and the Kakushin Club stood up against the Government rallying their forces in defence of parliamentarism, and under Premier Kato who was the head of the then largest party, the Kenseikai, a coalition cabinet of the three parties was realized. This was the death-blow to the bureaucracy of Japan; the clan chieftains and bureaucrats entirely lost their power as a political class and the bourgeois parties completely took their place, the final blow being the passing of the Universal Suffrage Law at the 50th session of the Diet.

Universal Suffrage

The 50th session of the Diet was convoked on Dec. 25, 1924, and it became a memorable one by passing the Universal Suffrage Bill. The demand for universal suffrage had a long history, but it seemed impossible to realize it as long as bureaucracy had its iron grip on all such questions. But the time had come for the mass of the people to voice their convictions on politics with freedom. This time the Government itself drafted the bill and it was first subjected to the examination of the Privy Council. The conservative Council advised revisions and the Government sent to the House of Representatives which passed the original bill of the Government and sent it to the House of Peers. The latter House could not directly oppose it, but passed it with amendments on weighty points pretty nearly to the same degree as those of the Privy Council. The consultations between the two Houses were repeated, and the Universal Suffrage Bill was at last passed, to come into force on May 5, 1925. The antagonistic attitude of the House of Peers toward universal suffrage resulted in a revision of the House of Peers Law to the effect that the number of Kazoku or noblemen among its members was decreased.

Side by side with the accession of the bourgeois parties to power, there broke out many political movements of radicals and proletarians in the form of political parties (see the following articles on these parties). Radicals among the existing parties organized their own party, the Kakushin Club, memtioned above, in Nov., 1922, by the combination of the group of Ozaki, Shimada and their comrades who had left the Kenseikai, with the Nationalist Party which was led by Inukai, and one other group. But in May, 1925, it broke up, and Inukai and his colleagues joined the Seiyukai. Later the Kakushin Club dwindled into a very small party, although it played an important part in the doings of the Imperial Diet.

There was another movement organized by business men under the leadership of Sanji Muto in April, 1923, but this party was unable to get much sympathy from the general public.

Tanaka to Hamaguchi Viscount Takahashi resigned the Presidency of the Seiyukai and General Baron Tanaka was called to succeed him in April, 1925. This change broke up the unity of the Coalition Cabinet of the three parties mentioned above, and it was forced to give up office. It was followed by a Kenseikai Cabinet under Premier Kato in August of the same year. The Premier fell ill and died, and Wakatsuki, the new President of the Kenseikai was ordered to form a cabinet in January, 1926. Tokonami, who led the Seiyu-honto, took a very ambiguous attitude toward the other parties, but finally joined Wakatsuki and the two parties became one on June 1, 1927, assuming the new name of Minseito. Of this new party Hamaguchi became President while Wakatsuki and Tokonami were made advisers.

On the other hand, the Seiyukai began to rally its power gradually under the leadrship of Tanaka, inviting Inukai and his comrades and a part of the Seiyu-honto to join them and after the collapse of the Wakatsuki Cabinet in April, 1927, the Tanaka Cabinet came into being. But unsatisfied with the result of the first general election by universal suffrage in 1928, they tried to collect as many members as possible from among the neutrals and the Minseito. At the same time, Tokonami, who had lost hope of becoming the head of the new Minseito Party, seceded from it in August of the same year, and afterward, when the Hamaguchi Cabinet was formed in July, 1929, he went back to his old home, the Seiyukai.

In July, 1929, Hamaguchi organized the Minseito Cabinet and his party won an absolute majority in the House of Representatives as the result of the second universal suffrage election in the following year. But on Nov. 14, 1930, Hamaguchi was shot at Tokyo Station, and although he lived another year his wound finally proved fatal and hard times again visited the Minseito. Wakatsuki became its President again and formed a Cabinet in April, 1931.

With retrenchment as its warcry, the Wakatsuki Cabinet carried out a general reduction of the salaries of officials and tried to make readjustments in the administrative, financial and tax systems, but without success. The Manchurian Incident of Sept. 18, 1931, occurred near Mukden. The Manchurian problem and the relations between Japan and China had been becoming more acute year by year and the Manchurian railway affair called the attention of the world to the impending collision of the two nations. The incident proved a turning-point in the drift of national politics which now headed in a very different direction not only in diplomacy, but also in many home affairs. The Army and Navy took the lead over the Manchurian problem, no doubt, but they could do so only because the people at large sympathized with and supported them. The budget for the fiscal year 1931–1932 could not be made out without floating a national loan or increasing the taxes, which would of course be most unwelcome to the people. Rowdiness and riotous struggles in the House of Representatives at the 59th session which was held at the beginning of 1931, greatly lowered the standing of the House in the eyes of the people and the inability of the Imperial Diet to take any decided course of action after the Manchurian Incident brought parliamentary government into discredit with the nation, and this state of affairs much affected the stability of the Wakatsuki Cabinet. In October, 1931, Wakatsuki expressed his wish to resign, and there arose discussions on the wisdom of forming a new cabinet which might combine the forces of the Minseito and Seiyukai. But opinion was divided, and in the end the Wakatsuki Cabinet was forced to resign on December 11.

Inukai and the Embargo Inukai, who became President of the Seiyukai in 1929 after the death of Tanaka, publicly announced his idea of reimposing the gold embargo at the general meeting of his party on November 10, and the resignation of the Wakatsuki Cabinet, which came immediately after it, therefore, suggested the possibility of something serious taking place with the choice of the succeeding government. Saionji, the Genro, laid the nomination of Inukai to the Premiership before the Throne, and on December 13, 1931, the single Seiyukai Cabinet came into power.

The Inukai Cabinet proclaimed the reimposition of the gold ban on the day following its installation, as had been expected. This Cabinet had a minority in the Lower House, so they intended to dissolve the Diet at the coming session when suitable occasion arose, to seek for an expression of national confidence at the general election, and hastened to make preparations for it. Hardly had a week passed before it changed most of the local governors to those who were favourable to the Seiyukai, because these officials had direct influence over the general election. The new Cabinet assumed the post but two weeks before the 60th session of the Diet and had no time for planning a budget of its own, it had, therefore, to borrow that of the Wakatsuki Cabinet. It was, nevertheless, presented to the Diet with some changes or revisions, but it failed to be passed because of the dissolution on January 21, 1932.

Previous to this, an unexpected event endangered the life of the Cabinet. It was nothing less than a bomb thrown at the Emperor's procession near the Sakurada Gate of the Palace Grounds and before the headquarters of the Metropolitan Police. The Emperor and an Imperial Prince narrowly escaped injury. This act of "lèse majesté" compelled the cabinet to resign, but the Emperor did not ask them to assume responsibility, and encouraged them to continue in office, and Inukai and other members of the Cabinet pledged their patriotism and loyalty to the Throne, in spite of public opinion which was rather against their holding on to the reins of power.

The Seiyukai's Victory The general election of Feb. 20th was carried out amidst the apparent apathy of the people because their attention was absorbed by the Manchurian problem and the events in Shanghai which seemed to be impelling the nation towards international discord, with war as a final outcome. But the result was that the Seiyukai, the government party, piled up the grand majority of 304 while the Minseito dwindled to 146.

The Seiyukai Cabinet, which had gained the absolute majority in the House of Representatives, was to call an extraordinary session of the Diet in March to decide upon the emergency

military expenses.

The May 15 Affair In the meantime, the new State of Manchoukuo was born, and the activities of international diplomacy helped to solve the complications in Shanghai, warfare there being terminated by mutual agreement. But Japan's international relations became strained and the world's attitude toward Japan became increasingly unfavourable, which reacted badly on the Inukai Government. The financial condition held out little hope for the business world, and the Government was unable to make any positive plans for the present and future of the public welfare. On the other hand, the general social and political unrest, and the discredit brought on parliamentary government helped the rapid growth of national socialistic thought in the minds of the people, and the organization of various Fascist associations among the hot-heads, both young and old. The repeated assassinations disturbed the public mind to the last extreme, and alarming rumours spread from the metropolis to the remotest parts of the Empire. The veteran statesman Inukai, the Premier, was eager to protect parliamentarism by making a thorough improvement of the political parties and realizing an even distribution of political benefits among the people in general instead of a partial accumulation of it in the hands of privileged classes. But the younger elements of the nation were too hasty-tempered to place reliance in his words and idealism, and on the evening of May 15, 1932, a dozen young cadets and officers of the Imperial Army and Navy armed with pistols broke into his official residence at Nagata-cho, Tokyo, and finding him in his Japanese sitting room pointed their weapons at him. "Wait a moment," said Inukai quietly. "Let us talk things over and you will understand my ideas." But without answering a word they fired, and the Premier fell. At the same time another band of young farmers attacked the transformer stations in the suburbs with intent to throw the city into darkness, but they were caught before they could carry it out.

The Saito Cabinet Consequently the Cabinet, having lost its head, immediately tendered its resignation to the Throne. Saionji recommended Viscount Saito to the Throne after a thorough consultation with such experienced statesmen as might well be called vice-Genro. The Saito Cabinet was composed of five bureaucrats, three representatives of the House of Peers, three Seiyukai members, and two Minseito members, so that it was called a "National Cabinet."

At its second extraordinary session in 1932, the Imperial Diet passed the most important resolutions on the relief of the financial hardship of farmers and the recognition of the new state Manchoukuo. The latter was carried out in spite of obstacles, visible or otherwise, and to carry out the former decision a vast amount of money was needed in order to give substantial aid to the hard-stricken farmers, with their debt of ¥4,000,000,000.

The 64th Session of the Diet The 64th session of the Imperial Diet was convened on Dec. 24, 1932, with the following line-up in the Houses:

House of Peers:	
(Number of members, 402, vacancies 4)	
Imperial Princes	18
Kenkyukai	148
Koseikai	69
Dowakai	41
Kōyū Club	40
Kayokai	34
Doseikai	15
Independents	37
House of Representatives:	
(Number of members, 456, vacancies 7)	
Seiyukai	298
Minseito	116
Kokumin-Domei	32
Proletarian Parties, etc.	13

This session closed on March 25, 1933. It was a peaceful or rather monotonous one, and passed the budget of over ¥2,300,000,000 without a single cut, and 51 of the 53 bills proposed by the Government and 7 of the 97 bills proposed by the members of the Diet. Among those passed, there were such important laws as the Farm-Village Debt Readjustment Law, a law for the relief of the people of Tohoku district who had suffered from earthquake and tidal waves, the Child Ill-treatment Prevention Law, the Juvenile Protection Law, and the revision of the Iron-manufacture Promotion Law which meant the union of all the largest iron-manufacturing works.

Political Movement of the Proletariat

There were frequent outbreaks of rice riots in the days of the Tokugawa Shogunate. But the samurai class was above the farmers and artisans, who had neither political power nor military force.

Labour Movement Takes Shape When modern commerce and industry were

introduced to Japan in the Meiji Era and capitalism began to have sway over the working people, labour movements became active as a matter of course.

On the 1st of December, 1897, the Iron Workers' Union was organized in Tokyo with over one thousand members, and this was the first trade union in Japan.

Public Peace Police Law In 1900 the Imperial Diet passed a bill and enacted it into a law. The law was entitled the Public Peace Police Law. It proved to be the death knell to all phases of the labour movement, preventing the working classes from organizing themselves into unions. The law practically prohibited the industrial working classes as well as the tenant farmers from agitating in their own interests and against the employers and land-owners: And later the law was interpreted to mean that all labour movements were a crime.

In 1901, a socialist party was organized which was called the Social Democratic Party, the original members being S. Kotoku, I. Abé, N. Kinoshita, K. Kawakami, K. Nishikawa, and S. Katayama. It was soon suppressed by the authorities and transformed into a non-political organization, namely, the Socialist Association.

Marxism Introduced It was in 1903 that the socialist theory of Marxism was first introduced to the Japanese radicals, and the theory soon attracted large numbers of students. In 1906, the Socialist Party was organized for the second time, and on Feb. 17, 1907, the first anniversary meeting of the party was held in Tokyo. The resolution at the meeting announced the aims of the party as follows : a radical and fundamental change of the existing society, universal suffrage, anti-militarism and anti-religion. Later the socialists began conflicts and were divided over the question of socialist tactics into two groups, i. e. Marxists and direct actionists. Secret activities of radical socialists and stern suppression of the same by the Government developed more and more desperate tactics on both sides, and the Government finally came by a chance to destroy the entire socialist movement in the bud. They instituted the famous anarchist trial in 1911, in which Kotoku and twenty-three others were condemned as traitors, and he with eleven others suffered the death penalty.

Marxist propaganda and leadership of strikes and even anarchists' movement did not cease with the trial and execution of Kotoku and his comrades. One of the most conspicuous events in the annals of their movement was the death of S. Osugi and his colleagues at the hands of the reactionaries in the midst of the Great Earthquake commotion in Tokyo in 1923.

But it must be said that Japanese social movement entered upon a new phase by the stimulus from the Russian Revolution in 1917 and its later development.

The Labour-Farmer Party The suppression of the Nippon Socialist Party in 1907 and the stern policy of the Government against socialist movements made the Japanese proletariat suffer and grope in the dark for the next decade.

In June, 1924, a society was established for the study of politics to prepare for the organization of a proletarian party. And by the proposal of the Japan Farmers' Union the first national proletarian party was organized on Oct. 1, 1925, and it was called the Farmer-Labour Party. But this party met the Government's order of suppression on the very day of its organization because of its communistic elements. Thereupon, the left-wing elements were expelled and the right-wing elements, namely the Japan Federation of Labour, were added, and in March, 1926, the Labour-Farmer Party was formed, with Mr. Motojiro Sugiyama as its president.

Schism in Proletarian Parties The Labour-Farmer Party soon became a nest of quarrelling cliques, and the question of opening the door to communistic elements gave a motive for the secession of the Japan Federation of Labour and the right leaders Iso-o Abé, Toyohiko Kagawa, etc., who established the Social Democratic Party with the Federation as its main element and Abé as its President on December 5, 1926. The new party rejected communism and insisted upon parliamentarism as a pure social-democratic party.

Contemporaneous with the formation of the Social Democrats, the left-wing elements of the Japan Federation of Labour and the right-wing elements of the Japan Farmers' Union organized the Japan Labour-Farmer Party under the leadership of Hisashi Aso on December, 9, 1926, insisting upon the establishment of a right road for the proletarian movement.

The Labour-Farmer Party, which was stripped of half its force by the continuous secession of the right-wing elements, made Ikuo Ohyama its head and opened its doors to the communistic societies. The result was that it was practically led by the Japan Communists and played the part of a legitimate communistic party ; and it was compelled to dissolve on the 10th of

April, 1928, being suppressed by the Tanaka Cabinet after the wholesale arrest of the Japan Communists on the 15th of March of the same year.

The old leaders of the dissolved Labour-Farmer Party organized a preparatory society for the establishment of a new party and endeavoured to realize their plan, but always met with the pressure of the authorities, and finally organized the Proletarian People's Party under the theoretical leadership of Hitoshi Yamakawa.

Their Union In the meantime, the right-wing elements of the Japan Union of Farmers organized the Japan Farmer Party with the idea of establishing a representative Japanese party of farmers under the slogan, "Farmers come to the Party of Farmers," on October 17, 1926, and there arose many small local proletarian societies or parties in different districts.

Such rivalry and disunion among proletarian parties naturally called forth a demand for the unification of fighting lines, and the parties, which kept to the middle way, like the Japan Labour-Farmer Party, the Japan Famer-Labour Party and the General Proletarian Party, which were the three national proletarian parties, and the Proletarian Constitutional Party, the People's Party in the central district and two other local parties were all united into one and organized the Japan Mass Party.

The General Proletarian Party organized an anti-separation union and protested against the leaders of the Japan Mass Party, but they themselves were soon dissolved into the Tokyo Proletarian Party for the Masses and other local proletarian parties.

The leaders of the former Labour-Farmer Party, who had formed a preparatory society for the establishment of a new party just after the dissolution of their party, continued their movement for its reconstruction, but their project was prohibited half-way, and the preparatory society itself was ordered to close. They were thus compelled to organize a labour-farmer union, an illegitimate body, for obtaining political freedom and did not cease to follow a communistic policy. But they were involved in the wholesale raids on the Japan Communists on March 15, 1928, and April 16, 1929, in which the ablest radical leaders were accused of being members of the Communistic Party and were mostly arrested so that their movement came to an end. The leaders who escaped the raid such as Ikuo Ohyama and Hajimé Kawakami organized a Labour-Farmer Party on November 1, 1929. The purpose of their new movement was to proclaim the need of obtaining the right of public activity as a lawful left-wing party by establishing a standing political organization.

While the left and midway parties had been continually combining and re-dissolving, the right-wing party of the proletariat or Social Democratic Party alone developed without a hitch for some time, but in Sept., 1929, the Osaka Union of the Japan Federation of Labour, the main element of the party, separated from the federation and consequently withdrew from the party and established the National Democratic Party on January 15, 1930. But this party was united with the Japan Mass Party on the 20th of July of the same year and formed the National Mass Party.

The N. L. F. Mass Party The movement for the greater union of the proletarian parties was continued and the Society for the Realization of Unity of Proletarian Parties, which was a bloc of those who insisted on the unconditional union among the members of the National Mass Party, the Labour-Farmer Party, organized the National Labour-Farmer Mass Party on the 5th of July, 1931. In this new party there was no head of the central executive committee, but Hisashi Aso, President of the former National Mass Party, was appointed to the chair of the chief secretary, who also served as Acting President. Ikuo Ohyama, President of the former Labour-Farmer Party, retired from all official positions and went abroad. This National Labour-Farmer Mass Party stood between the extreme left and right, but the inner control gradually became loose and Hajimé Kawakami and Kanemitsu Hososeko were expelled along with some other members. These two were arrested as strong sympathizers with the Japan Communists.

Social Mass Party In 1931, the National-Socialist movement suddenly appeared on the surface of the sea of social unrest, and the tide of Fascism began to permeate the proletarian fighting lines; the right-wing of the legitimate proletarian parties turned toward National Socialism. On the other hand, the left-wing was influenced by the Japan Communists, who never ceased their clandestine movements in spite of the constant interference of the authorities, and the power of the proletarian parties was greatly reduced. This state of affairs induced another union, and on the 24th of July, 1931, the Social Mass Party was organized by the union of the Social Democratic Party and the National La-

bour-Farmer Mass Party. This new party elected Iso-o Abé, Chairman of the Central Executive Committee; and Hisashi Aso, Chief Secretary. The platform of the party was as follows:

(1) We will fight for the protection of the lives of the labour, farmer, and general working masses.

(2) We aim at the destruction of capitalism and the emancipation of the proletariat.

And this new party is acting as a social democratic party, rejecting both Communism and Fascism.

Universal Suffrage and Proletariats Since the birth of proletarian political parties with the purpose of sending representatives to the Diet, there had been three general elections. At the third general election, since the institution of universal suffrage, which was held on February 20, 1932, under the Inukai Cabinet in consequence of the dissolution of the Diet at the 60th session in the previous month the proletarian parties made plans for fighting against capitalistic parties, from their past experiences and on the basis of their characteristic principles and policies, and sending out 36 candidates, fought bravely with public speeches as their only weapon. The result was 5 members elected, with the gain of 290,979 votes. To make a comparison with the former elections, the number of successful candidates on the first occasion was 8 or 3 more, and on the second one it was 5 or the same number as at the last, while in the number of votes they lost at the third election 201,242, compared with the first one, and 207,242, compared with the second one. But the number of the candidates was much smaller than in previous elections, so that the number of votes per capita increased to 8,083 from 5,593 of the first and 5,475 of the second election, or every proletarian candidate at the latest election gained about 3,000 more votes than at the previous two general elections.

The National Socialists

Orientation to National Socialism In 1931 the Labour Union established the Japan Labour Club with the purpose of realizing a great union of the right wing. Stimulated by the supremacy of Fascism in Italy and the Fascisti movement of the Nazis in Germany, there appeared a movement for National Socialism among the members of the Social Democratic Party. Besides, after the Manchurian Incident the atmosphere among the Japanese people was very suitable for the growth of nationalism and patriotism, and the national socialistic section of the Party increased their power under the leadership of K. Akamatsu, chief secretary, and R. Hirano.

Their Platform At the same time, National Socialism began to make its mark among the members of the National Labour-Farmer Mass Party, which kept to the middle way, and especially it gained power among the members who belonged to the National Labour Union, the strongest supporter of the party. Some powerful leaders of the National Labour Union moved for the establishment of a National Socialistic Party, but their motion was rejected by the party and they seceded from it in one body. The seceders met with those from the Social Democrats, and, on the 29th of May, they established the Japan National Socialist Party with K. Akamatsu at its head.

The rise of the nationalistic tide, which coaxed the proletariat partisans away, correlatively gave inspiration to the activities of the old nationalists, and their leading principles began to take national socialistic colour in compliance with the change of the social state of affairs.

The Production Party The Great Nippon Production Party, an extreme right-wing party, which had hailed Japanese nationalism but vaguely, showed a sudden activity and absorbed the Nippon Nationalists, the Radical Patriots and other parties of similar nature at the end of 1931. Their aim was the reconstruction of anti-nationalistic institutions, according to the fundamental national spirit of Japan.

The Jimmu-kai On February 11, 1932, the anniversary of the Foundation of the Empire, the Jimmu-kai, a strong nationalists' society, was organized. The central element of the society was the Ko-chi Sha of Dr. Shumei Ohkawa, who had intimate connections with military men, and the new party was also helped by Hiroichiro Ishihara, a business man, Daisaku Komoto, a colonel, and the like. At the general election of 1932, rallying the young members of the Ko-chi Sha, the Great Nippon Production Party and other Nationalistic bodies, they sent out bands on a canvassing tour over the whole country for the propaganda of Nipponism. It is said that they gained over 50,000 new members in a month or so of the campaign. (The Jimmu-kai was dissolved in 1935.)

Super-legal Movements of the Rights In addition to the national commotion arising from the Manchurian Incident, the failure of the crops in the north-eastern districts dealt a heavy blow to the poor villagers groaning under fi-

nancial depression, and the problem of finding some means of relieving the people in the emergency became so acute that no time was to be lost. This nation-wide suffering and anxiety urged the right-wing movement to proceed to extremities, and they passed far beyond the limits of lawful action. In the midst of the election campaign, on February 9, 1932, Junnosuké Inouyé, ex-Minister of Finance, was shot to death by a young man, Konuma, of the Blood Brotherhood League headed by Nissho Inouyé, a priest of the Nichiren sect. On March 5, Takuma Dan, Chairman of the Board of Trustees of the Mitsui Company and one of the ablest contemporary business men, was assassinated by Hishinuma, a member of the same secret association. At 5:30 on the afternoon of the 15th of May, Premier Inukai was killed. This was the so-called "5:15 Affair" as it occurred on the fifteenth of the fifth month, 1932. The after-claps of the event appeared in the secret plots of Dr. Imamaki, adviser to the Jimmu-kai, in the middle of August, and of the Tenko-kai and the Independent Young Men's Association in November, finally at the arrest of Dr. Shumei Ohkawa, head of the Jimmu-kai and the Far Eastern Economic Research Bureau.

Later investigations showed that those directly connected with the affair were 10 young Navy officers, 11 students of the Military College and 21 farmers and scholars. After the arrest of members of the Blood Brotherhood League formed by Nissho Inouyé, who entertained a plan to kill representative men one by one, his comrades undertook the continuation of the work. Lieutenant Hitoshi Fujii, a leader, had died in the battle at Shanghai on February 5, 1932, but had left a strong influence among his friends. Second lieutenants Kiyoshi Koga and Yoshio Nakamura, who belonged to the Kasumigaura airship corps, began to form bands with a view to bringing about a new government with the military as the central force, in plunging Tokyo into a state of siege by their sudden attack upon the capital. In the plot they were soon united by Kozaburo Tachibana, head of the Aikyo Juku (Village Loving School) of Ibaraki prefecture and a leader of the agricultural movement. Dr. Shumei Ohkawa, Hidezo Toyama, head of the Tenko-kai, and Kenichiro Homma also came to their help and, moreover, supplied them with necessary funds and arms. At 5:30 p. m. May 15, 1932, four bands composed of military officers and cadets armed with pistols, attacked several points of the capital and killed Inukai and others as mentioned above, while another band of farmers attempted to break into the transformer stations to throw the capital into darkness. Most of them were arrested on the day and the sentences for all of them (except one farmer who died in the meantime) were passed by February, 1934, the heaviest penalty given being imprisonment for life for Kozaburo Tachibana, but none of them were sentenced to death.

The Farmer-Central Movement As a result of the May 15 Affair the Saito Cabinet was organized. The new Government called the second Emergency Session of the Diet in June and the third session was held in August, and the Diet passed the "Resolution for the Relief of the Economic Depression," for the purpose of relieving the impoverished villages of the farmers. The motive power of this action of the Imperial Diet was the Farmer-Central Movement of the Self-governing Farmers' Council and its sympathizers which became an incentive to the petition movement for rescue of the peasant villages from the ruin which threatened them.

The Self-governing Farmers' Council was led by the farmer-central idea of Mr. N. Gondo, and rejecting both the strikes of farmers and national socialism, it endeavoured to realize a farmer-central government with the harmonious co-operation of the ruling class and the people, and unifying the landowners, the landed farmers and the tenant farmers. The Council was organized by the association of the Nagano-Prefecture Japan Farmers' Association, the Emancipation Society, Mr. K. Tachibana, the head of the Aikyo Juku (Village Loving School), and Mr. R. Nagano of the Japan Village Government Union, which had been established in 1931, with him as its leader.

Communist Movements

The Nippon Communist Society was apparently broken up by the wholesale raids of 1914 and 1915, and the members who then escaped arrest hid themselves in the depths of society, and secretly continued their endeavours to reconstruct it. But the leaders of the new society, which they organized in 1927, were all arrested on April 16, 1928, and the remaining members had a difficult time to accomplish the work under the constant oppression of the authorities, and the society showed its activity before the public at the general election of 1931. It was for the third time scattered by the iron hand of the Gov-

ernment after February, 1931, but it have continued its secret activities by order of the International Headquarters with the sub-divisions of the communists. Its slogan of 1932 was "the reconstruction and enlargement of the Society and its popularization." It aims at and works for the abolition of parliamentary government, the destruction or revision of capitalistic control of industry and reactionary labour laws, the relief of international unemployment, the improvement of all labour managements, the betterment of the conditions and privileges of women, the abolition or lightening of the penalties imposed upon communists, and its propaganda among the factory workers and the people at large.

The Kopf[1] This federation of proletarian artists was organized in November, 1932, and it works for the education of labourers, farmers and other workers in politics and economy, the improvement of the labourers' living, the establishment of proletarian civilization on Lenin-Marxism, the freedom of speech, publication, exhibition, drama, movies and broadcasting, the creation of cultural institutions for labourers and all workers.

Political Affairs in 1933–34

The 64th session of the Diet came to an end on March 25, after passing the 1933–34 budget, of over ¥2,300,000,000 and 58 bills. Among the latter there were such important laws as the Farm-Village Debt Readjustment Law, the Relief Law for Tohoku district, the Child Ill-treatment Prevention Law, the Juvenile Protection Law, the Rice Control Law and the Iron-Manufacture Promotion Law.

On March 27 Japan served notice to withdraw from the League of Nations to which she had made valuable contributions for over 12 years (See Chapter VI).

The year also withnessed a decided decline of the left-wing socialistic parties, especially the communists, many of the leaders leaving camp and ceasing activities

The Government met unusaual difficulties in making out the Budget for 1934–35, because of military expenses and the farmer relief funds, and was compelled to face the 65th session of the Diet with a very unsatisfactory Budget of over ¥2,120,000,000.

The happiest event of the year was the birth of the Crown Prince Akihito on December 23.

(For international events of the year consult the end of Chapter VI.)

65th Session On December 23, 1933, the 65th Session of the Imperial Diet was convened and after the customary recess for the New Year's holiday, resumed its work on January 23, 1934.

Finance Miniter Takahashi presented the 1934–35 budget, which amounted to ¥2,112,000,000 (¥8,000,000 less than the previous year), of which ¥1,248,000,000 was to be met with by ordinary revenue, ¥19,000,000 to be covered by the balance of the previous year, and ¥785,000,000 to be obtained from loans. Of the ¥785,000,000 loan, ¥606,000,000 was for covering the deficit. (See Chapter VIII.)

Discussions on the 1934–35 Budget continued from January 26 to February 4, and on February 13 the House of Representatives passed it by unanimous vote without amendments. The discussion mainly turned upon the issuance of Government loans, the military expenses, the need of establishing a definite financial plan for the future, and the increase of taxes. As to the last point, Takahashi disclosed his decision to increase taxes at a most convenient time.

The problems of farmers, smaller merchants and industrials were discussed by many members, who urged the Government to take more definite and positive measures for the control of rice (the 1934 crop reaching the excessive amount of 78,000,000 koku), and the silk business.

Dissatisfaction with the outcome of the Simla Conference was expressed and acquiesced in by the Foreign Minister, but, as a whole, his answer gained confidence in the Government's policy.

On March 14 the Budget passed the House of Peers without amendment. But the amount voted for the relief of farmers was meager and by the request of the Diet the Government presented an additional budget for the purpose amounting to ¥20,990,000 for Japan proper and ¥8,200,000 for Korea, which passed the Diet as a matter of course.

Difficulties arose on the Revision of the Election Law because of the amendments made by the House of Representatives, and after a joint session of the two Houses, it was finally passed with important amendments on March 25.

On March 26 the 65th Session of the Diet adjourned, passing the budget for the fiscal year 1934–35 and 50 laws.

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1 Federacio de Proletaj Kultur Organizoj Japanaj.

Political Affairs in 1934–35

The Privy Council President Changes On May 2, 1934, Prince Saionji, the Genro, entered his Tokyo residence at Surugadai and the political world grew tense with expectancy and the general public expected something important to take place. The Seiyukai and the Minseito were reconciled as preparation for regaining their long-lost power in anticipation of the resignation of the Saito Cabinet.

But the irony was that the nomination of Baron Kitokuro Ikki to the Presidency of the Privy Council took place on the following day, which reinforced the Cabinet rather than weakened it.

The Saito Cabinet Resigns The detention on May 19 of Hideo Kuroda, the Vice-Minister of Finance, on charges connected with the Teikoku Rayon scandal was sufficient reason for the resignation of the Saito Cabinet. This was a matter of political common sense. But on the other hand, the charge partook somewhat of a political nature and it was considered unwise to tender resignation hurriedly. So the resignation was delayed, but the development of the case and the outbreak of other cases to the disadvantage of the Cabinet finally compelled Premier Saito to tender resignation to the Emperor on July 3, 1934. The new cabinet with Admiral Keisuké Okada as Premier came to power on the 8th of the same month.

The Okada Cabinet The Okada Cabinet was virtually the continuation of the Saito Cabinet. It was a non-party cabinet, as was the Saito Cabinet, and had likewise the tiding-over of the crisis years as its objective. When forming the cabinet the first plan was to exclude party men, but later this restriction was modified, due to difficulties which such cabinet would probably meet. Thus it was finally composed of seven men out of officialdom and five party men (2 from the Minseito and 3 from the Seiyukai). The Seiyukai had turned down Okada's invitation to join his cabinet and when three of its members became ministers in the new Cabinet, it forthwith announced their expulsion from the Seiyukai.

Farm-village Problem By the end of October, 1934, the National Treasury disbursed approximately ¥300,000,000 for the relief of farm-villages. This means that the yearly disbursement was approximately ¥100,000,000, and, when left alone, it would necessitate increased taxation. The relief of farm-villages thus assumed the position of an important factor in national finance.

The impending quetions which had to be solved were how to dispose of the stock of rice and how to restrict overproduction so as to increase farmers' income by higher prices. The solution of the questions was complicated by the fact that over a half of the farmers could hardly afford to consume rice which they themselves raised because of the high price. This resulted in a shortage of rice in the farm-villages.

In order to cope with the situation, though partially, it was decided at the 65th session of the Diet to increase the fund for purchasing surplus rice, and also the Government undertook to find out more effective means to meet the situation. Under the Okada Cabinet a committee was appointed for the study of the problem from among the members of both Houses and also private persons. The Seiyukai and Minseito were also united in organizing a committee for drafting a more effective law dealing with the problems.

Extraordinary Session and After The Okada Cabinet at first took a lukewarm attitude towards convening an extraordinary session of the Diet in spite of the resolution passed at the last session under the Saito administration and the strong demand on the part of the Seiyukai, which was essentially a farm party. But an unexpected event compelled the Government to give heed to the above demand. A damage greatest since 1923 was sustained in the Kansai district and Central Japan by the typhoon of September 21, 1934. The year 1934 was also a very unfavourable one for farmers. An untimely cold weather checked the growth of rice plants in the north-eastern district and Hokkaido, precipitation was scanty in Shikoku and Kyushu islands, and the south-western half of the country was visited by the typhoon just mentioned. An immediate relief of farmers thus became a national necessity, and on September 28 the Government decided to convene an extraordinary session by December.

The 66th Session An extraordinary session of the Diet was, therefore, convened on November 27 and closed on December 10. The main objective of the session was the relief of the sufferers in a variety of natural calamities in the year. The budget for the relief was as follows :

Year of Disbursement	Amount (in ¥1,000)
1934–5	70,664
1935–6	68,318
1936-and after	74,957
Total	213,940

The budget passed both Houses without amendment, though it was attacked as being too small to meet the need, specially by the Seiyukai.

The session closed without giving any material harm to the Government, except the so-called "Bakudan Dōgi", or "bomb" motion, thrown on December 5 by T. Azuma of the Seiyukai demanding an increase of ¥180,000,000 in the relief appropriation.

The "bomb" took the Government and the people by surprise and the dissolution of the Diet was seriously talked about. But Okada's vague promise to give consideration to the increase when the Government thought it necessary, settled the matter for the time being, leaving the final solution to the regular session of the Diet.

Naturally the interval between the 66th and 67th sessions was a period of much political speculation and there was much gossiping in regard to the relations between the Government and the Seiyukai, and also to the possibility of dissolution. The two Houses were composed of the following :

THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

(November 25, 1934)

Seiyukai	264
Minseito	118
Kokumin Domei	31
Tokonami and followers, Proletarians and others	27
Vacant seats	26
Total	466

THE HOUSE OF PEERS

(November 25, 1934)

Princes of the Blood	18
Kayōkai	41
Kenkyukai	155
Doseikai	23
Dowakai	32
Koseikai	66
Kōyū Club	38
Unaffiliated	36
Vacant seats	3
Total	412

The 67th Session The regular session of the Diet was convened on December 24, 1934, and closed on March 26, 1935. Notwithstanding the expectation generally entertained of a collision between the Government and the Seiyukai on the various questions pending, both sides were, in the final analysis, willing to come down the wall half way and the session was carried on in peace. The peace was, however, an armed peace and the Seiyukai took care that a number of important government bills were killed. The promise which the Government made at the last session in regard to the relief appropriation was made good to the amount of ¥15,000,000, instead of ¥180,000,000, as was originally demanded by the Seiyukai.

The Government, beside the Budget for 1935–1936 which passed without amendment, proposed over 50 bills to the Diet. Of these only 5 important bills passed the Diet and among those shelved there were such important bills as the Rice Control Law, Cocoon Distribution Law, Manure Control Law, Iron and Steel Tariff Law, and the Regulations for Fishing in the Northern Seas.

The session was enlivened unexpectedly with a discussion in regard to the interpretation of the Constitution. It was in February that a criticism on the exposition of the Constitution by Dr. Tatsukichi Minobé, Emeritus Professor at the Tokyo Imperial University and Professor at the Commercial University, was raised. Dr. Minobé's theory is that the Tennō, the Emperor, is the highest institution of the Empire and against this the assailants stated that Tennō is the absolute Sovereignty and origin of all laws. The discussion was ended, at least so far as the Houses and the session were concerned, by the promise given by the Government at the initiative of the House of Peers that it would do all to clarify the specific nature of the Japanese State.

Political Affairs in 1935–36

Legislature The year 1935 was rather a poor one in legislative activities. The 67th session of the Diet passed 44 out of the 55 bills presented by the Government and 3 of the bills proposed by the House of Representatives, but the majority of them were of the nature of administrative rules or in connection with the 1935–36 Budget. Few important laws were passed, the principal ones being the Special Profits Tax Law, the Warehouse Law, etc,

Political Movement of the Proletariat The political movement of the proletariat in 1935 was, generally speaking, a continuation of the previous year.

Since 1932 the political power of the prolearíat has waned mainly due to the nationalistic atmosphere generally prevailing in the political world. But the elections of the members of prefectural assemblies in the fall of 1935 proved favourable and this served to prepare good ground for proletarian parties to try their fortune in the general election for the Diet.

By this time the Marxists had lost their leaders and their political activities had sunk almost underground. They had lost the support of the people because of their misdeeds, such as attacking banks for funds. And side by side with this the tide of extreme rights had exhausted itself and it had not developed into a political party. It was thus that the Social Mass Party grew to power, which now occupies the leading position in the proletarian political movement. It was in 1932 that the party was formed through the amalgamation of the Social Democrats and the Mass Party. The party sent 53 candidates to the prefectural elections just mentioned and secured 25 seats in the assemblies. In the 67th session of the Diet (1934-35) the Social Mass Party had only three seats in the House of Representatives, but put up a brisk fight against the overwhelming power of the bourgeois parties in the House. They presented two important bills, i. e. the tenant bill and a bill for preventing the attachment on food of farm-households for one year. Both of them were shelved, but a prevention law quite similar in nature was passed. On February 9, 1935, the party held a mass meeting in Tokyo "for demanding the immediate dissolution of the House of Representatives." The meeting adopted 6 resolutions and handed them to the Presidents of both Houses and the Premier. The resolutions urged an immediate promulgation of the emergency industrial labour law, an increase of Government subsidies for unemployment relief, the promulgation of the tenant law and a law for preventing the attachment on food of farm-households, a thorough measure for securing the living of labouring classes in cities, the suspension of payment of all Government bonds for two years, and an immediate dissolution of the House of Representatives.

In the elections of members of prefectural assemblies which were carried out in September and October, 1935, the proletarian parties secured 41 seats and 219,854 votes. A comparison of the last three elections follows :

ELECTION OF PROLETARIAN MEMBERS IN PREFECTURAL ASSEMBLIES

	Candidates	Elected	Votes obtained	Votes for each Candidate
1927	216	28	257,832	1,193
1931	213	17	270,376	1,269
1935	96	41	219,854	2,290

Minobé Case After the close of the Diet, Dr. Minobé's case was taken up after some delay by the judicial authorities. He was heard twice by the judges of the Supreme Court in April and September, and the indictment was revoked, Dr. Minobé voluntarily resigning from membership of the House of Peers. The movement of nationalist groups against him, nevertheless, was continued all through the year and the Cabinet issued a statement on the question again on October 15, 1934, acknowledging the points put forward by the nationalists, but the agitation did not stop then and there.

In the beginning of the year 1935, however, liberalism appeared regaining power and criticism of the actions of the national socialists and militarists was heard in a considerable degree at the 67th session of the Diet. The War Ministry seemed amenable to the criticism, as shown by its thoughts and reactionary action on the part of military bodies, the removal of high officers in August, etc. Public opinion evidently welcomed the War Ministry's policy. The assassination of Lieutenant-General Nagata, Director of the Board of Military Affairs, on August 12, 1935, by Saburo Aizawa, Lieutenant-Colonel on the active list, was a turning moment for the general policy of the War Ministry. Aizawa was one of the group of officers who were associated with the May 15 affair of 1932. General Hayashi's place was taken by General Kawashima as War Minister in September and the general policy of the War Ministry naturally swung back to the former one.

Election of Members of Local Assemblies The election of the members of 38 prefectural assemblies were held from September 23 to October 14. One of the slogans in the election was "Pure Election," and the victory of the Minseito, pro-government party, over the Seiyukai was generally expected. But the result was the reverse, as shown in the following table :

MEMBERS OF PREFECTURAL ASSEMBLIES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO PARTIES

Result of 1935 Election

(38 prefectures only)

	1931	1935	Increase(+) or Decrease(−)
Seiyukai	635	658	+ 23
Minseito	802	619	−183
Kokumin Domei	—	31	
Proletariat	17	32	+ 15
Miscellaneous	4	32	+ 28
Neutral	66	153	+ 87
Total	1,524	1,525	

Many inferences might be drawn from the results. One was that the election was comparatively free from bureaucratic meddling and thus gave an easier chance for success for proletarian candidates. The supremacy of the old two parties well proved that their long cultivated fields could not be easily overturned by any new power, a Fascist nationalistic power, for instance. Thus only two or three of the extreme right-wing candidates were successful. The last and the greatest revelation in the election was the fact that the mainstay of the nation's politics was parliamentarism.

Dissolution of the House There were many predictions, and hopes in some cases, entertained as to the relation of the Cabinet and the Seiyukai, the Opposition, from the end of 1935 to the beginning of 1936. But what hopes entertained toward effecting a possible understanding remained unrealized and the Seiyukai hardened its front more and more towards the cabinet. Okada, thereupon, asked H. I. M. the Emperor to dissolve the House of Representatives, which was done on January 21, 1936, and it was declared that a general election would be held on February 20.

The strengths of political parties in the House of Representatives at the time of dissolution were as follows :

Total Number of Seats	466
Seiyukai	242
Minseito	127
Kokumin Domei	20
Showakai	24
Social Mass Party	3
Independents	11
Vacancy	39

General Election The 19th General Election was held on February 20, 1936, with the number of eligible voters totalling 14,479,553 and 878 candidates for 466 seats. The warcry of the General Election was "Pure Election". The Government took a mean attitude toward the whole aflair of election, and the result was :

THE 19th GENERAL ELECTION, FEBRUARY 20, 1936

(As it stood on February 24)

Number of Seats in the House of Representatives	466
Number of Voters	14,479,553
Number of Candidates	878
Collective Votes	11,117,116

According to Parties:

	Candidates	Elected	In January	Increase or Decrease	Votes Obtaincd	%
Seiyukai	336	174	242	−68	4,156,643	37.4
Minseito	296	205	127	+78	4,456,250	40.1
Kokumin Domei	33	15	20	− 5	401,261	3.7
Showakai	49	20	24	− 4	523,663	4.7
Social Mass	30	18	3	+15	518,360	4.6
Other parties	33	9	0	+ 9	285,670	2.6
Independents	101	25	11	+14	775,269	6.9
Total	878	466	427	+39	11,117,116	100.0

The defeat of the Seiyukai which had held an absolute majority in the House was unexpected, as was the great advancement of the Social Mass Party. Reasons were complicated and no final inference can be drawn from the result. But this much was clear that the general demand for a radical change in the country's politics so as to insure and advance the welfare of the mass is reflected in the return of 18 members of the Social Mass Party.

Political Affairs in 1936 and 1937

February 26 Incident

The Cabinet was anything but displeased with the result of the election, for it had brought about the defeat of the Seiyukai. But an event unprecedented in the history of the country since the Restoration of 1868 was in store for it. Early on the morning of February 26, 1936, over 1,480 soldiers rose against it and the high officials, and assassinated Admiral Makoto Saito, Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals, Korekiyo Takahashi, Finance Minister, and Lieutenant-General Jotaro Watanabé, Inspector-General of Military Education, and seriously injured Admiral Kantaro Suzuki, Grand Chamberlain, at their residences.

Martial law was immediately put into force for a part of Tokyo surrounding the Imperial Palace under the command of Lieutenant-General Kohei Kashii.

A brief account of the uprising was given in the Japan Year Book, 1936, pp. 183 and 184. In view of the weight of its bearing on the politics of Japan since that time extracts of the statements on the incident published by the War Ministry in July, 1936, are given below :

Motives Koji Muranaka, Asaichi Isobé (civilians), Teruzo Ando, Kiyosada Koda, Yasuhide Kurihara, Katsuo Tsushima and Motoaki Nakabashi (former officers) had long been expressing concern at the degeneration of the people and the light-mindedness of the masses and anxiety about the future of the country. They were stimulated further by the opinions that gradually gained ground following the signing of the London Naval Treaty in 1930 and the Manchurian Incident in 1931 and by the desire of some sections of the army for fundamental solution of the Manchurian Incident. The political situation of Japan at home and abroad, moreover, was so tense that they could not observe it in silence.

They thought the time had arrived when the country must devise measures for the development of national fortunes by enhancing national spirit, replenishing national defence measures and armaments and stabilizing the national life. Meanwhile, they engaged in military education and through their subordnates became acquainted with the conditions of destitution in the farming and fishing villages and the impoverishment of the smaller commercial and industrial enterprisers. They sympathized with these privates, who were to defend the country's first line, and thought that they were to be pitied.

Finding that their ideas ran counter to the sound ideas held by the rank and file of the army and the navy, they came to associate with Eiichi Okura, former captain in the army, Captain Saburo Suganami and Captain Yoriyoshi Ogishi, who held the same views. In the meantime, they developed friendship with Terujiro Kita and Chikara Nishida, men of ultra-patriotic complexion, and because of their ideology found in them bosom friends. Though Kita's book, "Outline of a Draft for Reconstruction of Japan," was detrimental to the national structure, they were dazzled and influenced by the bold nature of its sentences. They erred in passing judgment on the ideas of these men.

The outbreak of the Blood Brotherhood case and the May 15 (1932) incident in Tokyo further stimulated them, and they determined to renovate the nation. They decided that in doing so they should not hesitate to resort to illegal steps. Thus these former army officers came to harbour the dangerous thought which in the end proved to be a violation of the fundamental principle of the prerogative of the Supreme Command.

From 1933, these compatriots were in secret association for the exchange of views and various measures, including the distribution of "mysterious documents" were devised and carried out. They did this solely to recruit sympathizers. In some sections of the army, they imbued the minds of subordinates with their ideas, based on dogmatic assumption, while engaged in military education.

Zensuké Shibukawa, who had at one time studied in the Military College, developed deep friendship with most of the officers mentioned before his retirement from the college and came to find in them bosom friends with whom he shared the same views. They arrived at the conclusion that the authorities concerned lacked appropriate measure to cope with the situation, that Japan's domestic and foreign policies were deadlocked, that the political parties were thinking only of their own interests ignoring the danger in which the country was placed and that the so-called financial clique was slighting the straitened circumstances of the people.

They also were of the opinion that

the prerogative of the Supreme Command had been violated when the London Naval Treaty was concluded. They attributed this state of aflairs to insincerity on the part of the statesmen close to the Throne, the bureaucrats, the military clique, the political parties and the financial clique toward the principles of the national structure. They thought that to give lustre to the real nature of the Japanese Constitution, which provides for unbroken rule throughout the ages, it was necessary to renovate the nation by striking at the so-called privileged classes.

Their sentiments were stimulated further when, in 1934, Koji Muranaka and Asaichi Isobé were dismissed from military service on the charge of having distributed secret documents. When their superior officers intended to suppress their movement, the reaction was great. This tended to encourage the movement. Still further encouragement was given by the movement for clarification of the national polity in connection with the theory of Dr. Minobé on the Emperor's prerogative in the light of the Constitution.

When the Inspector-General of Military Education (General Jinzaburo Mazaki) was transferred, they listened to an inflammatory suggestion made in a certain quarter of the public and concluded that the Supreme Command had been violated. Their indignation at this neared the breaking point. They were further moved by Lieutenant-Colonel Aizawa's assassination of Lieutenant-General Tetsuzan Nagata, then Director of the Board of Military Aflairs of the War Office. They came to the conclusion that behind the violation of the prerogative of the Supreme Command were the bloc of senior statesmen and the financial clique. They had the idea that the senior statesmen were responsible especially for the violation of the Supreme Command since the conclusion of the London Naval Treaty.

They thought that these men existed above the Constitution and that to strike at them by legal means would serve no purpose in gaining their objective. To strike at the senior statesmen, they concluded, it would be necessary to transcend the Constitution and use part of the Army in direct action. They thought this a popular way to cope with the exsting emergency. By so acting, they planned to clarify the national polity, replenish national defence and stabilize national living. They intended in this manner to urge high elements in the Army to bring about a Showa restoration.

Tsuguo Takeshima, Seichu Nibu, Naoshi Sakai, Hachiro Hayashi, Masaru Tanaka, Kanji Nakajima, Masaru Yasuda, Taro Takahashi, Minoru Tokiwa, Toshihiko Ikeda (former officers) and Mata Yamamoto (civilian) also arrived at the conclusion that the prevailing conditions ran counter to the principles of the national structure. They had long felt that it was necessary to eliminate the so-called privileged classes and urge the realization of a reformation. From 1933, they were influenced by the ideas of Koji Muranaka and others, association with whom led them to their belief in the righteousness of direct action.

Plots for Action When it was reported in December, 1935, that the forces of the First Division would be dispatched shortly to Manchuria and seeing the necessity of taking action before they left Tokyo, Koji Muranaka, Asaichi Isobé and Yasuhidé Kurihara immediately began preparations with Kiyosada Koda and Zensuké Shibukawa.

By taking advantage of the public trial of the Aizawa case, they propagated the spirit of Lieutenant-Colonel Saburo Aizawa's motive and also references to the corrupted conditions of the specially privileged class in order to draw the attention of society and to steel the determination of their confrères.

Thinking the opportunity had arrived for carrying out the reformation they decided to take action shortly after holding meetings for a number of times at several places while maintaining close contact with Captain Ichitaro Yamaguchi, Terujiro Kita, Chikara Nishida and Tetsuya Kamekawa on important matters.

In order to decide on a concrete plan, Muranaka, Isobé, Yasuhidé Kurihara, Teruzo Ando and the late former Captain Hisashi Kono met at the home of Yasuhidé Kurihara on the night of February 18, 1936. After planning the places to be attacked, methods to be used and the time to carry out the action, it was decided to move part of the troops belonging to the 3rd Infantry Regiment of the Imperial Guards Division, the 1st and 3rd Regiments of the 1st Division to attack and kill those subjects close to the Emperor in Tokyo, to attack and kill Count Nobuaki Makino by the hands of a squad led by Hisashi Kono and to have confrères living in the city of Toyohashi attack and kill Prince Kimmochi Saionji at his villa at Okitsu. It was also decided to

carry out the plot during the following week. Asaichi Isobé then went to Toyohashi on February 19 to tell Katsuo Tsushima about the preparations made in Tokyo and arranged with him for the assassination of Prince Saionji.

On the night of February 22, Muranaka, Isobé, Kurihara and Kono gathered again at the home of Kurihara to arrange the date, time and assignments and decided to carry out the planned attacks simultaneously at 5 o'clock on the morning of February 26.

In case they succeeded in the killing of Premier Keisuke Okada, Finance Minister Korekiyo Takahashi, Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals Viscount Makoto Saito, Grand Chamberlain Kantaro Suzuki, Count Makino and Prince Saionji, they decided to prevent subjects close to the Emperor from proceeding to the Imperial Palace at the Sakashita Gate. At the same time, they decided to seize the Metropolitan Police Board to suspend its functions and also to occupy the War Ministry and the General Staff Office, and Muranaka, Isobé and Kiyosada Koda were to demand of the War Minister appropriate measures to remedy the situation.

On February 23, Kurihara went to Toyohashi to convey to Katsuo Tsushima and Tsuguo Takeshima what had been decided on and to make arrangements. Zensuké Shibukawa, who learned about the said plans on the same day, as a result of cousulting with Muranaka and Isobé, decided to find out the whereabouts of Count Makino, who was recuperating at the town of Yugawara, Kanagawa Prefecture, and to help as an outsider, the defendants in the achievement of the plan. On the same night, Muranaka, Isobé, Koda, Ando and Nonaka gathered at the 3rd Infantry Regiment and decided to attack the home of and to kill the Inspector-General of Military Education, General Jotaro Watanabé, after attacking the home of the Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals, Viscount Saito.

On the night of February 24, Muranaka, Isobé, Kurihara, Koda and Nonaka gathered at the 1st Infantry Regiment and decided to assign Muranaka, Isobé and Koda to negotiate with the leaders of the army after carrying out the plans and also to assemble the outside participants at the 1st Infantry Regiment by 7 o'clock on the night of February 25. What had been decided on was then secretly conveyed to the confrères by the evening of February 25, all giving their approval or accepting their assignments.

Kiyonari Mugiya, Kinjiro Suzuki and Yasuhei Kiyohara, who originally did not intend to take direct action by using privates, finally decided to participate when the said plans were indicated to them, Mugiya assigning himself to a company and both Suzuki and Kiyohara leading their own companies.

On the night of February 25, Muranaka met Chikara Nishida and Tetsuya Kamekawa at the latter's home, telling them that the attacks would be carried out at dawn on the following morning and then made important arrangements. After receiving from Kamekawa an amount as funds for the uprising, Muranaka, Isobé and Koda assembled again at the 1st Infantry Regiment and decided on the demands to be presented to the War Minister following the planned attacks and occupation of the various buildings, as follows :

(1) The War Minister should immediately remedy the situation with a firm determination to effect reformation.

(2) To avoid absolutely such an inauspicious affair as firing at each other within the Imperial Army.

(3) To arrest at once the ringleader attempting to destroy the command of the army.

(4) To remove the centre figure who has been attempting a military clique movement.

(5) To summon at once the principal local confrères to Tokyo to hear their views in order to take proper steps for remedying the situation.

(6) To effect the aforementioned and absolutely not to change the positions occupied by the uprising units until a stabilization of the situation has been reached.

After the prospectus of the rising was drafted by Muranaka, it was printed for distribution.

Meanwhile, Katsuo Tsushima, who had been called on by Isobé on February 19, decided after learning the situation in Tokyo to despatch Prince Saionji, and after the following day, he and Takeshima sought to pursuade Lieutenant Tatsuo Inoué, Lieutent Toshio Shioda, Lieutenant Tetsu Itagaki, and Intendant Captain Goro Suzuki to participate. All accepted except Lieutenant Itagaki, who reserved his approval. On February 23, Tsushima, Takeshima and Suzuki received the decision reached on the plan of the attacks, date and time to be carried out in Tokyo, from Kurihara, who came from Tokyo for the purpose, and then decided to employ about 120 non-commissioned officers and privates of the

Toyohashi Non-commissioned Officers' School to attack the villa of Prince Saionji at Okitsu, Shizuoka Prefecture, at 5 o'clock on the morning of February 26. Then Tsushima and Takeshima engaged themselves in detailed arrangements for the despatching of Prince Saionji on February 25, however, they met with the sudden opposition of Lieutenant Itagaki regarding the employement of privates, and the plan to attack Prince Saionji had to be suspended, bringing the sudden appearance of Tsushima and Takeshima in Tokyo to participate in the action of their confrères.

Direct Action According to the decided plans, the assignments were made as follows :

Kurihara, Hayashi, Ikeda and Tsushima were assigned to attack the Premier's official residence and kill Premier Keisuké Okada early on the morning of February 26, and after conveying the purposes to the non-commissioned officers attached to the machine-gun corps of the 1st Infantry Regiment they ordered an emergency roll-call of the entire force in front of the barracks and then declared the purport of the rising. A section of the corps was then attached to the Nibu unit, bringing it to a total of about 300, and left the barracks about 4:30 o'clock. The Premier's official residence was attacked at 5 o'clock. The four police officers on duty, Kamozaemon Murakami, Kiyomatsu Tsuchii, Yoshiro Shimizu and Kiyomatsu Odaté, and Denzo Matsuo, private secretary to the Premier, were killed, the last Matsuo being mistaken for the Premier. They thus failed to despatch the Premier.

Motoaki Nakahashi and Kanji Nakajima were assigned to attack the residence of Finance Minister Korekiyo Takahashi and kill him. On the night of February 25, about 120 non-commissioned officers and privates of the 7th Company of the 3rd Infantry Regiment of the Imperial Bodyguards were divided into two units, one as a defending and reserve squad and the other as the attacking squad. The former was led by Sub-Lieutenant Yoshimichi Imaizumi, and the latter was assigned to take charge of the killing of Finance Minister Takahashi. About 3 o'clok the following morning, Motoaki Nakahashi and Kanji Nakajima appeared in the room where Yoshimichi Imaizumi lodged in the barracks and conveyed to him that they were ready to proceed to kill Finance Minister Takahashi for the purpose of carrying out a Showa Restoration, persuading him to act with them. He, however, avoided a definite reply. Motoaki Nakahashi then told him that he could be free to act with them or not, leaving word, however, that he should lead the defending and reserve squad as previously arranged. Imaizumi then decided to act with Motoaki Nakahashi on the ground that nothing could be helped that had happned.

About 4:30 o'clock Nakahashi conducted an emergency roll-call. Then he led about 120 non-commissioned officers and privates out of the barracks on the pretext that they were going to visit the Meiji Shrine. Taking command of the attacking squad, he attacked the Finance Minister's private residence and killed Finance Minister Takahashi about 5 o'clock. Leaving the residence in accordance with the orders of Nakahashi, Nakajima commanded the attacking squad and then went to the official residence of the Premier. Yoshimichi Imaizumi, who was posted in the vicinity of the Siamese Legatión, then reported to the commanding quarters with Nakahashi and after receiving new orders went to guard the Sakashita Gate of the Imperial Palace. On being replaced about 11 o'clock by another squad, he returned to the original regiment.

Naoshi Sakai, Taro Takahashi, Kiyonari Mugiya and Masaru Yasuda were assigned to attack and kill the Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals, Viscount Saito, while Taro Takahashi and Masaru Yasuda were charged to attack and kill the Inspector-General of Miltary Education, General Watanabé. Taking command of about 200 non-commissioned officers and men, they left the barracks at about 4:20 o'clock. The home of Viscount Makoto Saito was reached at about 5 o'clock, and after he had been despatched, Viscountess Haruko Saito, who tried to shield the Viscount, received a bayonet wound accidentally. The home was left about 5:15 o'clock. The main force then was led to the neighbourhood of the War Minister by Naoshi Sakai and Kiyonari Mugiya, while Taro Takahashi and Masaru Yasuda, leading about 30 non-commissioned officers and men, took an army truck kept in waiting in front of the Akasaka Detached Palace and provided by Masaru Nakada. They proceeded to the home of Inspector-General of Military Education, General Watanabé, attacked the place about 6 o'clock and, brushing aside Mrs. Suzuko Watanabé, who tried to stop them, killed the General, leaving the home at about 6:30 o'clock and joining with the

main force of the Sakai unit in the vicinity of the War Ministry.

Teruzo Ando, assigned to attack the official residence of the Grand Chamberlain and to kill Admiral Kantaro Suzuki, called an emergency roll-call about 3 o'clock on the morning of February 26 in front of the barracks. Thirty minutes later, the unit left the barracks and attacked the official residence of the Grand Chamberlain at about 4:50 o'clock, wounding the Grand Chamberlain with several bayonet thrusts. When Teruzo Ando was about to give the coup de grace, he had to relinquish because of the ardent request of Mrs. Takako Suzuki and thus failed in despatching the Grand Chamberlain. The residence was left at about 5:30 o'clock. The unit returned to the neighborhood of the War Ministry.

Minoru Tokiwa, Yasuhira Suzuki and the late Shiro Nonaka, assigned to seize the Metropolitan Police Board, called an emergency roll-call of the various companies about 2 o'clock on the morning of Februaly 26, and, commanding about 500 non-commissioned officers and men, left the barracks about 4:30 o'clock and arrived at the police headquarters about 5 o'clock. They detailed a number of small units on the main road near the Sakurada Gate and the road in front of the Justice Ministry placing machine-guns and light machine-guns , at several points in the neighbourhood. A squad was placed in the telephone exchange room of the police headquarters to suspend communications with outside.

Masatada Nibu was charged to occupy the official residence of the War Minister and to suspend traffic around the War Ministry and the General Staff Office in order to facilitate the negotiations with the leaders of the army by Koda, Muranaka and Isobé. At 4 o'clock on the morning of February 26, he conducted an emergency roll-call of about 700 men, including non-commissioned officers, of whom he took command and then left the barracks at about 4:30 o'clock with Muranaka, Isobé Koda, Takeshima and Mata Yamamoto. They arrived at the official residence of the War Minister about 30 minutes later. The main gate to the residence was heavily guarded by the main force, prohibiting the admittance of all comers other than special persons.

Masaru Tanaka, attached to the 7th Field Heavy Artillery Regiment, in charge of transportation, called out about 30 men, including non-commissioned officers, about 2:30 o'clock on the morning of February 26, under the pretext of visting the Yasukuni Shrine and to go on a night march, commanded to take out one touring car and four army trucks, belonging to the regiment, left the barracks at about 3:15 o'clock, visited the Yasukuni Shrine and then proceeded to the front of the Imperial Palace and finally arrived at the official residence of the War Minister about 5 o'clock. Receiving orders from Isobé, he took a touring car and a truck with two men and went to the front of the Akasaka Detached Palace to carry the squad under the command of Taro Takahashi and Masaru Yasuda to attack the home of the Inspector-General of Military Education, General Watanabé. He provided a touring car and two trucks for Yasuhidé Kurihara, Toshihiko Ikeda, Motoaki Nakahashi and Kanji Nakajima, who proceeded to attack the Tokyo Asahi at about 9 o'clock.

Yasuhidé Kurihara, Toshihiko Ikéda, Motoaki Nakahashi and Kanji Nakajima, in command of about 50 privates and non-commissioned officers, attacked the plant of the Tokyo Asahi Shimbun about 9 o'clock on the morning of February 26, causing damage to suspend the publication of the paper temporarily. Then they went to the Tokyo Nichi Nichi, Jiji Shimpo, Kokumin Shimbun, Hochi Shimbun and the Nippon Dempo News Agency, where copies of the "rising prospectus" were distributed, demanding the publication of the text in their respective papers, and then returned to the Premier's Official residence.

Zensuké Shibukawa proceeded to Yugawara, Kanagawa Prefecture, on February 23 to ascertain the presence of Count Makino and returned to Tokyo. After the outbreak of the incident, Shibukawa, with the purpose of aiding his comrades to accomplish their aims, decided in conjunction with Teruo Nakahashi to instigate Seijuro Hasebé, President of the Yamagata Prefectural Agrarian Young Men's Federation, and others with whom he had been in contact before, to rise up in arms in correspondence with the insurgent troops. The plot was discussed on the night of February 27 at the house of Teruo Nakahashi. In order to carry out the design Shibukawa gave Nakahashi a revolver and ammunition and asked Yasuhidé Kurihara to obtain 300 additional rounds of ammunition, but he was unable to do so because the plan was discovered beforehand. After February 26, Shibukawa established contact with Captain Akimitsu Matsudaira and others in an effort to gather in-

formation and conveyed his findings to the insurgent troops. On February 28, he joined the units of Teruzo Ando and, inciting the officers to renewed efforts, went to the Premier's official residence to give his assistance to the units stationed there. Together with Naoshi Sakai, he made the rounds of the cordon thrown round the Premier's official residence and took other measures to assure the security of the position.

The late Captain Hisashi Kono was assigned to assassinate Count Makino, who was staying in a detached wing of the Itoya Inn, at Yugawara, Kanagawa Prefecture. On the night of February 25 Sergeant Tokisan Ujino, a private, civilians Akira Miyata, Seiji Nakajima, Wataru Kuroda, Genichi Mizukami and Shozo Watabiki, gathered at the 1st Infantry Regiment barrack by summons of Kurihara and, carrying two light machine-guns and other arms, left for Yugawara in two automobiles at 12:40 o'clock on the morning of February 26. Arriving at Yugawara at 5 o'clock, they raided the Itoya Inn but could not find Count Makino. In order to burn him to death, they set the detached wing on fire and destroyed it. During the attack, they shot dead patrolman Yoshitaké Minagawa on guard duty at the Inn and shot and wounded Suzué Mori, nurse attendant on Count Makino. They also shot and wounded Kamezo Iwamoto who came to put out the fire. In spite of their efforts, they could not find Count Makino. Meanwhile, Genichi Mizukami saw that Kono had been severely wounded in the skirmish with the police. He therefore took command and, drawing his sword, urged his men into the house and set fire to other parts of it or drove away persons who came to fight the fire by brandishing his sword. Kono and others who were wounded in the raid went to the Atami branch of the Tokyo Army Hospital No. 1 and there surrendered themselves.

The units which completed their Tokyo raids on February 26 occupied the Premier's official residence, the War Minister's official residence, the War Office and the Metropolitan Police Board headquarters in accordance with the pre-arranged plans and restricted traffic through the southwestern section of Kojimachi Ward in support of the negotiations being conducted by Koda, Muranaka, Isobé and others with the leaders of the army .

Their Movement after the Action Koda, Muranaka, Isobé and others, in conjunction with the unit commanded by Masatada Nibu, arrived at the War Minister's official residence at about 5 a.m. on February 26, and, in an interview with the War Minister, General Yoshiyuki Kawashima, Koda, representing the insurgents, read a statement on the reasons for the uprising and gave an account of the attacks made on various places, demanding appropriate steps to effect a renovation in State affairs. General Mazaki, Lieutenant-General Furusho, Vice-Minister of War, Major-General Yamashita and Lieutenant-Colonel Mitsui were asked over to the War Minister's official residence, where the insurgents demanded that they endeavour to cope with the emergency situation.

At about 10 o'clock the same morning, Isobé shot with his revolver and wounded Major Katakura, who had come to the front porch of the War Minister's official residence.

Then Major-General Yamashita came with a letter of admonition which the leaders of the army had drafted and read it to the insurgents, but they refused to submit.

When wartime caution was ordered to the units under the jurisdiction of the 1st Division, in accordance with the policy of the commander of the garrison that bloodshed should be avoided as far as possible and the insurgents should be induced by pursuasion to return to their barracks, some of the insurgent units were placed under the direction of Colonel Kofuji, commander of the 1st Regiment, on the evening of February 26. The wartime caution was enforced in part from early the next morning, but no immediate action was taken against the insurgents. This only confirmed the insurgent leaders in the belief that the situation had turned in their favour and strengthened their determination to carry out their plans as scheduled.

On the morning of February 27 Muranaka, on the advice of Lieutenant-Colonel Mitsui and others, proposed to his comrades to withdraw from their position in the area for the convenience of the General Staff in attending to its official duties and to return to their barracks, but they would not listen to him. At last, however, it was decided that they should concentrate their forces near the new Diet building. After this decision was made, Muranaka and Koda went to the martial-law headquarters, and in an interview with Lieutenant-General Kashii, commander of the martial-law area, Major-General Yasui, chief-of-staff, and others, handed them a statement of the reasons for their uprising, explained that they had reduced their forces and asked the

martial-law headquarters to continue the state of caution in the status quo in order to avoid a clash between the insurgents and the garrison forces. Then, on instructions from Kita, by telephone concerning the settlement of the situation, Muranaka, Isobé and others, after consultation with Koda, Kurihara, the late Nonaka and others interviewed some of the members of the High Millitary Council at the War Minister's official residence at about 4 o'clock, when they made proposals regarding settlement of the situation. They in turn were admonished to withdraw from the area in accordance with the orders of Colonel Kofuji. For a time, they expressed understanding but could not decide on withdrawal and under the direction of Colonel Kofuji spent the night at the Premier's official residence, the official residences of Finance Minister, Railway Minister, Agriculture and Forestry Minister and Education Minister, the Koraku restaurant and the Sanno Hotel.

On the morning of February 28, Muranaka, Koda and others learned that the commander of the 3rd Regiment of the Imperial Guards Division had ordered by telephone Motoaki Nakahashi to place himself along with his men under the direction of Colonel Kofuji in accordance with the Imperial command to have the insurgent troops massed near the barracks of the 1st Regiment. They complained to Colonel Kofuji against the action. Meanwhile Colonel Kofuji had received orders from the 1st Division, in accordance with the Imperial command to the martial-law headquarters, to have the insurgent units return to their barracks and had been on the verge of conveying them to Muranaka and others but because of the high feeling running among the insurgents over the telephone order to Nakahashi he reserved action. At about this time, that is, 10 o'clock, or so, Muranaka, Koda and Tsushima proceeded to the headquarters of the 1st Division and petitioned the commander and the chief-of-staff not to apply the Imperial command, which would make them rebels against the Emperor. Upon their return to the War Minister's official residence, however, Major-General Yamanaka came with the communication that action against the insurgents based on the Imperial command was about to be started. The leaders of the uprising gathered in a conference and resolved on "self-determination." Thus to the commander of the 1st Division and Colonel Kofuji, who came to admonish the insurgents, they pledged submission to the command of the Emperor.

Instigated, however, by telephone calls from Terujiro Kita, Chikara Nishida and the claim on the part of some leaders that the sudden change in the situation since the morning and the chaotic conditions prevailing gave the lie to the declaration of the authorities that the insurgents' return to the barracks was really the wish of the Emperor and also because of the change of heart on the part of the insurgents who had been active on the first line due to the chaotic situation and wild rumors, the insurgents made the resolution that if the garrison units surrounding them took oppressive measures they would give battle to the last man in their present positions. Thus they took up their positions in the Premier's official residence, the new Diet building, the War Office and the Sanno Hotel in preparation for battle.

Lieutenant-General Kashii, therefore, relieved Colonel Kofuji of his directorship over the insurgent units and ordered the surrounding units to clear the occupied areas of the insurgents, beginning with the morning of the 29th. Most of the leaders of the uprising, however, grew convinced early on the morning of the 29th through radio broadcasts and handbills distributed in the streets that operation based on the Imperial command had commenced and, seeing the surrounding units close in realized the futility of resistance and ordered the non-commissioned officers and men to return to their barracks.

By this time, scores had returned to their barracks of their own will, escaping through the insurgents' lines. By 2 o'clock, all of the non-commissioned officers and men had surrendered themselves. All the leaders except Mata Yamamoto gathered in the War Minister's official residence and, although many of them suggested self despatch, some of them claimed that it was not the time for it. Thus all the leaders except Nonaka abandoned the idea of suicide and the same evening were confined at the Tokyo Army Prison. Out of a religious mood, Yamamoto had escaped to Mt. Minobu the same noon, but on March 4 he gave himself up to the Tokyo Gendermerie Corps.

Winding-up the Incident High military officers took responsibility for the Feb. 26 incident and in March five members of the High Military Council, Generals Hayashi, Mazaki Abé, Araki and Terauchi resigned, the first four being placed on the reserve list, while

General Minami, Commander of the Kwantung Army and General Honjo, chief aide-de-camp to His Majesty retired from office. In July, 4 lieutenant-generals, 5 major-generals and 4 colonels, the majority of whom held responsible positions in the Imperial Guards and the First Division were removed from their posts. Twelve high police officials in Tokyo were also asked to resign as a sign of their responsibility.

Thirteen former army officers and four civilians were sentenced to death July 5, 1936, by the Tokyo Court-Martial for participation in the uprising.

Fifty-nine others received prison sentences ranging from life to two years. A total of 123 had been indicted of whom 47 were acquitted.

Five other former officers were sentenced to life imprisonment, and one officer on the active list received a four-year term. Of the remainder of the 10 civilians indicted for participating in the incident, five were sentenced to 15 years in prison and the others to 10 years.

Of the 73 former non-commissioned officers and 2 non-commissioned officers in active service who had been indicted, 31 were acquitted and the remaining 44 received sentences ranging from 2 to 15 years in prison, some with the stay of execution.

Nineteen privates were indicted, of whom 16 were acquitted. The other three were given prison sentences ranging from 18 to 24 months with the stay of execution.

Two other former officers who participated committed suicide immediately after the incident.

According to the War Office announcements, those participating in the incident included one officer, 20 former officers, three medical officers, 89 former non-commissioned officers, two other non-commissioned officers, 1,358 privates and 10 civilians.

The following 13 former army officers were sentenced to death : Kiyosada Koda, infantry captain, Teruzo Ando, infantry captain, and Yasuhidé Kurihara, lieutenant, the ringleaders ; Tsugio Takesima, infantry lieutenant ; Katsuo Tsushima, infantry lieutenant ; Motoaki Nakahashi, infantry lieutenant; Masatada Nibu, infantry lieutenant ; Naoshi Sakai, infantry lieutenant ; Masaru Tanaka, artillery lieutenant ; Kanji Nakashima, engineering sublieutenant ; Masaru Yasuda artillery sublieutenant ; Taro Takahashi, infantry sublieutenant, and Hachiro Hayashi, infantry sublieutenant.

The civilians sentenced to death were: Koji Muranaka and Asaichi Isobé, designated as ringleaders, and Zensuké Shibukawa and Genichi Mizukami, who either particiapted in the plot or in directing group action.

Out of the 17 officers and others who were sentenced to death 15 were shot on July 5, the remaining 2 being retained as withnesses in connection with the trials of further persons connected with the incident.

Martial law, which had been proclaimed on February 27 for a part of Tokyo, was withdrawn on July 18, 1936.

On July 29 another 6 officers in active service were sentenced to from 4 years to life military imprisonment as assisting in the activities of the insurgents.

On August 14, 1937, the Ministry of War issued a statement on the decision of the Tokyo Army Court-Martial against important civilians who took part in the February 26 Incident, 1936, to the effect that the ringleaders Terujiro Kita and Chikara Nishida were sentenced to death penalty, Tetsuya Kamekawa to life imprisonment and Teruo Nakahashi to three year's imprisonment.

The central figure who imbued the moitve power to the leaders of the February 26 Incident was Terujiro Kita. Kita who was popularly known as Ikki Kita, his penname, was a native of Sado Island, Niigata Prefecture, and being stimulated by the sad history and traditions of the members of Imperial Household who had been ill-treated by the Shogunate governments in olden times and banished to the island, became a hot-blooded patriot and made studies on the history of Japan in his young days. He quitted a middle school in the island because of illness and came up to Tokyo to begin study on social science. In his 24th year of age, he wrote and published his first book " An Outline of Japanese National Polity and the True Socialism," in which he severely attacked the transliterated Western socialism of Shusui Kotoku and his comrades (who were sentenced to death in 1911) from his unique patriotic view of the nature of Japanese nation. His book drew attention of the public among whom he found many Chinese friends, Dr. Sun Yat-sen and others who were staying in Japan, and he helped the revolutionary movement in China for some years and wrote his second book " China in Revolution and Japan's

Diplomatic Revolution" in 1916. In the summer of 1916, he went to China for the second time, and while he was in Shanghai he had time to see what was going on in his native country and think about it thoroughly. According to his conclusion Japan was misled by priviledged classes of people while there were destructive movements of communistic elements getting force among the masses, and a fundamental reformation was of urgent need to protect Japan which had the honourable history of 3,000 years from falling into nil. Kita got a strong conviction that the success of modern revolutions was in the co-operation of the army and civilian revolutionists, and in 1920 he prepared the manuscript of a book, "An Outline of the Principles of National Reformation," and showed it to Dr. Shumei Ohkawa who was then in China and got his sympathy and encouragement. In January, 1921, Kita came back to Japan cherishing a revolutionary scheme and got the co-operation of Dr. Ohkawa and his comrades. But finding difficulties with them later he decided to work alone according to his own programme and in 1926 he renamed his manuscript aforementioned and published "An Outline of A Draft for the Reconstruction of Japan" through the hand of Chikara Nishida. With the co-operation of Nishida and largely through his activities Kita succeeded in obtaining comrades among young army officers before and after the May 15 Incident of 1932, and finally became the philosophical leader of the army officers who led the February 26 Incident.

Koji Nakamura and Asaichi Isobé (who had been sentenced to death penalty on July 5, 1936, with other 15 comrades), Terujiro Kita and Chikará Nishida were shot on August 19, 1937.

Formation of the Hirota Cabinet

Admiral Okada and other members of the Cabinet tendered their resignations to the Throne on February 27, taking full responsibility for the Feb. 26 Incident. Prince Saionji was called to Tokyo for his advice in the matter of choosing the succeeding premier. Prince Konoyé, President of the House of Peers, was first recommended, but he asked for Imperial pardon because of his weak health. Then, on March 5, Koki Hirota, Foreign Minister in the Okada Cabinet, was summoned to the Imperial Palace and accepted the Imperial Order to form a new Cabinet.

The formation of the Hirota Cabinet met difficulties on its course, but was finally completed and the inauguration took place in the Phœnix Hall of the Imperial Palace before H. I. M. the Emperor at 8 p.m. March 9, 1936. Members of the Hirota Cabinet were then as follows :

Prime Minister	Koki Hirota
Foreign Affairs	,, ,,
Home Affairs	Shigenosuke Ushio
Education	,, ,,
Finance	Eiichi Baba
War	Hisaichi Terauchi, General
Marine	Osami Nagano, Admiral
Justice	Raisaburo Hayashi
Agriculture and Forestry	Toshio Shimada
Commerce and Industry	Takukichi Kawasaki
Communications	Keikichi Tanomogi
Railways	Yonezo Maeda
Overseas	Hidejiro Nagata

The two ministerial posts which had been left open at the formation of the Hirota Cabinet in March, were filled by Hatsusaburo Hirao as the Minister of Education and Hachiro Arita as the Minister of Foreign Affairs, while Gotaro Ogawa took the position of the Minister of Commerce and Industry after the death of Takukichi Kawasaki on March 27.

The first announcement of the new policies of the Hirota Cabinet was made by Dr. Eiichi Baba, Minister of Finance, on March 9, to the effect that the old financial policy of the late Finance Minister Takahashi would not be proceeded with, but as one of the new policies of the cabinet, the Finance Ministry was planning an increase of revenue from taxes and an enlarged floatation of national loans in connection with the budget for 1937–38 in order to meet the increased demands necessitated by changes of the times.

The statement of Prime Minister Hirota, published on March 17, 1936, on the policy of the new Government, rather disappointed the general public with its too reserved and abstract wording, but his intention to follow a central course was well pronounced in the words "over-hasty actions will be avoided through the wisdom of the people and a thorough understanding of the public sentiments." The gist of his statement follows :

It is the first duty of the Government to clarify the concept of our immutable national polity—a point toward which should converge all domestic and foreign policies and measures. It is a matter of urgent necessity, specially under the present circumstances to maintain the sanctity of the Constitution and the laws of the country, by instituting educational reforms and invigorating the national spirit and at the same time eradicating thoughts incompatible with our national polity.

It has ever been the consistent policy of our Government to cultivate cordial relations with all the countries on the basis of international good faith and justice, and to promote mutual well-being and common prosperity between Japan and other countries in East Asia, and especially carry out our mission as the stabilizing force of East Asia on the basis of inseparable relationship between Japan and Manchoukuo, thereby contributing toward the peace of the world and the well-being of mankind. Both our foreign policy and our national defence should accord with this national policy. In view of the present situation of international relations, the Government intend to inaugurate a consistent and coherent vigorous foreign policy and at the same time to provide fully for national defence.

It is the urgent necessity of the moment to enrich the basic sources of our national strength by making such financial and economic improvements as reforms in taxation and banking systems and by helping the expansion of trade and industry in conformity with the progress of the country. Of late unhealthy social trends have multiplied, exerting a heavy pressure on the people's livelihood and producing conflicts of interests in all quarters. There is nothing more deplorable than such a state of affairs which is directly opposed to the ideal of a state built on morality and righteousness. The Government, therefore, intend to realize thoroughly their projected programmes for the purpose of ensuring stabilization and improvement of all phases of national life so as to enable the subjects of His Majesty to live each a tranquil and contented life.

We cannot now be satisfied with renovations of governmental organs merely in their mechanical operation. Enforcement of official discipline and reforms in administrative structure have become necessary. The Government therefore intend to carry out such improvements as will adequately meet the needs of the times by taking a far-sighted view of the trend, both internal and external, without being trammelled by old conventionalities.

For a complete realization of the national policies the Government will naturally demand the faithful services of the various departments. While over-hasty actions will be avoided through the wisdom of the people and a thorough understanding of the public sentiments, the Government will take resolute steps in order to achieve what they believe to be right. They will not, oblivious of the future destiny of the country, resort to temporizing measures.

Imperial Diet, 69th Session The 69th Session of the Imperial Diet was convened on May 1, 1936 and closed on the 27th of the same month. Kojiro Tomita of the Minseito was elected President of the House of Representatives, and the formal opening ceremony was held on the 4th of May in the presence of His Majesty the Emperor, who gave the Imperial Message as follows :

> We hereby conduct the ceremony opening the Imperial Diet and so announce to the members of the House of Peers and the House of Representatives.
>
> We rejoice over the fact that the relations of the Imperial Government and foreign nations have been becoming steadily more cordial.
>
> We regret the outbreak of the recent incident in Tokyo. It is expected of Our faithful subjects that they will unite as one, Government and people, civilians and military, in order to promote the development of the national fortunes.
>
> We have ordered the Ministers of State to present to the Imperial Diet the urgent supplementary budget bill and other measures.
>
> It is expected of you that you will deliberate upon them in harmony, thereby fulfilling Our wishes.

The reference to the February 26 Incident in the Imperial Message strongly touched the hearts of members of the Cabinet and both Houses and the session was carried out in a most serious attitude of mind all through the three

weeks. On May 6, Premier Hirota, Foreign Minister Arita, Finance Minister Baba and War Minister Terauchi made speeches on the general policies and what they were planning for the improvement and readjustment of the matters specially coming under their respective jurisdiction. Important points in their speeches related to the strained international relation between Japan and the U.S.S.R., the increase of revenue from taxation and the determination of the authorities to enforce discipline in the Imperial Army. The War Minister gave a full explanation concerning the Feb. 26 Incident to the members of both Houses in a closed meeting on the 7th May and the searching interpellation of Takao Saito of the Minseito at the general meeting of the House of Representatives on the same day drew the keen attention of the House and members of the Cabinet and caused a sensation among the public, gaining the full support of the press.

Mr. Saito, after calling the attention of the Premier to the difficulty of putting into practice the manysided propositions made by the new Cabinet for the reform of the political and administrative system or organization, aimed his interpellation at the Minister of War concerning the responsibility of the War Ministry and high officers in connection with the Feb. 26 Incident. First, he sharply criticized the undue direct actions of the military officers to meddle with political affairs apparently against the will of the Emperor Meiji expressed clearly in his Precepts to the Soldiers and Sailors, which said "therefore neither be led astray by current opinions nor meddle in politics, but with single heart fulfil your essential duty of loyalty," and in violation of civil and military laws which prohibit the political activities of military men in active service, pointing to the danger of political activity of military men who are apt to appeal to force and may lead to armed despotism. Secondly, Mr. Saito, referring to the assassination of Premier Inukai or the May 15 Incident in 1932, rebuked the loose measures taken by the military authorities in handling the secret activities of young officers in 1931 and 1932, and the consequent inability to check the recent uprise of soldiers in Tokyo, and asked that the responsibility should be shouldered by military officers of the highest ranks. In the course of his speech, he cited the words of Military Prosecutor Yamamoto who reasonably demanded the death penalty for the three leaders of the May 15 Incident at the Court-Martial, and lastly, he voiced the demand of the nation for stern measures to be taken against the leaders of the insurgents of February, and demanded that adequate steps should be taken in the education of soldiers in the future to ensure that they should not be led away from their duty to the detriment of the honour of the Japanese Army and the general welfare of the people.

Many important bills awaited the decision of the Diet in this short 69th Session, such as supplemetary budgets, the autonomous rice control bill, the rice control law revision bill, the joint unhulled rice storage subsidy bill, the cocoon disposal control bill, the bill to revise the silk manufacturers' guild law, the bill to revise the silk industry law and the important fertilizer control bill, all of these pertaining to the welfare of the agricultural communities, the shipping business control bill, the bill for the establishment of two companies to aid the rehabilitation of the north-eastern districts, the bill for the establishment of a central bank for commercial and industrial guilds, the seditious literature restriction bill, the national mobilization secrets protection bill, and the workers' discharge reserve fund and allowance bill. The supplementary budgets (given in full in the Japan Year Book, 1936, pp. 237–280) passed both Houses without amendment. As to the workers' discharge reserve fund and allowance bill, hot discussions arose from both the sides of capital and labour, but the bill was finally passed after important amendments had been made to make it applicable only to factories and mines with 50 or more workers and to make the discharge allowance less than 3 per cent of the wages paid up to the time of discharge. The bills in connection with rice control were presented to the Diet to settle the long debated problems started with the presentation of similar bills which had been laid on the table at the 67th Session in 1935 after a desperate fight between farmers and merchants. This time they just got through both Houses with a conditional clause added to the original. The seditious literature restriction bill passed with important amendments to restrict the scope of its application and changing the name of the law into the seditious literature temporary restriction law. The Houses passed all the 46 bills presented by the Government in addition to the budgetary bills and over 150 memorials and resolutions, with the exception of the national mobilization secrets protection bill which was laid on the table because

of the danger of its restricting the freedom of the people.

For the Renovation of Parliament Among the resolutions of the Houses there were requests for the renovation of the constitution of both Houses and the revision of the election law, and the Government in compliance with these resolutions established on July 15, 1936, the Diet System Investigation Committee and the Election Law Investigation Committee, the former consisting of 43 members including the Premier, Presidents and Vice-presidents of both Houses, some distinguished members of both Houses and some Government officials; and the latter consisting of 48 members similar to the former. Points in question are, in the case of the Lower House, the need of change in the time and duration of the session from the present three months, from the end of December to that of March, to the four months from November to March, the appointment of a standing committee during the time the Diet is not in session, and in the case of the Upper House, a change in the time of office of members so as to bring about a radical change in the constitution of the House of Peers which has remained untouched since 1925.

Important Policies of the Hirota Cabinet The much talked about new policies of the Hirota Cabinet met with difficulties before being finally decided upon. A part of the Government insisted on the separation of the defence policies and the general policies, the greater importance to be placed on the former, while the other part required the realization of numerous political, social and economic measures to fulfil the special mission of the Cabinet and to answer the expectations of the people, who wanted something in the way of a reformation after the precious sacrifice of the Feb. 26 Incident.

Important policies and new measures heaped up on the table of the Cabinet meetings in such numbers that discussion on them became impossible in the limited time of the usual meetings, so after preliminary selection and study, a Cabinet meeting to consider important national policies was held on August 25, 1936, when it decided on and published the following 7 national policies:

(1) Completion of National Defence; (2) Improvement of the Educational System; (3) Readjustment of National and Local Tax Systems; (4) Stabilization of the Living of the People by a more effective prevention of natural disasters, completion of health protection, further economic measures for helping villagers and city merchants and manufacturers of small means; (5) Promotion of Industry and Expansion of Foreign Trade by the increase and control of electric power, self-supply of liquid fuel and iron and steel, full supply of materials for the fibre industries, aid and control of foreign trade, encouragement of aviation and sea transportation businesses and encouragement of emigration; (6) Establishment of important policies with regard to the relation of the Empire with Manchoukuo such as the emigration of Japanese to Manchoukuo or the greater investment of the Japanese capital in that country; (7) Improvement or Reformation of the Administrative System.

Formation of the Budget for 1937–38 The budget for 1937–38 was to be formed for the realization of the 7 national policies and as a matter of natural consequence the total figures compiled by the Ministries reached ¥3,400,000,000, including ¥480,000,000 of the Army, and ¥340,000,000 of the Navy extraordinary demands. (A full record of the formation of the budget is given at the end of Chapter VIII, Public Finance.)

New Taxation Plan and its Effect Since 1931 the deficit in national ways and means had been covered by the floatation of national loans, but it had long been considered improper to rely upon such a negative policy, and Dr. Baba, in his statement on March 9 on the general economic policy of the Hirota Cabinet, disclosed that the expansion of national expenditure was inevitable, to meet which the people might be asked to pay increased taxes rather than subscribe to national loans. This statement suggested a fundamental financial change in the tax system, money interest rates and the floatation of national loans, and the stock markets were thereby greatly disturbed by rumours and Dr. Baba was compelled to publish a milder statement on the following day. But his intention of raising tax rates was unchanged.

The main points of the new taxation plan made known by the Government on September 22, 1936, were (1) to effect a fundamental reform in the national and local tax systems so as to equalize the burden of the people which is unbalanced by locality between tax on fixed property and movable property and between corporations and individuals as explained by the following table:

PER CAPITA TAX BURDEN IN 1936-37

(In Yen)

	National Tax	Local surtax on ¥100 National Tax
Average of the whole nation	6.170	152.070
Tokyo Prefecture	22.552	55.360
Kagoshima „	1.774	424.020
Osaka „	16.160	78.910
Aomori „	1.524	466.140

Note: The amount of national tax borne by a person is indicative of his economic power.

(2) to make Japanese subjects of the present day bear the burden by increasing national income from increased and new taxes so as to lessen the burden of posterity as much as possible, and to reform the tax system so that the national treasury may easily extend its helping hand to local treasuries or vice versa.

By the Baba reformation of the tax system the estimated net national revenue from taxes was to increase by ¥197,500,000. The estimated increase of old taxes amounted to ¥337,300,000, while new taxes amounted to ¥80,200,000, making the total of ¥417,500,000, of which ¥220,000,000 was to go to local governments for the readjustment of their finance.

The stock market, which had been scared by the first announcement of Dr. Baba in March, was gradually quieted, and stimulated by prospective inflation and the rising tendency of commodity prices the index number of the price of popular shares rose from 108.6 in August to 116.3 in December. On the contrary, the long term capital market was heavily affected by the new tax system, and the floatation of debentures during the last quarter of 1936 became almost impossible.

The commercial world in general was confused because of the ambiguity of the final outcome of the policies of the Cabinet and was unable to make new contracts, while banking circles raised voices of criticism against the new income tax, stock exchange tax, tax on property, etc.

The rise in prices of commodities which had been expected as usual during the second half of the year and along with the rising tendency of prices the world over was taken advantage of by the Government in November to raise the price of tobacco. The general rise was such that the average index number of prices rose from 159.1 in June to 173.5 in December. The living cost of the people began to rise accordingly, and the Baba finance became so unpopular that the existence or continuation of the Hirota Cabinet began to be much discussed in the newspapers and leading periodicals.

The unpopularity of the Cabinet was due not only to the Baba financial plan but also to other national policies, such as that of electric power control, together with the seemingly lack of power to put the policies into practice. But the first cause of its weakness lay in the defects of its financial scheme, which overlooked the welfare of the mass of people both in cities and villages.

Advance to the National Control of Economics The financial policy of the Hirota Cabinet advanced to the national control of important economic organs and industrial enterprises. The phrase "Quasi-wartime economic system," which was frequently used by the Financial Minister and journalists in the latter half of the year, well voiced the Government's intention for national economic control. The control cannot be said to be as thorough as that in Fascist countries, but it entered in no small degree into the free commercial and industrial fields in 1936. The first aim of this economic control was the completion of national defence, the second was the remedying of the defects of individualistic capitalism and the third was the establishment of an economic policy of self-sufficiency along with the world tendency of forming economic blocs. From the outset, the Hirota Cabinet took as its first mission the strengthening of national defence although it did not by any means try to destroy the existing capitalistic economic system or reject the old principle of commercial freedom, but it purported to effect a peaceful change in the economic system of Japan, beginning with those enterprises the control of which was an acute necessity for the betterment of the life of the people and the strengthening of defence.

Among the bills which were put by the Government before the 69th session of the Diet and which passed both Houses, were many which aimed at this betterment of the life of the people and the strengthening of defence, for instance, the Rice Control Law, the Cocoon Disposition Control Law, the Important Fertilizers Business Control Law, the Important Commodities of Trade Control Law, the Automobile Manufacturing Business Law, the Revised Industrial Control Law, and the

Navigation Control Law. These laws had been planned by former cabinets so were not the legitimate offspring of the Hirota Cabinet control ideals, but they passed into law because of the Diet's desire to strengthen economic control to meet the quasi-wartime needs.

New Diet Building

The new Diet Building was completed in the autumn of 1936 at a total cost of approximately ¥25,800,000 spent over a period of 19 years. It stands on an eminence of 26.6 metres above sea-level at Nagatacho, Kojimachiku, in grounds of about 694 ares (17 acres).

For the erection of the building, a special bureau was created within the Ministry of Finance on June 9, 1918, and on September 16 of the same year, an announcement was made through the official gazette, offering prizes for the best designs. After a careful examination of the designs presented, four prize winners were gazetted on October 16, 1919, and on the basis of these an official plan was drawn and the construction work started.

The site for the Diet was marked as such as early as 1887, one year before the construction work on the old provisional Diet building at Uchisaiwaicho was commenced. It looks on to the Imperial Palace in the north-east and fronts, across the Kasumigaseki Detached Palace, on various offices of the Central Government at Sakuradacho and Kasumigaseki. In the rear, it faces the Sannō Grove across the ravine of Nagatacho.

The ground-breaking ceremony took place on January 30, 1920, and in May, 1925, a Building and Repair Administration Bureau was established and the responsibility of the construction of the building was turned over to the bureau. The steel frame was completed in 1927 and the ceremony of putting up the roof-tree according to a Japanese custom was held on April 7, of the same year.

The building has in the centre a tower of 65.5 metres in height, the section on the right of the tower being assigned to the House of Peers and that on the left to the House of Representatives. The building covers an area of 123.96 ares, the total floor space being 521.65 ares. It has a frontage of 206.36 metres and is 88.63 metres in depth.

It is a three-storied building with a basement, except the central section which is four-storied with a basement. The tower in the centre is eight-storied, the uppermost floor being intended as an observatory. The entire building is divided into 390 major rooms and a number of minor ones.

The foundation consists of concrete piles of the pedestal type which reach the gravel layer and of a ferro-concrete base which is constructed on the concrete piles. On the ferro-concrete base stands the steel frame which was made entirely of products of the Yawata Iron Works. The outer walls of the building are made of granite, the upper portions consisting of products of Hiroshima prefecture and the lower being products of Yamaguchi prefecture. The four columns of the front porch each stand 14.85 metres high and are 1.818 metres in diameter, their capitals being decorated with the phoenix and arabesque patterns.

Thirty-seven different kinds of marble, gathered from various parts of the country, are used for finishing the interior of the building, that used for the central hall is coral lime-stone similar to Italian travertin, a product of Okinawa prefecture, and is used in architecture for the first time in this country. The central hall and the hall in front of the Imperial rest-chamber are decorated with mosaics made by the use of 1,600,000 small different-coloured pieces of marble.

The Chambers of the House of Peers and the House of Representatives each cover an area of 7.437 ares. The former has 460 seats and the latter 466 seats but either of them may be increased to a maximum of 635 seats in case of necessity.

The Imperial rest-chamber and the chamber for Princes of the Blood are finished with a coating of genuine lacquer on Japanese cypress. The entrance doors of the Imperial rest-chamber are decorated with gold lacquer pictures inlaid with the mother-of-pearl.

The carpeting of the floors of the Imperial rest-chamber and the chamber for Princes of the Blood is of silk while the floors of the rooms for the State Ministers are covered with Chitosé dantsū (Carpets) manufactured at the Fukuoka Industrial Laboratory. The large bronze doors of the front Imperial entrance which weighs 1,125 kg. each were manufactured by the Tokyo Academy of Fine Arts.

The building is equipped with all modern conveniences, such as heating and cooling systems, elevators, pneumatic carriers, five preventing and ventilating apparatuses, vacuum-cleaners, loud-speakers and other electric equipment of all kinds. The exterior can

be flood-lit with 24 light projectors of 1,000 watts each. The assembly chambers are illuminated by 416 lamps installed behind the stained glass of the ceilings, the lamps being divided into four groups so that the illumination can be increased or reduced at will. In addition, there are 20 lamps hanging from the ceiling, which serve as a decoration and which may be lit by means of storage batteries in case of interruption of the electric current supply.

There is also a notice announcing system whereby the secretaries can announce 12 different notices, such as "Meeting is opened," "Speech by State Ministers," and "Debate" from their desks to about 90 halls and chambers and rooms in the building simultaneously by means of indicators. A special bell system, a new Japanese invention, based on successive diminution of frequency is also installed, whereby notices can be announced from the chief secretary's room as to which house is in plenary session, the House of Peers or the House of Representatives.

The new Diet building was constructed on the basis that domestic products to the greatest possible extent should be used, so not only are the building materials of home production but also are all the interior ornamentations, furniture and furnishings, and some of them were obtained only after considerable difficulty, while others were put to new and unusual uses in order that the construction of the new seat of national legislature should stimulate the development of architecture and promote the industry of the country.

Sino-Japanese Issue On August 24, 1936 a Chinese mob attacked four Japanese at Chengtu, Szechwan province, killing two newspaper correspondents and seriously injuring the other two. This event aroused the indignation of the whole Japanese nation as similar misdeeds against Japanese subjects in China had become of rather frequent occurrence. Negotiations between the Japanese envoys at Nanking and Chinese Foreign officials were becoming a matter of continuity for the peaceful settlement of these matters.

The Japanese Government and people took the occurrence of these regrettable incidents as a natural outcome of the anti-Japanese education and policy of the Nanking Government. The recurrence of such incidents could not be prevented, the Japanese inferred, by a mere proclamation of the Chinese Government enjoining of Chinese people to behave more friendly toward the Japanese. The Japanese Government seemed rather too cautious, while the public opinion in Japan was strong enough to back the Government in taking any aggressive measures on China. The Nanking Government took a negative attitude all through and, taking advantage of the East Suiyuan issue at the end of the year, communicated to the Japanese representatives that it would be difficult to bring the Nanking negotiation to a successful conclusion so long as the East Suiyuan question was not settled, and assumed an attitude threatening to repudiate all agreements so far reached. The final outcome of all conversations between the representatives of the two Governments, which had extended over three months, was the visit of Ambassador Kawagoe to Mr. Chang Chun, Chinese Minister for Foreign Affairs, on December 3, 1936 when a note embodying points on which agreement had been reached was handed him, and the Nanking parley entered a holiday, both sides publishing statements contradicting each other. (See Chapter VI, Foreign Relations.)

The Sino-Japanese issue in the last three months of 1936 left the final solution to a later occasion. The Japanese press and the people as a whole were not satisfied with the activities of the authorities concerned with the issue, considering their attitude as disclosing weakness on the part of the Hirota Cabinet and taking, on the other hand, the unfriendly attitude of the Nanking Government so heavily to heart that another crisis between the two nations seemed likely at any moment.

Control of Electric Power Control of electric power in Japan by the Government was included in the items of the seven national policies set out by the Hirota Cabinet as mentioned elsewhere and became one of the most important subjects of discussion in industrial and commercial circles. The plan was representative of the national control of all economic enterprises and the existing electric companies were necessarily opposed to it as against their interests, and the economic world condemned it as being contrary to the principle of commercial freedom and a kind of public robbery of another's property because under the plan it was intended to purchase compulsorily all the facilities and equipments of the companies at a price estimated by the Government. Heading the criticism of the plan the Ministry of Communications, the compiler of the bill, made

amendments to the first plan, but the main difficulty lay in the value of the fixed assets of the power companies which were capitalised aggregately at over ¥800,000,000, besides which much doubt was entertained as to the practical result of the control, which aimed at the lowering of the price of electric power. The presentation of the bill to the 70th session of the Diet at the beginning of 1937 was therefore postponed and the question left over for the decision of the present Konoe Cabinet.

Japan-German Agreement In cognizance of the fact that the object of the Communistic International, or the so-called Comintern, is the disintegration of existing States recognized by it as Imperialistic or capitalist, and that its interference in the internal affairs of nations not only endangers their internal peace but threatens international peace, and desiring to co-operate for defence against communistic disintegration, Japan and Germany agreed, on November 25, 1936, on a mutual exchange of information concerning the activities of the Comintern, confer upon necessary measures of defence and carry out such measures in close co-operation. When this agreement was announced by the Government the general public received it with a reserved expression of feeling, not so much of dissension at the agreement but at the way it was arrived at, for the Government had kept the negotiations so secret that the final result failed to get the full sympathy of the people. Actually there was no fundamental objection from any quarter, any dissatisfaction that was voiced being merely against its sectional nature and proposing that the agreement should have been of a more thorough understanding for mutual help. The matter is handled in the chapter on foreign relations, and it will suffice here to point out the Japanese historical friendly feeling towards the German people. The affinity of the Japanese feeling towards the German people before the world war originated in and was fostered by Germany's tutorship in the medical and military sciences. German philosophers, headed by Kant, have found many followers among the Japanese and their influence, even over the Japanese indigenous religion of Shintoism in its philosophical exposition, has become noticeable in recent years. In musical education, especially in respect to the piano, Japan owes as much to Germany as to Austria, France and other countries. In spite of the Kaiser's outcry at what he termed the "Yellow Peril," the hostility between the two countries around the Chinese question, and, at the time of the World War, the fact that Germany and Japan found themselves on opposite sides, the people of Japan have always cherished an admiration toward the German people for their love of their country, their rare fighting spirit, their scientific ability and their national strength as demonstrated during and after the War.

Question of the Revision of the Administrative System Much talk and discussion took place on the question of the revision of the administrative system of the central and local governments after the formation of the Hirota Cabinet, but it was only on October 23 that it was first introduced to a regular Cabinet meeting. For the improvement of the central governmental system Finance Minister Dr. Baba, Railway Minister Mr. Maeda, Communications Minister Mr. Tanomogi and Education Minister Mr. Hirao, and for that of the local governmental system the Home Minister Mr. Ushio, the Minister of Justice Mr. Hayashi, the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry Mr. Shimada, the Minister of Commerce and Industry Dr. Ogawa and the Minister for Overseas Affairs Mr. Nagata were asked by the Premier Hirota to make joint investigations concerning the economic and administrative relations of the local governmental system and the fundamentals of the constitution of both houses of the Diet.

The problems of the renovation of the political organs included one regarding the reformation of the legislation organ, and many rumours were heard about the intentions of military circles, for it was said that they were against political parties and any formation of the cabinet by a political party in Japan. Early in November, the Minseito, the Seiyukai and the Social Mass parties held meetings and passed decisions demanding to know the real intention of the Minister of War. Whereupon the War Minister, Lieutenant-general Terauchi, made clear in the Cabinet meeting held on November 6 his ideas on the constitution of the Imperial Diet as follows :

The sole intention of the Ministries of War and Navy is in the establishment of a constitutional government characteristic to Japan in accordance with the special nature of the Japanese national structure, and military circles entertain no idea of minimizing the power of the Imperial Diet in any degree. What they wish is that the Im-

perial Diet may carry on its functions in accordance with the Constitution of the Japanese Empire so as to rightfully represent the demands and opinions of the people in general. All the political demands of the Army and Navy shall be expressed through the Ministers of War and Navy and no other individuals or officers in responsible positions, and the Imperial Army is by no means responsible for the rumours concerning its intentions on the reformation of the Houses.

A fuller explanation on what the military circles demanded for the renovation of all political organs was given out on November 9. The gist of it follows :

On the reorganization of the central governmental system, (1) the establishment of an organ for the investigation of important national policies, control of the Ministries, formation of a national budget and more reasonable distribution of money among the different Ministries, by the reconstruction of the existing Commission of Information, the head of the organ to be made a member of the Cabinet ; (2) the establishment of an organ for the unified control and improvement of officials in all departments of the central government, the organ to be under the direct supervision of the Premier ; (3) to reinforce Japan's foreign policy by the amalgamation of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and that of Overseas Affairs ; (4) to amalgamate the Ministries of Agriculture and Forestry and Commerce and Industry for the readjustment of the administration of commerce and industry and for the strengthening of the organs for foreign trade, fuel and electric enterprises ; (5) to transfer the Shrine Bureau of the Home Ministry to the Education Ministry for the more effective promotion of the national spirit ; (6) the reorganization of the Ministry of Home Affairs for the renovation of the administration of home affairs, by relieving it of the work of the Shrine Bureanu and public engineering, and giving it the power of controlling all the organs related to public health ; (7) the unification of the administrations of air and land transportations and communications specially to encourage the progress of air transportation managed by private companies and to strengthen the control of shipping and harbour enterprises ; and (8) to effect improvements in the working of all Ministries to do away with contradictions, overlapping and rivalry among Ministries in official works and investigation organs :

On the reformation of the local governmental system : to improve and renew all the phases of local governments in accordance with the renovation of central government and in compliance with the advance of the national destiny ; and as to the Imperial Diet, to reform the Houses by the revision of the Parliamentary and Election Laws to meet the present conditions of Japan. These demands have as their fundamental aim the bringing about of a strong Government which may be able to work out its functions for the expansion of trade and commerce, the progress of industry and the completion of national defence in order to keep pace with the progress of the world and cope with the changes of the times.

On December 2, at a meeting of the Commission for the Investigation of the Parliamentary System, the members of the Commission met Lieutenant-General Terauchi, War Minister, to hear his ideas on the reformation of the Imperial Diet and increase understanding on both sides through open-hearted conversations. The War Minister denied all the reports in the press concerning the opinions of a part of the Army and expressed regret at the existence of a mis-informed propaganda as to the real wish of the Army on this subject, and said ; " In my belief there should be no such idea as to be against our national structure or the Constitution of the Japanese Empire and abuse the fundamental nature of the Imperial Diet in working out its functions, influenced by western democratic ideas. In view of the present state of affairs it is an urgent need that the Parliamentary and Election Laws be revised so that a healthy public opinion and the wisdom of the people may be fully reflected upon all the political working of the constitutional government in accordance with our unique Constitution. Such is my earnest hope as one who has endeavoured to readjust military discipline and make clear Japan's national characteristics. National and international affairs in Japan require the unity of the whole nation and self-examination and sacrifice on the part of all the organs responsible for the destiny of the country in order to make a steady national advance, conquering all obstacles and rallying all the forces of the nation."

Then he unreservedly admitted that the meddling of soldiers in active service with political affairs is strictly prohibited by the Election Law, the Military Criminal Code and regulations

and reported that the War Minister had already given orders to the whole army not to deviate from its duties.

On November 16, the four Ministers of State who had been entrusted with the investigation on the reformation of the central governmental system held their third meeting and came to the following decision as to the central organ of control: (1) the new organ may be called the Sōmu Cho or General Board; (2) the present Investigation Bureau, Resources Bureau, Statistics Bureau and Information Commission shall be brought into the new General Board, changing the name of the Information Commission to Information Bureau and that of the Investigation Bureau to Planning Bureau and enlarging their functions; (3) the Legislation Bureau shall remain independent as it is now; (4) the proposed Personnel Bureau and Budget Bureau shall not be establshed, leaving the responsibility of the budget formation to the existing office and enlarging the official forces under the present Chief Secretary of the Cabinet for the management of personnel; (5) the head of the new General Board shall be newly appointed and his official rank shall be the highest rank of Shinnin-Kwan; and (6) the head of the General Board shall be present at Cabinet meetings, but whether he be made a regular member of the Cabinet or not shall remain undecided for the time being. But, when a written bill on the proposed General Bureau was prepared by the Legislation Bureau and put before the fourth meeting of the four Ministers, which was held on December 5, opinions were divided on various important points and the final decision was postponed, with the hope, however, of getting the final bill drawn up before the coming session of the Diet in order that the establishment of the Board may be realized in the fiscal year 1937–38.

On December 11, the five Ministers of State who had been entrusted with the investigation on the renovation of the local governmental system held their fourth meeting and after discussions on the reports of each Minister came to the conclusion that the question of the complete autonomy of the greater cities independent of the prefectural government had to be settled as soon as possible, but in view of the shortness of time for drawing up a bill for all the greater cities in Japan the Tokyo Metropolitan bill only should be prepared and introduced to the coming session of the Diet. As to the revision of the regulations on the constitution of the Imperial Diet they decided to wait for the reports of the investigation commissions Parliamentary Law, the Election Law and the House of Peers Law.

Positive Attitude of Political Parties

The 70th session of the Imperial Diet was convened on December 24, 1936, to sit for three months ending with March 25, 1937. The difficulties of the Hirota Cabinet were expected to arise over the Tax Increase Bill, the Electric Power State Management Bill and the Compulsory Education Prolongation Bill and it was felt that the Government must exert itself to overcome the antagonistic forces represented by many members of both Houses. To make the matters worse, there was a dissatisfaction at the foreign policy of the Government in general and a still smouldering complaint at the Government's attitude towards the political parties.

From what transpired at the meetings of the political parties preparatory to the 70th session of the Diet it was revealed that the parties were going to take a much more positive attitude in the discussions in the coming session of the Diet than they had been wont to do in former sessions. The Imperial edict at the opening of the 69th session called forth the sense of responsibility anew, not only among Governmental circles but also among party men, and the latter began to pay closer attention to the doings of the Hirota Cabinet. They were expected to enter into hot discussions over many drastic measures to be taken by the Government for political, economic and educational renovation discordant, in their eyes, to the present state of national progress, together with evident failures in the handling of international affairs by the Government. In certain circles the view was entertained that the political parties were aiming at the overthrow of the Government during or after the 70th session of the Diet in order to bring about a possible pro-party government under the premiership of, for instance, General Ugaki or General Minami. No matter whether there was any truth in such a surmise it was true that the progressive elements of both leading parties met several times to discuss upon these questions with the aim of bringing about the co-operation of the Minseito and the Seiyukai in the fight against the Government. A complete unity of these parties en masse was much doubted, but there was some possibility of it should an emergency arise in the session which might concern the common interest of both parties,

although on the other hand, both parties were rather handicapped because of their being represented in the Cabinet.

The 70th Session of the Imperial Diet

The 70th session of the Imperial Diet, convened on December 24, 1936, was of great import to the Hirota Cabinet, which had been formed to cope with the grave state of national and international affairs and the February 26 Incident and which was now to ask the judgement of the nation concerning its plans and administration for the first time, because the 69th session had been a short and extraordinary one. There was a fresh expectation in general for the session because it was to be held for the first time in the new and permanent edifice of the Imperial Diet Building which had been completed in November, 1936.

Before the formal opening of the session the political parties held their general meetings and gave voice to what they thought of the general situation and their attitude towards the Government.

The Miniseito published its statement, saying, "The present state of national and international affairs in Japan calls for the fundamental reformation of international policies and administration of national affairs. But what the present Government is doing is far from their promise for the reformation of national administration thus causing a general unrest in the banking and industrial circles and deepening the economic depression among the working classes in urban and country districts alike so that the whole nation is put on the verge of an outbreak of thought confusion, while the foreign policy of the Cabinet has brought about a standstill of diplomacy between the country and Russia, China or Great-Britain, because of its inability to establish a stable diplomatic policy." The Seiyukai put emphasis on the effective activities of the Imperial Diet as an organ representing the mass of people in answer to the Imperial wish for discussing important matters with the subjects, calling special attention to the new taxation policies of the Government and its wavering diplomatic policy concerning matters pertaining to the welfare of the Oriental countries. The Social Mass party passed decisions on waging war, against the oppression of the Government of the Governmental labour unions, on a movement for the institution of the Trade Union Law and Tenant Law, on free discussion in the Diet, on the Budget, the revision of the tax system, the reformation of the governmental system, the revision of the Election Law and the control of the electric power business, and on the realization of a diplomatic policy in accordance with the wishes of the people, evincing their anti-Fascist political ideas.

The Strength of the Political Parties The strength of the political parties in the Houses on the day of the opening of the Imperial Diet was as follows:

The House of Peers;	
Princes of the Blood	18
The Kenkyukai	160
The Koseikai	66
The Kayokai	42
The Koyu Club	36
The Dowakai	34
The Doseikai	22
Independents	30
Total	408
The House of Representatives;	
The Minseito	205
The Seiyukai	171
The Showakai	25
The Kokumin-Domei	12
The Tohokai	9
The Social Mass Party and Local Proletarians	21
Other small groups	18
Independents	4
Vacant seats	1
Total	466

The general atmosphere at the opening of the 70th session of the Diet suggested a strong attitude of the leading political parties against the policies of the Government, especially against the lukewarm Arita diplomacy. But the collision between the House of Representatives and the Hirota Cabinet occurred on January 21 in connection with the interpellation of Mr. Hamada and the answer of Lieutenant-General Terauchi, War Minister.

Premier Hirota's Address The 70th session of the Diet reopened on January 21, 1937, after over three weeks' adjournment and the Premier, the Foreign Minister and the Finance Minister delivered addresses reviewing in general the important national and international policies.

Premier Kōki Hirota stated in his address that it was Japan's mission to make contributions to the establishment of an enduring peace in the world, that Japan was confronted internally by a number of problems in all phases of national affairs, while externally the conditions of the world were in a

disturbed state and the international political situation of Japan was becoming more delicate than ever presupposing diplomatic difficulties of all kinds on her path ahead, that in order to surmount these possible difficulties Japan should on the one hand make known to the world the high aims of the country in order to get a full understanding of these aims among the nations and she should on the other hand bring about a general renovation of the government machinery to effect the repletion of national strength.

The Government, he assured, was endeavouring to insure Japanese position as the stabilizing power of East Asia by strengthening her special relations with Manchoukuo and establishing amicable relations with China being convinced that the adjustment of the present Sino-Japanese situation was of paramount importance for maintaining a lasting peace in East Asia. Then he dwelt upon the Japan-German Agreement concluded in November, 1936, and said Japan had always been exercising strict control over the communist movement in the country and in view of the visibly increasing menace of the Comintern she felt the need of international co-operation for combating the organization and concluded, to begin with, an agreement with Germany. As to Japanese relation with other nations he spoke of Japan's effort for smoothing the Soviet-Japanese relations, and Japan's friendly relations with Great Britain and the United States of America.

Then he went on to speak on the important policies of the Government which had been announced before the 69th session of the Diet in the spring of 1936. "We have decided," he said, "to submit to the Diet seven concrete programmes for national defence and other matters, together with the budget and bills which are necessary in order to carry out those programmes. The first item is the repletion of national defence. If our country is to insure its existence, carry out its national policies, and maintain its position as the stabilizing force of East Asia and march forward in peace, no deficiency can be permitted to exist in the system of our national defence. The Army requires immediate augmentation of its strength to meet the need of defence on the continent. The Navy, in this age of no treaty limitation, must be provided with adequate equipment consonant with our principle of non-menace and non-aggression. The second item is the programme for educational reforms. Under the present circumstances of our country it is of urgent necessity to reinvigorate the national spirit through a proper reform of our educational system suited to the needs of the times. The public school system is the root and stem of all educational undertakings in Japan. All other facilities for education should be placed on the solid foundation of public schools. Therefore, it has been decided to extend the period of compulsory education in public schools and to introduce improvements into its system along the lines recommended by the Education Reform Council.

"The third item is the revision of the taxation system, national and local, to increase the tax revenue of the Government for carrying out a number of important programmes for the repletion of national defence, for the development of national strength and for the reinforcement of the national foundation, and at the same time to set up a flexible system of taxation and to effect a fair distribution of the tax burden. The fourth item is the stabilization of national life. The Government plans to contribute to the stabilization of national life by concentrating efforts on the prevention of natural calamities, the improvement of health measures, the economic rehabilitation of farming and fishing villages and the encouragement to merchants and industrial enterprisers of limited means."

As regards the measure for the mitigation of losses sustained by natural calamities efforts would be made, he assured, for afforestation and riparian works. For the improvement of the health of the people more effective measures for the prevention of tuberculosis would be carried on, while the national health insurance system would be inaugurated. For the economic rehabilitation of villagers the Government would exert efforts to reform the smallholding system, to harmonize the interests of tenants and landowners, for funding the debts of villagers and to compensate or lighten the losses of farmers and fishermen sustained by natural calamities. To better the business conditions of petty merchants and small industrial enterprisers the Government intended to encourage the organization of guilds or associations, to extend financial aid to them, to inaugurate a compensation system for their losses and to localize various industries.

"The Government has formulated," the Premier's address continued, "a comprehensive plan for the development

of the north-eastern districts which are in extreme distress, and has already started to carry it on. For the purpose of easing the credit situation the Government has established people's banks and pensioner's banks. For the development of industry and the promotion of foreign trade various steps have been taken.

"The fifth is industrial development and commercial expansion. In the first place, the control of the electric power industry commands our attention. In view of the universality of electricity and of the public nature of electric enterprises, the Government proposes to control the electric power industry so as to develop water power resources on a national basis and complete a network of transmission wires, to establish a policy regarding charges and meet the requirements of national defence. As regards liquid fuel and iron and steel, the Government, in view of the increasing importance of accelerating the self-supply of liquid oil in the face of prevailing circumstances both at home and abroad, has reorganized and strengthened the machinery for the execution of its fuel policies, by extending the existing installations, and by formulating and carrying out a policy for the establishment and development of synthetic oil production. At the same time, the Government, for the self-supply and self-sufficiency of iron and steel and also for the independence of the iron and steel industry, is making efforts for the formation of a comprehensive iron and steel policy covering Japan and Manchoukuo, the improvement and proper control of the iron and steel industry in Japan, the development and securing of iron resources and strengthening other fundamental measures.

"Regarding fibre materials, the Government will take measures for developing the sources and establishing the industry for manufacturing fibre substitutes..

"That our foreign trade has continued to increase year after year and make a steady and favourable development in the midst of the world-wide economic depression, is due to the assiduous efforts of traders for many years past and to the improvement of the productive technique. However, with international trade being hampered by obstacles of all sorts, the prospect does not permit optimism. We must, in co-operation with other Powers, remove trade barriers and at the same time, with the Government and people in unison, take all necessary measures for the promotion of our trade. The Government intends to strive for a smooth development of our foreign trade by strengthening the control, by making adjustment between the industries of our country and those of other countries concerned and by remedying various abuses in transaction, and will make efforts for the reorganization of domestic industries into those for export purpose and the protection and development of our markets abroad.

"In view of the important bearing of the development of aviation and shipping industries upon the prosperity of a nation, the Government has decided to take measures for the full development of air routes, for the encouragement and control of the aircraft industry, for the inauguration and improvement of regular air services, and for the encouragement of the construction of superior vessels and also of oceanic shipping business.

"The sixth is the establishment of the important policy toward Manchoukuo. The Government has formulated a plan for sending a large number of emigrants to Manchoukuo and also taken steps to encourage investments in the country. Encouragement of emigration to Manchoukuo will strengthen the inseparable relations between Japan and Manchoukuo and also will contribute to the healthy development of that country, while assistance extended to its economic development will serve as a short cut for the realization of economic co-operation between the two countries.

"The seventh is the reform and improvement of administrative machinery. The Government is making an intensive study of the problem for reforming and improving both central and provincial administrative machinery, securing thereby smoothness of administration. We intend to realize it step by step when definite plans are made.

"The necessity of reforming the parliamentary system along with the reform and improvement of administrative machinery has been recognized. A resolution for that purpose was adopted at the last session of the Diet. In consequence, the Government has appointed three commissions, the Parliamentary System Investigation Commission, the Election System Investigation Commission, and the Commission for the Investigation of the House of Peers System. Competent men, both in and out of the Government service, are serving on those commissions which are

pushing on necessary studies. Recommendations have already been made on those points of the parliamentary and election systems which require reform. In pursuance of those recommendations the Government intends to go through necessary formalities and to introduce at this session legislation bills providing for reform of the parliamentary and election systems. For securing constitutional development we believe it vitally important to inculcate upon the people always a true understanding of constitutional self-government and make them assume a stronger sense of responsibility therefor, and we intend to make greater endeavours in this direction also. Under the circumstances politics are positively not permitted to run counter to the guiding principle of our constitutional government. We are convinced that our nation is bound to supprt solidly the great purpose of the Constitution under the peerless national polity."

Foreign Minister Arita's Address "As I stated in May last at the Extraordinary Session of the Diet, the national policy of Japan aims at ensuring the stability of East Asia, to contribute thereby to the cause of world peace, as well as at promoting the welfare and happiness of mankind by upholding international justice. And we have been striving earnestly and unremittingly toward the achievement of those aims.

"In surveying the conditions of the world it is to be noted that the international political situation is still lacking in stability. In fact, it appears to be growing worse than ever owing especially to the activities of the Communist International, or the Comintern. In these circumstances, it is truly significant that there was concluded on November 25 last year an agreement between Japan and Germany concerning the Communist International. This agreement is intended for a common defence against the activities of the Comintern whose tenets are not only incompatible with the national polity of our country but inconsistent with human nature itself.

"The Japanese Government has always been endeavouring to suppress the communist movement, which long since made its way also into this country. In China, subsequent to the adoption by the Kuomintang of a policy of toleration toward the Communist Party, the movement spread widely so that there were established a few years ago Soviet Areas in various prts of Kian Kiangsi and Fukien, and the so-called Communist-bandit armies infested numerous localities. It was with grave concern that Japan watched the developments in China under the Red invasion. Then, in the summer of the year before last, the Seventh Congress of the Comintern, convened at Moscow, passed a resolution and declared openly that certain countries including Japan and Germany were to be the major objects of its future operations. At the same time the Comintern adopted new tactics of campaign based upon the formation of the so-called people's front, which has proved successful in several countries of Europe, especially in Spain where it has brought on a civil war which is raging even now, attended with terrible scenes of fratricide. In East Asia the Comintern commenced skilfully to sovietize China while damaging the Sino-Japanese relations through a movement called the Anti-Japanese People's Front organized throughout that country. In Manchoukuo and also in Japan there appeared signs of the growth of communist manoeuvres.

"In the face of the operations of the Comintern, tenacious as they are ingenious, our Government was obliged to devise more stringent measures of defence and formulate an adequate policy for the protection of our national polity and the preservation of the stability of East Asia. Of course, we are seeking to achieve the purpose of defence and of detection and investigation through our domestic organs. But the Comintern is an international organization with a large number of branches scattered all over the globe, which maintain close contact between one another, and conduct their campaigns under directions from headquarters, each exploiting the peculiar conditions of its own territory. Therefore, measures for guarding against such operations should necessarily be extended to an international scale. That is why Japan has concluded with Germany the present agreement providing for the exchange of information and the study of the necessary steps to be taken.

"The object of this agreement is a joint defence against the Comintern, and we should be glad to enter into agreement with any other country within the scope of that aim. Needless to say, the Japanese Government are not bound in any way outside the scope of the above-mentioned aim. It seems to have been those who entertained misunderstandings or misgivings regarding the character of the agreement. But I wish to state definitely that the conclusion of the agreement, which was

dictated by the need of protecting our national polity and preserving the peace of East Asia, does not affect in the slightest degree our policy of promoting friendly relations with all Powers in the spirit of universal concord and harmony.

"The Japanese Government is endeavouring to further the unity and solidarity between the peoples of Japan and Manchoukuo and to consolidate the neighbourly and inseparable relationship between the two countries. And for that purpose, we decided, as I stated at the previous session of the Diet, upon the abolition of our extraterritorial rights and the adjustment and transfer of our administrative rights in the South Manchuria Railway Zone. Under this policy, and as the first step, there was signed on June 10 last year a treaty concerning partial abolition of our extraterritorial rights and adjustment of our administrative rights in the South Manchuria Railway Zone. The conclusion of this treaty was hailed by the people of Manchoukuo with profound satisfaction, and its operation has since proved eminently successful. It is gratifying to us all to note that Manchoukuo is making steady and healthy progress along all lines, and the economic and commercial relations between that country and ours are growing more and more intimate.

"It was some time ago that the Japanese Government proposed to China three basic principles, hoping to effect thereby the much needed adjustment of Sino-Japanese relations. However, in August last there occurred the Chengtu incident, which was followed by a series of unfortunate incidents at Pakhoi and elsewhere. From an examination into the nature of these incidents we could see clearly that every one of them was not merely an ordinary case of murder or assault, but that they were all traceable to the anti-Japanese policy of China. While it was necessary to obtain settlements of individual cases as such, it was evident that unless we eliminated their underlying causes we could not possibly prevent the recurrence of similar incidents, nor could we protect the lives and property of our nationals and safeguard our rights and interests in China, and consequently we could never hope for a friendly and harmonious intercourse between the two nations.

"Therefore, in order to forestall the recurrence of any untoward incidents at their very source, the Japanese Government, while demanding utmost sincerity in the exercise of the control of all anti-Japanese agitations, invited the Nanking Government to discuss various questions, upon the solution of which depended the adjustment of Sino-Japanese relations. In other words, we desired that the Nanking Government, instead of stopping short at the negative policy of merely controlling the anti-Japanese movement, should go a step further and alter their own attitude toward Japan, which was one of the chief causes of anti-Japanese agitations, and we urged upon that Government to prove their sincerity on various concrete issues having to do with the rehabilitation of Sino-Japnese relations. Negotiatıcns were begun at Nanking between the representatives of the two countries early in September, and continued for over three months. Believing that, in view of the Chinese attitude, indefinite prolongation of the negotiations would only serve to bring on fresh complications, we demanded that the Nanking Government put into practice those points on which both sides had so far reached an agreement of views, leaving the remaining questions to later conversations. Thereupon the Chengtu and Pakhoi incidents as such were settled on December 30.

"The policy of Japan toward the U.S.S.R. lies, as a matter of course, in the maintenance and insurance of normal relations. In order to enhance friendly relations between the two countries through the solution of pending issues, our Government has continued to conduct negotiations during the past year regarding the revision of the fishery treaty, and the problems of border demarcation and settlement of disputes between the Soviet Union and Manchoukuo, and also has assisted in the negotiations between the Soviet authorities and representatives of Japanese interests on the matter of extension of the period of oil prospecting in North Saghalien. As regards this oil question, a contract was concluded in October extending the prospecting period by five years. The text of a new fishery convention was also drawn up in the middle of last November after deliberations lasting for one and a half year. But at the very moment when the instrument was to be signed, the Soviet Governmnt asked for a postponement of the signature on the grounds of non-completion of the necessary domestic procedure, and thereafter persistently refused to sign. We called the attention of the Soviet Government repeatedly to the basic nature of Japan's fishery right in the northern waters and to the perpetuity re-

quired of the treaty intended to regulate the exercise of the said right. As the result of these later conversations a provisional arrangement was concluded at last on December 28, which will permit our fishery enterprise to go unobstructed for the coming session. Our Government intends of course to continue negotiations regarding the signing of the above-mentioned new convention and expects to arrive at a settlement at an early date.

"The establishment of Commissions for the Manchoukuo-Soviet border demarcation and settlement of disputes was proposed by our Government in the belief that such bodies would contribute substantially toward the prevention of disputes between Japan, Manchoukuo and the Soviet Union, and the harmonization of the tripartite relations. I may say that an agreement of views has been reached on all the basic questions involved, excepting one or two points. And our Government hopes to see this question settled as soon as possible.

"Toward Great Britain our policy to strengthen the traditional relations remains unchanged. When the two countries, taking a broad view, give full and sympathetic consideration to each other's position, there can be no doubt that a way will be found of adjusting their interests. It is the intention of our Government to exert further efforts in that direction.

"Japan's relations with the United States are of late happily improving, owing, I believe, as well to our consistent policy of contributing, in cooperation with that Power, to the maintenance of peace in the Pacific, as to a deeper understanding on the part of the American people regarding the situation in East Asia. The Japanese Government will continue to spare no efforts in the cultivation and improvement of the cordial relations already existing between the two nations.

"The naval limitation treaty among the world's three major sea Powers, Japan, Great Britain, and the United States, has expired with the last year. Our Government, adhering as faithfully as ever to the principle of non-menace and non-aggression, have certainly no desire to initiate a race for naval construction. Indeed, we have seized every opportunity to express our sincere aspiration for naval limitation, and it is still the cherished hope of the Japanese Government that there will be concluded as soon as possible a just and fair treaty of limitation among the Powers concerned, to contribute to the cause of world peace.

"Recently, we notified the Italian Government of our decision to withdraw our Legation in Ethiopia and to establish a consulate in its stead. At the same time, the Italian Government assured us that they would give favourable consideration concerning the protection of our commercial and other interests in Ethiopia. Negotiations on that basis are now in progress. I should say that we have only taken what seemed to be the proper step in view of the actual situation and also in consideration of the friendly relations between our country and Italy.

"Our Government is also desirous of establishing closer economic relations with the countries in the South Seas. Although there are those who misunderstand, or even attempt to discredit our intentions, we entertain no aggressive designs, but only seek to promote our trade and join efforts with those countries in the development of the natural resources through the furtherance of peaceful and friendly relations.

"I am happy to say that Japan's foreign trade, despite the numerous measures of restriction adopted by many countries, rose to an unprecedented volume last year, demonstrating the vigour and vitality of our nation's economic and industrial life. As for the trade restrictions of other lands, they are of such character that there is no way to have them removed save through diplomatic negotiations. Our Government is doing its best in that regard. To cite a conspicuous instance, some time ago our Government was compelled to invoke the Trade Protection Law against Australia in order to counter the measures of the Australian Government to restrict the importation of Japanese goods. Thereafter we initiated trade negotiations which were continued for several months until toward the end of last year, when an amicable understanding was reached, and the relations between Japan and Australia were restored to a normal basis.

"As for the Netherlands Indies, through the intermediation of the Government of that country and of our own, the shipping interests of the two countries concluded an agreement in the course of the past year. The conclusion of this agreement, which had been claimed by the Netherlands Indies as a postulate for any discussion on trade, paved the way to the trade negotiations between the Governments, which have been carried on with tangible results. Our trade negotiations with British India are also making satisfactory pro-

gress.

"While carrying on these negotiations, our Government is also devoting its best efforts to the work of opening up new and promising markets everywhere, to say nothing of preserving and enlarging the old, so as to bring about the expansion of our foreign trade as a whole."

Finance Minister's Address Dr. Eiichi Baba, Minister of Finance, delivered his adress on the financial policy of the Government and the national budget for 1937–38. The gist of his address folows :

In view of the present political situation of Japan, national and international, it is a matter of course for Japan to make out important schemes and realize them for the expansion of national fortune and the stability of the living of the people. The Government, therefore, deems it its most important duty to put emphasis on and carry out such policies as the completion of national defence, reformation of education, readjustment of national and local taxation systems, stability of the living of the people, promotion of industry and expansion of trade, settlement of common policies between Japan and Manchoukuo, and reorganization and improvement of the administration system, beginning with 1937. The Budget for 1937–38 includes the estimated expenses for these important policies while in the revenue account it contains items for an increase of ordinary revenue in accordance with the Government's policy of stabilizing the national finance. Both revenue and expenditure of the Budget for 1937–38 amount to ¥3,038,500,000 an increase of ¥733,000,000 in revenue and ¥727,000,000 in expenditure as compared with the previous year. To make a brief explanation of the revenue estimates, the ordinary revenue amounts to ¥2,236,-100,000 an increase of ¥634,300,000 as compared with the working budget for 1936–37. This increase results from the revision of the taxation system, reviewal of the customs duties and other plans for increasing revenue. The increase from the revision of the taxation system reaches ¥417,500,000 that from the reviewal of customs duties is estimated at ¥43,700,000, that from the raising of tobacco prices and the new alcohol monopoly amounts to ¥39,300,000, and the amount of transfer from the Special Accounts to the General Account is ¥71,800,000, making the total of ¥572,-500,000.

It is clear that a fundamental reform of the taxation system is inevitable under the present circumstances in which Japan is placed and from the financial condition of the nation versus the economic capacity of the people. The ¥417,500,000 which will come from the revision of the taxation system consists of ¥337,300,000 from the revised rates of existing taxes and ¥80,200,000 from new taxes which are, a property tax, a special tax on Foreign Courrency, a Gasolene Tax, a Stock Exchange Tax and a Securities Transfer Tax. Of the total, ¥220,000,000 is to be distributed among local governments for the readjustment of their financial status. The second plan for an increase of revenue is the reviewal of customs duties. The rates of duties for imported commodities were generally revised in 1926 and since then revision has been effected only in parts, and the Government considers it reasonable to review most of them at this time and the estimated increase of revenue from this source will reach ¥35,200,000 for the fiscal year 1937–38. The remaining ¥8,400,000 comes from the new Trade Statistics Tax and the Exports Control Tax, which are to be instituted to get the money necessary for the completion of statistics on foreign trade and the extension of the compensation system on exported commodities and subsidy for the compensation on imported goods, and other measures for a greater expansion of trade. The third is the raising of tobacco prices and the alcohol monopoly. In the fiscal year 1937–38, the increase of revenue from the raising of tobacco prices will amount to ¥25,400,000. Then, in accordance with the Government's fuel policy a monopoly of alcohol is planned, including the manufacture of alcohol to be mixed with gasolene, the income from it being estimated at ¥21,-600,000. The fourth item for increasing revenue is the transfer from the Special Accounts to the General Account, when ¥42,600,000 will be transfered from the special accounts of Communications and Imperial Railways and ¥19,200,000 from the Overseas Special Accounts. In view of the effect of the increased tax on interest on deposits in banks and in conformity with the lowering tendency of interest rates in general, the Government is going to lower the annual interest rate of the Postal Savings Deposits to 2.64 per cent as from next April.

With all this increase of revenue it is still insufficent to make both ends meet, and the Government wants to float, for the General Account, public loans amounting to ¥802,400,000. For the com-

pletion of national defence, stabilization of national living and other important programmes the floatation of public loans of this amount cannot be helped. For the Special Accounts another ¥155,000,000 loan is to be floated, making the total of deficit covering public loans reach ¥957,000,000.

As to the estimates of expenditure, the new demands for the realization of important policies in 1937–38 amount to ¥1,063,000,000 including ¥692,100,000 for the completion of national defence (inclusive of expenses for the Manchurian Incident), ¥1,400,000 for the improvement of education, ¥237,100,000 for the readjustment of the taxation system common to the central and local governments, ¥54,800,000 for the stabilizaion of the living of the people, ¥57,700,000 for the promotion of industry and expansion of trade and ¥24,900,000 for the institutions of co-operation between Japan and Manchoukuo.

The expenditure for the completion of national defence heads the list, but the Government has also paid due attention to a better national living and industrial and trade expansion. For the refunding of debts of villagers, aids to petty merchants and small industrial enterprisers and subsidies for shipbuilding the figures in the Budget may seem comparatively small, but, as a matter of fact, these measures will have enough effect to stimulate a greater movement of Governmental and private funds for the industrial and economic development of Japan. We must expect the swelling of national ways and means for some years to come. But the income from the revision of the taxation system and other new plans will increase in the normal years after 1937 and the annual amount of loans may be maintained at the amount for 1937–38, and it is expected that these may be reduced in a few years.

With regard to the present economic condition of the country and the Government's financial policies, the Government has, since its coming into power and in conformity with the real state of the banking and money market, carried on a low interest rate policy and endeavoured to genaralize and diffuse it throughout the economic circles of Japan in order to lighten the economic burdens of the people in general and promote a healthy development of industry and trade in Japan. As the result, interest rates are lowering all round, a policy which the Government intends to continue. Between May 1 and September 19, 1936 the Government converted ¥2,100,000,000's worth of 5 per cent bonds to 3.5 per cent. This rate of interest for national bonds will be maintained for some time to come, and the remaining 5 per cent and 4.5 per cent bonds, which amount to ¥2,900,000,000, will be converted to bonds of a lower rate of interest at a suitable occasion. The trade returns of the Empire in 1936 amounted to ¥5,221,000,000, recording the highest in the trade history of Japan. In its sum total and details of exports and imports, the 1936 trade has traced a proper road. But there are many points which need our attention for the expansion of trade in 1937. The present exchange rate of the yen has to be maintained by the working of the Foreign Exchange Control Law, to which end the regulations of the old Foreign Exchange Control Law were stringently revised at the end of 1936. The increase of speculative imports compelled the Government to take extraordinary counter measures. The Government is determined to take all necessary measures for the prevention of the flight of capital and fluctuations of the exchange rates, paying close attention to the international movement of capital, and taking due care not to injure in any way the progress of industry and trade. But the co-operation of the people concerned is highly requested. It is also of paramount importance in the present state of social and economic affairs, to strengthen the power of banking organs, to heighten their credit and to help them to operate their functions in full.

The Budget for 1937–38 amounts to a sum unprecedented in the history of Japan, but it reflects the present extraordinary situation of Japan and evinces the progress of the country, yet I believe that the present condition of Japan's economy is quite endurable to the burden. So much so because there are many measures, carried on by the Government with a part of the Budget, for the promotion of industry and trade that may accordingly augment the economic power of the nation.

It is a high time for the people of Japan to keep unity and co-operation in all matters pertaining to the economic expansion of the country, refraining from speculation and covetous inclinations which may hinder a healthy progress of national economy, and establishing clever measures and sound policies for the national and general benefit.

Mr. Hamada's Interpellation After the ministerial addresses Mr. Kunimatsu Hamada of the Seiyukai went up to

the platform as the second interpellator on the day and first expressed his sympathy towards the Hirota Cabinet which was endeavouring to solve many difficult problems especially complicated in the days following the February 26 Incident and which was trying an adjustment of international relations. Then he spoke of the so-called "propellent power" of the army on the political matters in present Japan, pointing out several talks which had emanated from certain sections of the War Ministry and which had appeared in the press, and the May 15 and February 26 incidents. He took the Fascist idea in the Imperial army in Manchoukuo as a copy of a similar idea in Japan, inferring that there was a despotic or Fascist idea in the undercurrent of the talks and movements of a part of the military circle. He pointed out in particular the revision of the rules pertaining to the personnel who might hold the portfolios of War and Navy Ministers. He condemned the hasty procedure of the Hirota Cabinet in revising the rules so that these portfolios should be assumed only by high officers in active-service, saying that there had been a long fight for extending the sphere of appointment to these positions to the high officers in the first reserve in order that a healthy development of constitutional government might be assured. Mr. Hamada charged it as a concrete example of Fascism in the army, although he understood that it was partly for the reinforcement of military discipline. Another example of the Fascist tendency of the Hirota Cabinet, Hamada said, was its overlooking of the decision of the House of Representatives, repeated three times, requiring the Government to establish a standing committee of the House for the months in which they did not sit. He turned his point to the question of the huge budget and spent some words on it and then once more he dwelt upon the Fascist ideology among military men and went on to defend political parties against criticism of their former political abuses, proving that for the abuses of the political parties the Government had been partly responsible and exemplifying his statements by quoting abuses in military circles as well, and calling attention to the misunderstanding, as far as he saw it, of some military men on the true function of political parties in the Diet as the representatives of the people. He concluded his interpellation with questions in regard to the foreign policy of the Hirota Cabinet and the diplomatic conditions between Japan and several important countries.

War Minister Lieutenant-General Terauchi said in answer to Mr. Hamada's question that there were some words in his interpellation which seemed to insult military men, and that the use of such words would not help the harmonious understanding between the army and the people in general.

This answer provoked anger on the part of Mr. Hamada who stated that there was no intention of insulting the Army or Navy in his mind and consequently no use of such words, and concluded in the following words: "Let us make investigation of the official shorthand record. If there be any insulting words I will commit "Harakiri," if not, you do."

Resignation of the Hirota Cabinet

The Hirota Cabinet tendered its resignation en bloc to the Throne on January 23, 1937, after two days extraordinary adjournment of the Diet. The events surrounding the formation of the succeeding Cabinet revealed many facts important to Japan's history of politics and gave valuable suggestions concerning the future of the constitutional government of Japan.

The cause of the resignation of the Hirota Cabinet appeared to be in the apparent dissension between the Cabinet and the political parties and the lack of the Premier's earnestness in pushing his policies bacause of the weakening support of the military.

Premier Hirota's attitude toward the 70th Session of the Diet was rather negative. Criticism of the diplomatic failure of the Hirota Cabinet in general and the discouraging atmosphere regarding the important bills and budget before the meeting of the Diet was such that it was expected that the political parties would force the resignation of the Government. Both the Minseito and the Seiyukai were represented by two members in the Cabinet, yet their attitude towards it became worse with the approach of January 21 when the 70th session of the Diet was to begin its business. Premier Hirota took no measures to better his position, and made no visit to the presidents of the leading parties to get their understanding as to the standpoint of the Government. It is usually understood, in such a case, that the Government is aggressive and disregards the co-operation of the political parties. But it was not so in Hirota's case, for he easily yielded to the adverse situation and handed in his resignation after but two days' deliberation, in spite of all surmises in

political circles that there might come either a dissolution of the House of Representatives, or the Government would manage matters so as to get through the 70th Session and resign, if necessary, after the session, and after having made full preparations for the quick succession of a new cabinet.

The hot words exchanged between the War Minister and Mr. Kunimatsu Hamada on January 21 were too insignificant to be the cause of the resignation of the Hirota Cabinet, but the Army was unwilling to discuss matters any further with the party men in the House of Representatives, not because of the alleged insult of Mr. Hamada against them but for the reason that there was a difference of opinion between the Army and members of the House of Representatives in regard to the recognition of the seriousness of the situation which Japan was thrown into judged from the declarations of the leading parties at their general meetings and the move of the party men in the Houses. The Army insisted upon an immediate dissolution of the House of Representatives. Mr. Hamada and his party found no reason for making an apology on what he had said in his interpellation although the general atmosphere among the parties seemed to be towards a compromise.

Opinions were divided among the Cabinet members as to the dissolution of the House of Representatives and Navy Minister Vice-Admiral Osami Nagano and Dr. Gotaro Ogawa, Minister of Commerce and Industry, took the trouble to try and arbitrate between the dissenting parties in and out of the Cabinet. Dr. Ogawa belonged to the Minseito and was anxious to bring the matter to a satisfactory conclusion in order to get the budget passed by the Diet, seeing that parties were not actually opposed to it, and to save his comrades from the blow of dissolution. Vice-Admiral Nagano found no reason for a deadly clash between the Government and the Lower House in the quarrel of the War Minister and Mr. Hamada, and was gravely concerned about the passage of the budget, which was threatened with postponement for at least half a year by the possible dissolution, for the Navy wanted to hasten the completion of its programme with the coming of the first year of freedom from treaty disarmament. The two Ministers had a consultation and the Minister of the Navy called on the Presidents of the Minseito and Seiyukai on the night of January 22 and early in the morning of the following day, and got the full understanding of the two Presidents.

But all the efforts of the Ministers proved futile. The Army took a firm stand and handed the resignation of the War Minister Lieutenant-General Terauchi to the Premier by the morning of the 23rd, evincing thereby the uncompromising attitude of the Army on the issue.

Premier Hirota did not give his consent to the asking of the Throne for the dissolution of the Lower House, but, on the contrary, decided on his own accord to give up all measures for maintaining the life of the Cabinet. He probably saw it useless to push the matter any further. He saw that the support of the circles who wanted a quick and drastic renovation of the political and economic systems of Japan had become weak because of their dissatisfaction at his too cautious way of handling important matters. Besides, the movements in political circles, public and secret, had suggested that some schemes for the change of the Government had been going on. As a matter of fact several propositions for the establishment of a new political party continued to appear in the press in preparation for the bringing about of a new Cabinet. On January 23, 1937, Premier Hirota announced his reason of resignation to the effect that since assuming the duties of Premier by imperial Order in March, 1936, he had done his best for the proper administration of state affairs, but in spite of all his efforts the difficulty of the political situation had become an unsurmountable obstacle.

On the same day the War Minister published his statement in regard to his stand on the matter. "Mr. Hamada's address in the House is not to be taken as the reason of my resignation. It is true that leading parties have their members in the Cabinet, but in spite of this fact, their declarations and presidents' addresses at their general meetings before the opening of the Diet, the interpellations of their representatives on the 21st of January, and the general atmosphere of the House of Representatives on the same day clearly indicate that there is a great gap between the understanding of Japan's present situation, national and international, by the Army and by the political parties. It is hard, in my opinion, to surmount the difficulties before us by a temporary compromise unless we all come to the right recognition of Japan's real situation. The existing state of affairs leads me to the con-

clusion that they are against my hope for the strengthening of military discipline, completion of national defence and renovation of state administration."

Ugaki's Failure On January 24, 1937, Mr. Kurahei Yuasa, Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals, called on the Genro, Prince Kimmochi Saionji, with the Imperial message on the nomination of the new Premier. Mr. Yuasa brought back the Genro's recommendation to the Throne on the same day and it was soon made known that Imperial order for the formation of the next Cabinet had been sent to General Kazushige Ugaki who had been enjoying a quiet life for years at Nagaoka, Shizuoka prefecture, after his retirement from the post of Governor-General of Chosen.

The news surprised those who had been expecting the Imperial order to go to Konoé, Hayashi, or Hiranuma, not with disappointment but rather with much satisfaction in the bold decision of the Genro and other dignitaries nearest to the Throne. But the Army and its sympathizers were surprised at the recommendation which was a great mistake in their eyes.

General Ugaki came up to Tokyo on the 25th and was granted an audience and then began his task, first to get War and Navy Ministers. But he met with strong antagonism from the Army which answered that no high officers were willing to be recommended to the portfolio in spite of the combined efforts of the Chief of the General Staff, the War Minister and the Inspector-General of Military Education. Ugaki was supported by almost the entire press and majority of people, who sent him thousands of letters and telegrams of encouragement to fight against the adverse situation in which he was quite unexpectedly put. It was impossible for him, however, to choose the War Minister without the recommendation of the three just mentioned because of the regulation that limited the post to a General or Lieutenant-General in active service, the number of these being very small and all of them being under direct control of the Ministry.

Many suggestions were proposed to General Ugaki as extraordinary means of accomplishing his purpose, but he did not like to take any drastic measure in face of the apparent antagonism because of the peace of the country, and after five days' deliberation and negotiations, that is, on the 29th, he gave up his task and asked the pardon of the Throne for his inability to form a Cabinet.

At least a part of the Army was opposed from the beginning to Ugaki's coming into power, in spite of the general support of the press, political circles and economic world.

General Ugaki had long been expected to assume the Premiership some day and when the opportunity came it was found that an unsurmountable obstacle was on his way in the direction that he had worked for most and loved most. The fundamental reason of the Army's opposition was known only to some high officers in the War Ministry and Ugaki himself. But it is probable that there were questions on the wisdom of his becoming the Premier because of the thorough reinforcement of military discipline for which the War Ministry had been working after the February 26 incident of 1936, because of Ugaki's career in the Army and his influence.

The outcome of the five days' efforts surprised the Genro and dignitaries and was most regretful for General Ugaki himself. The event, however, taught the nation of the sincerity and determination of the Army in its efforts for the completion of military discipline and of its deep concern for the political direction of the country, although criticisms were heard in some quarters as to the way in which the Army had acted.

The Birth of the Hayashi Cabinet

Mr. Yuasa was again sent to the Genro, Prince Saionji, who recommended, this time, first, Baron Kiichiro Hiranuma, President of the Privy Council, and, second, General Senjuro Hayashi. The first candidate declined and General Hayashi was called to the Palace and was ordered to form the Cabinet.

General Hayashi was not apparently opposed by the Army, but its attitude towards the formation of his Cabinet was by no means positive. Public sympathy was rather small and his political ability was much doubted. The birth of the Hayashi Cabinet was premature for it consisted of but eight members instead of thirteen. The eight were :

Premier, Minister for Foreign Affairs and Minister of Education,	General Senjuro Hayashi
Minister for Home Affairs,	Mr. Kakichi Kawarada
Minister of Finance and Minister for Overseas Affairs,	Mr. Toyotaro Yūki
Minister of War,	Leutenant-General Kotaro Nakamura

Minister of Navy	Vice-Admiral Mitsumasa Yonai
Minister of Justice	Mr. Suehiko Shiono
Minister of Agriculture and Forestry and Minister of Communications,	Mr. Tatsunosuké Yamazaki
Minister of Commerce and Industry and Minister of Railways,	Engineer Vice-Admiral Takuo Godo

These gentlemen formally received their portfolio on February 2. But Lieutenant-General Kotaro Nakamura was taken ill a few days afterwards and was succeeded by General Sugiyama who was in the post of the Inspector-General of Military Education. On the tenth of the same month, the portfolio of Communications was assumed by Count Hideo Kodama.

Premier's Statement On February 8, Premier General Hayashi issued a statement. The gist of statement, embodying the platform, follows: In view of the situation prevailing at home and abroad and in accordance with the degree of urgency of each matter, the Cabinet presents its platform as follows:

(1) The Government seek to make manifest the national polity, to elucidate the great principles of worship of the Divine and adoration of the Emperor and to enhance the spirit of oneness of the national religion and political administration in order to deepen the fountain of the advancement of the nation's fortunes.

(2) We seek to observe the articles of the Constitution fixed by Imperial will, to effect sound development of the constitutional politics unique to Japan and to listen to public opinion in order that fair and righteous politics may be carried on.

(3) We seek to pursue a national diplomatic policy based on national unanimity that is calculated to bring about a permanent peace to East Asia and common prosperity among nations in accordance with international justice in order that international relations will be made brighter.

(4) To assure the security of the Empire, to protect its advance and to realize national policies we seek to complete our national defence and promote productive power of the country in order that the strength of the nation may be cultivated at its very root

(5) We seek to carry out schemes for systematic development of industry in a manner suitable to economic conditions at home and abroad and to enforce appropriate measures of protection and control, and at the same time to develop the creative power of the people and encourage the spirit of enterprise.

In order that the foregoing aims may be achieved, we must guard against too radical a reform, combat conventionalism and enforce renovation that is suited to the times. Justification needs modification according to the needs of the times. But we must realize the pending renovation of general administration, stabilize the living of the people and remove the causes of uneasiness in the public mind.

The various policies of the Government shall be realized one after another.

The causes of the complicated and troublesome state of affairs in Japan and abroad and the unrest of society are in the neglect of co-operation, stubborn selfishness and rivalry and strife of individual interests. Harmony is most wanted for reasonable settlement of all matters.

The members of the present Cabinet are ready to sacrifice themselves to serve the public free from all factional ideas. In setting out to serve the State under the Great Command, we seek to lay bare our loyal hearts to take measures directed straight at renovation and thus to fulfill our duty of assisting the Emperor in the administration of the State.

Premier's Address The Premier and Foreign Minister, General Senjuro Hayashi, delivered his administrative address at the 70th Session of the Diet, February 15, 1937, as follows:

The political programmes of the Government were announced on the 8th of this month. It is the fundamental duty of all those who serve the State, no matter under what cabinet, to formulate policies according to the basic principles of our national polity and to advance and realize the ideals on which this country is founded. It goes without saying therefore, that the Government will, first of all, strive to clarify the concept of our national polity and to elucidate the great principles of piety and of loyalty to the Throne. The Imperial Constitution stands unshakable under the solemn polity of our nation, and the Government looks forward to a steady and healthy development of our unique constitutional government which is adapted to our peerless national polity and is capable of holding its own

ground against the tide of whatever political thought or doctrine may sweep the world. As regards Japan's foreign policy, we are guided by the immutable principle of securing the stability of East Asia and seeking the common prosperity of all nations in accordance with international justice and fair play. Under this policy and through the co-operation of both Government and people, it is our hope to deal with all diplomatic affairs properly and effectively and to place our international relations in a happy and peaceful atmosphere. Then, in the light of the current situation, there is the imperative need of perfecting our national defence in order to insure the security of the Empire, to accelerate our national progress and to carry out thoroughly our national policies. The growth of national strength requires a sturdy and virile spirit on the part of the people and a vigorous productive power in industry. It is important that we should adjust our programme for industrial expansion to the economic conditions both at home and abroad and to take the necessary measures of protection and encouragement on the one hand and of suitable control on the other. Of course, in doing this, we should guard against possible impairment of the creative power of the people or their spirit of enterprise, which should be fostered and encouraged.

It is along these general lines that the Government intend to effect the long-awaited administrative renovation and to stabilize livelihood of our nation. I earnestly hope that we shall be able to carry out the work of our Government on a fair and just basis and to bring about such reforms as are adapted to the needs of the day. The elimination of long-standing evils by avoiding sluggishness and rejecting extremes will, I belive, meet with no objection from any quarter but win the whole-hearted support of all people. However, its realization is, as experience has taught us in the past, not altogether an easy task owing to long entrenched customs and traditions and to conflicts of interests. It can never be accomplished without self-denial, public-spirit and the united efforts of the entire nation. I ask sincerely for your co-operation by which I hope to realize this purpose.

The Cabinet, having been formed during the present session of the Diet, has decided to withdraw for once and reexamine the budget and all the bills that were prepared by the previous Cabinet. But to do that thoroughly has proved impracticable due to lack of time. However, in view of the urgent necessity of checking the rise of prices for stabilizing livelihood, the budget has been reduced nearly 270,000,000 yen by postponing certain appropriations. However, we will carry out all programmes suited to the present circumstances and do everything to find the way for the execution of some of the programmes that were formulated by the previous Cabinet. As for the adjustment of the taxation system, we have attempted to make a thorough revision of the new tax bills proposed by the previous Cabinet, but lack of time has compelled us to abandon our plan. Nevertheless, in order to perfect our national defence and to finance the urgent current undertaking there is no means of obtaining funds save by raising taxes. So it has been decided to make provisional increases in the present tax rates, and bills for provisional tax increases are being submitted to the Diet together with those for certain new categories of tax.

Now turning to our foreign affairs, we will further strengthen our intimate and inseparable relations with Manchoukuo, and pay special attention to the adjustment of our relations with China and the Soviet Union.

As regards China, it is to be deeply regretted that despite our efforts in the past to act in concert with that country for the purpose of ensuring stability in East Asia, the Chinese Government have yet failed to understand fully our true intentions, and there have arisen a number of problems between the two countries. I believe that it is of urgent necessity at this juncture to cultivate cordial feelings between the two nations and to improve their relationship so that they may be brought to work in close co-operation for the peace and stability of East Asia.

For the sake of the peace of the Orient it is of course necessary that the Soviet Union should correctly comprehend Japan's position in East Asia and that both the Soviet Union and Japan should seek to establish harmonious relations. To speed the negotiations on the pending issues toward an amicable settlement is to contribute to the accomplishment of the end. I wish therefore to urge upon the authorities of the Soviet Union to take a broad view and co-operate with us in that regard.

Japan's policy of promoting friendship with Great Britain and the United States is immutable. Between the former country and ours there exist prob-

lems of various sorts requiring adjustment. But none of them is of such character as will impair the foundations of the Anglo-Japanese friendship. I firmly believe that they will be solved through mutual understanding.

Finance Minister Yuki's Address The essential points of the address of Mr. Toyotaro Yuki, Finance Minister, were as follows: The Budget for 1937–38 has been withdrawn because of the change of the Cabinet. The Government has not had enough time since for a thorough revision of the Budget and the original is presented to the Diet with the necessary alteration in the items that the present Government think should be made. The completion of national defence is of paramount importance as the Premier has already mentioned in his address, but it must be backed by the powerful economic capacity of the nation, and we have to endeavour for the development of industry and the expansion of trade to increase the national economic capacity. At the same time it is an acute need that we project measures for the stabilization of the living of the people. There are many other important matters that call for the immediate attention of the Government, and under these circumstances we must be fully prepared for an inevitable swelling of the sum of our national expenditure. To meet the need we cannot help increasing tax revenue and increasing floatation of public loans. As to national loans with the present economic capacity of the nation a considerable amount of additional bonds can be absorbed. The people are requested to willingly bear the increased tax burden at this time. But the increase of taxes may affect a great sphere of national life, and care has to be taken, in enforcing it not to cramp the enterprise of the people and effect a decline of their productive power, while realizing the real economic state of the country and causing no fear among the people. With these points in mind, the Government is going to postpone the use of approximately ¥269,000,000 of the total Budget for 1937–38, which amounts to ¥3,038,500,000. It would, of course, have been better to have gone through all the items individually in the Budget formed by the Hirota Cabinet, but we had not the length of time, so we have decided to put aside the said amount for the present out of the new demands. As to the estimates of revenue the Government considers it necessary to make a thorough study of the reform of the tax and customs duties systems drawn up by the Hirota Cabinet. But again we have been unable to do so in the short space of time and have been compelled to be satisfied with a tentative reform, in the hope that we may draw up our own programme later. As to the finances of local public bodies the Government has found it necessary to lighten the heavy tax burden of the people in farm and fishing villages, and has planned to give ¥70,000,000, mostly to the country towns and villages, in 1937–38. Our economic system is so delicately constructed that a discordance in one quarter will upset the smooth working of the entire body, and we must be cautious not to check the progress of the whole because of the need of a section. The Government, therefore, is endeavouring to see the relation of a part to the whole and to effect a gradual harmonious progress of parts for the whole. Again we should take care not to effect too radical a change of the economic world in the course of fulfilling our economic programme. It is easy to run to extremities but hard to stop at a proper point. But I am determined to do the hard part. For a healthy development of industry and to strengthen the foundation of the economic world in Japan, it is of urgent necessity that measures be taken for a unified promotion of all branches of industry.

The conditions in farming, forestry and fishing villages are turning to the better, but the Government will carry on its programme for a further improvement of these villages. At the same time the constant care and protection of small merchants and industrial enterprisers is a duty of the Government in a country like Japan. Equal care should be taken in aiding agricultural villagers and city workers who are engaged in commerce and industry for the general progress of all kinds of industries in Japan. For the expansion of industries we expect the active help of banking organs, especially in financing enterprises for the increase of productive power, side by side with the measures carried on by the Government. As to the control of interest rates the Government will not introduce any artificial measures, but will endeavour to lead the money market towards a gradual lowering of interest rates. The control of banking organs will not be carried out by any drastic measures, but it will work in such a way as to guide them in discharging their duties. The remarkable expansion of our exports in recent years is due to the activities of our

traders in international markets with good and cheap commodities. In the future, however, Japanese trade cannot rely upon the good and cheap commodities alone. A proper control of commodities for export is needed to ward off the ever rising tariff walls abroad and reciprocal treaties must be concluded with nations for a good consumption of indispensable import goods and a greater increase of exports.

To maintain the present exchange rate the Government will devise necessary means in view of its importance. As to the extraordinary measures recently taken for foreign exchange the Government will continue to keep watch, paying due attention, in the working of the policy, not to incur injury to the industry and trade of the country. Concerning international economy the Government deems it necessary to make a fundamental deliberation. The present state of international relations is partly due to the economic seclusion of several countries in the world. Liberation of the imprisoned international economy and clearance of international trade obstacles will mollify the straitened international relations and not a little contribute to world peace. It is most important to bring back international economy to its normal condition.

The rising tendency of commodity prices is universal, but an unnaturally rapid rise of prices will inevitably have an undesirable effect on industry and trade, make the Governmental activities difficult within the limit of the budget, and disturb the peaceful living of the people. The rapid rise of prices in Japan to-day is partly due to the temporary increase of demands caused by speculation and partly to the sudden increase in the amount of the Budget. The Government, therefore, has exerted efforts to prevent a further increase of expenditure, but no artificial measures will do good for checking the rising tide of prices. The exploitation of resources in Manchoukuo with Japanese investment and technical genius is most desirable for the common prosperity of the two countries. However great our difficulties may be, they simply set us, in the last analysis, tests for our advance to a mightier nation. To insure a greater national expansion, subduing the present adversities, the united efforts of the Government and the people are indispensable, especially in the realm of finance and economy, which has the most complicated mechanism.

Address of the Foreign Minister Mr. Naotaké Sato, who assumed the office of Foreign Minister on March 3, delivered an address at the Governors' conference, May 17, as follows :

As regards our relations with China, it is regrettable that, owing to a series of unfortunate incidents that have occurred within the past year, the solution of those various pending issues, which is necessary for the amelioration of the Sino-Japanese relations, is being delayed. United opposition against Japan has become nowadays something like a current slogan in China. The South-Western régime, hostile to Chiang Kai-shek, is openly committed to an anti-Japanese policy. Chang Hsueh-liang, on the occasion of the Sian incident a short while ago, sent out a circular telegram calling for an immediate declaration of war against Japan. It is clear that anti-Japanism is being made not infrequently a pawn in the game of Chinese domestic politics. The Nanking Government itself, taking advantage of the newly awakened spirit of nationalism, is urging upon the people the cessation of internal hostilities for the sake of resisting foreign aggression, and is thus endeavouring to consolidate its own position. Indeed we should not overlook the considerable success of the Nanking Government in bringing various local régimes under its control, in rehabilitating its finance through monetary reforms and undertaking various constructive works with foreign loans. The settlement of the South-West problem and the outcome of the Suiyuan affair and the Sian incident, all seem to show China's progress toward unification.

Now it may not be amiss to say that the anti-Japanese sentiment in China is at least partly traceable to misunderstanding on the part of the Chinese who suppose that Japan harbours aggressive designs on their country. Of course, we have no such designs, and we will make clear our true intentions to the Chinese and try to improve the Sino-Japanese relations. In view of the circumstances such as stated above, the Japanese Government is planning to create a harmonious atmosphere between the two nations through more frequent personal contacts, and to promote their cultural and economic cooperation, and thereby to establish between the two countries a mutually interdependent economic relationship founded upon the common interests of the peoples.

The Soviet Union which has recently been devoting its efforts to the development of light industries under the so-

called "Second Five-year Plan," is from next year on to focus its attention upon the continuous industrial growth and the cultural advancement of the people in accordance with the "Third Five-year Plan." The Soviet Government is seeking to effect an expansion of armaments along with the repletion of the nation's economic strength. In the Far Eastern possessions of the Soviet Union, which are most vitally related to our country, the work of constructing military works and developing war industries is being pushed forward with utmost vigour and speed. On the other hand, the internal political situation of that country appears to be quite complicated judging from the so-called anti-revolutionist conspiracy trials of last August and of January this year.

The Japanese Government is trying to eliminate all unnecessary frictions between the two countries, and at the same time to solve the pending issues relating to such important questions as of fishery, North Saghalien concessions, and the Manchoukuo-Soviet Border Commission. However, unnecessary frictions have arisen more recently owing to the frequent occurrences of untoward incidents concerning the treatment of our officials and residents and of our ships at the hands of Soviet authorities, and also complaints and incidents regarding our treatment of Soviet officials and Soviet ships in Japan. We have asked the Soviet Government to see to it that such things do not happen in the future. . . .

It goes without saying that international trade and economic intercourse are essential to all countries, especially to a country like ours which is thickly populated but not endowed sufficiently with natural resources. The restoration of the freedom of trade or the opening of the sources of raw materials which the Japanese Government has on all available occasions advocated can be deemed as an assertion of our right of national existence. It is our earnest desire to co-operate with all nations in order to contribute toward economic development of the world and to share in a common prosperity with them. It is my belief that the ensuring of an untrammelled growth of trade and economic activities of every nation is the prime requisite of establishing international peace.

Despite the fact that our foreign trade amounts in value to only a little less than 4 per cent of the total value of world trade, it has witnessed of late a steady increase establishing a new record last year of ¥5,500,000,000. The first semester of this year is expected to show even a further increase as compared with the corresponding period of last year. Yet on the other hand, there has been no change in the attitudes of various foreign Powers of instituting restrictions of all sorts against foreign trade to meet the existing international situations, especially in their attitude of keeping watch against our growing export trade. Fortunately, however, the plea for the removal of trade barriers is gaining ground among nations as may be seen from the currency accord of last year among England, the United States and France in connection with the devaluation of the franc, or from the meeting of the Economic and Financial Commission of the League of Nations, and from the Conference of the Pan-American Union. Moreover, it became clear at the meeting of the League of Nations Commission on raw materials, held in March this year, that not a few countries are in agreement with our claims mentioned before. The realization of these claims being, however, considerably difficult at present, it is inevitable that, in order to maintain and promote our trade and commerce, we should be compelled to take appropriate steps as occasions demand against obstructive measures of other Powers directed against our exports. In this connection, I may say, the present condition is such that, as Japan's economic strength expands, problems more or less important arise one after another in all parts of the world and our officials abroad are constantly kept busy negotiating over them. For instance we carried on trade negotiations for the past several months with India, Burma, the Netherlands Indies, Australia, etc., which have resulted in the present satisfactory trade relations with them. Negotiations with a view to translating these relations into formal treaty or agreement are now in progress. There are not a few other pending trade questions namely, with Turkey, Italy, Siam, Central and South America, and other countries, over which negotiations are now in progress.

The Foreign Office authorities are thus continuously putting forth their utmost efforts in all directions for the development of our foreign trade. For that purpose, aside from such civilian co-operation, as is obtainable through the exchange of visits of economic groups like the economic mission recently sent to China, and the similar mission which has recently gone to the United States and will also go to England, it is of

course essential to maintain co-operation among various branches of the Government. It is necessary for Japan so to secure and encourage her industries and foreign trade as to enable them to meet satisfactorily the general conditions of international economic situation or the individual measures adopted by various Powers. And for this purpose the utmost and concerted effort of the whole nation is required.

Now, the chief aim of the so-called international cultural work is to propagate abroad the essence of our national culture and to foster thereby a correct understanding in foreign countries toward Japan. One of its means is to make foreigners visiting these shores acquainted with, and appreciate fully the true nature of our culture.

Dissolution of the House of Representatives The 70th Session of the Imperial Diet which had been convened on December, 24, 1936, was closed on March 31, 1937, with the Dissolution of the House of Representatives. The session was a very extraordinary one, for, during its sitting, the Hirota Cabinet resigned and the Hayashi Cabinet came into power, it adjourned three times, at the end of January and in the beginning of February, on account of the change of the Cabinet, and at the end of March it was prolonged for 6 days beginning with the 26th and finally on the last day it met the Dissolution. All through the Cabinet, both old and new, was unsympathetic with the parties in the House of Representatives, while parties, on their part, took a negative and equivocal attitude toward these governments as a whole, although some of their members were brave enough to make attacks on the movement of a part of the Imperial Army or Government's social policies.

The Dissolution was also peculiar. The Diet was closing on March 31 in peace, hurriedly passing resolutions and bills left over to that day, 49 important bills including the budget for 1937-38 being voted already, when it all of a sudden was dissolved to the surprise of the members of the House of Representatives and the general public.

The Government stated concerning the reason of the Dissolution as follows :

To cope with prevailing conditions at home and abroad, surmount the current difficulties and promote the national fortunes, co-operation between the Government and the people in the proper sense is absolutely essential. Thus the Cabinet, though it had just been formed, sought in the present session of the Diet the passage of many bills in all sincerity. The manner in which the Lower House has discussed these bills, however, has been extremely lacking in earnest, with the result that proceedings have been blocked with regard to important bills having the greatest bearing on national defence and stabilization of the living of the people, urgent business held up and doubts aroused as to whether parliamentary discussion could be carried on further in the way required by the seriousness of the prevailing situation.

We therefore saw much reason in the clamour for renovation of the Diet. In the hope of appealing to the just conscience of the people, submitting to the will of the people and making manifest the principles of the constitutional government of Japan, and at the same time in expectation of sound political awakening on the part of the people and co-operation between them and the Government in surmounting the present serious situation, we have petitioned the Throne for dissolution of the House of Representatives.

The 20th General Election

Results of the General Election in April, 1937 Of the total 122 election districts not one was carried complete by either the Minseito or the Seiyukai, the two leading parties. On the contrary, the number of districts in which all the candidates of these parties were defeated was 13 for the Minseito and 7 for the Seiyukai, due largely to the rise in the power of the Social Mass Party. The following tables, compiled by the Asahi, show the ups and downs of the political parties at the election :

NUMBER OF VOTES OBTAINED BY PARTIES

Parties	Number of votes In Tokyo	Total
Minseito	271,697	3,666,067
Seiyukai	214,301	3,608,882
Social Mass Party	174,808	900,916
Showakai	18,196	404,846
Kokumin-Domei	22,292	281,826
Tohokai	—	212,505
Other small parties	61,097	286,661
Independents	41,365	845,612

SUCCESSFUL CANDIDATES BY PARTIES

Parties	Candidates	Elected	%
Minseito	266	179	67.3
Seiyukai	268	175	65.3
Social Mass Party	65	36	55.4

Parties	Candidates	Elected	%
Showakai	35	18	51.4
Kokumin-Domei	20	11	55.0
Tohokai	20	11	55.0
Other small parties	43	7	16.3
Independents	109	29	26.6

DIFFERENCE OF POWER OF PARTIES BEFORE AND AFTER THE ELECTION

Parties	Before the Election	After the Election	Increase (+) or Decrease (−)
Minseito	206	179	−27
Seiyukai	172	175	+ 3
Social Mass Party	19	36	+17
Showakai	24	18	− 6
Kokumin-Domei	11	11	—
Tohokai	9	11	+ 2
Other small parties	4	7	+ 3
Independents	19	29	+10

NUMBER OF OLD AND NEW MEMBERS OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

Parties	New	Old	Former	Total
Minseito	21	149	9	179
Seiyukai	31	122	22	175
Social Mass Party	15	19	2	36
Showakai	0	16	2	18
Kokumin-Domei	0	11	0	11
Tohokai	3	8	0	11
Other small parties	2	4	1	7
Independents	9	17	3	29
Total	81	346	39	466

The general election of April 30, 1937, was carried out without a clearer aim than that of the Government, which asked for the "repentance" of the House of Representatives because its behaviour had been unsatisfactory in the eyes of the Cabinet and the election was the outcome of the Dissolution brought about by its behaviour. It was neither a fight between the Government and the parties around important issues nor an election of confidence on Government's policies. In any case, the result of the election were entirely against the Government. The victory of parties whose platforms were decidedly against the Government was overwhelming, and the combined forces of the Minseito and the Seiyukai in the Lower House kept the absolute majority as it was in March. The number of the representatives sent by the Social Mass Party, which was most strongly opposed to the Government's political ideas, was nearly doubled. On the other hand, the number of the representatives of the Showakai the ministerial party was reduced from 24 to 18 and another pro-governmental party the Kokumin-Domei gained nothing, while the independents who were in sympathy with the Government sent but a few members to the new House of Representatives. All the efforts of the Government to turn the results to its benefit were defied. The general election presented the people with a chance of expressing their deep concern with the political affairs of the country and the bustle of the election which had been thought meaningless by many at the outset gave birth to many points suggestive of the future of the Imperial Diet. The first of them was that the voters did not sympathize with the political ideas destructive of the existing parliamentary system, the second was that they showed a strong opposition against the attitude of the Government which seemed to fill the political stage to the exclusion of others, and the third was that they expressed their earnest wish for the renovation of the Diet in the votes that went to the Social Mass Party.

Voting Analysis According to the Local Bureau of the Home Department, which has been investigating the voting at the 20th general election of April 30, 1937, the percentage of absentees increased by 5.4%, being 26.7 against 21.3 at the previous election, and in the comparison of invalid votes, blank votes increased by 2,012 and voting papers on which were written miscellaneous things increased by 3,682, while on the whole the total number of invalid votes decreased by 2,779.

	The 20th General Election (April 30, 1937)	The 19th General Election (February 20, 1936)
Total number of electors on the election day	14,075,010	14,303,780
Number of voters	10,317,756	11,249,663
Absentees	3,757,254	3,054,118
Percentage of absentees	26.7	21.3
Total number of vallid votes	10,203,677	11,132,677
„ „ „ spoilt votes	114,040	116,819
Blank votes	13,130	11,118
Voting papers containing miscellaneous written matter.	25,101	21,419
Others	75,809	84,282

Advance of the Social Mass Party One of the most outstanding results of the 20th general election of April 30, 1937, was the advance of the Social Mass Party. The party gained 18 seats more than it did at the 19th general election of February 20, 1936, and obtained 382,556 more votes. A comparison of the three largest parties at the two general elections follows :

RESULTS OF THE 19TH AND THE 20TH GENERAL ELECTIONS

Parties	19th Election	20th Election	Percentage of Increase (+) or Decrease (−)
Minseito			
No. of persons elected	205	179	− 12.5
No. of votes obtained	4,456,250	3,666,067	− 17.7
Seiyukai			
No. of persons elected	174	175	+ 0.5
No. of votes obtained	4,156,643	3,608,882	− 13.1
Social Mass Party			
No. of persons elected	18	36	+100.0
No. of votes obtained	518,360	900,916	+ 73.8

In many important election districts in Tokyo, Osaka, Kyoto and Kobé, candidates of the Social Mass Party obtained the largest number of votes. It is said that a large number of votes went to the party not only from labourers and farmers but also from well-educated people, small traders and industrialists, and even from Government officials. It is becoming a party of the people, and it may be safely inferred that the best elements of the voters are requiring a new party and a new Government which will rightfully reflect the public opinion for a radical reform of all political affairs.

Premier's Statement On May 3, Premier General Hayashi published a statement in connection with the result of the 20th general election as follows : Japan's political situation, national and international, is critical to the utmost extent. To surmount the crisis there is no other way than to aim at a radical reform in all directions, discarding conventionalism and yet not overrunning the times. With this conviction the Government worked with the 70th Session of the Imperial Diet and came to realize that the renovation of the constitution of the Diet is one of the important things basic for the reform of all other organs of State, being the first step of realizing the principles of Imperial constitutional government. I humbly asked the Throne for the Dissolution of the House of Representatives after a careful deliberation of these points, apart from the success or failure of the Government's policy in this respect. The 20th general election was carried out fairly. We expect the new representatives of the people to sacrifice their self-interest and to be eager to serve H.I.M. the Emperor in the momentous work of realizing the ideals of the Foundation of the Country in accordance with the principles of the national polity, in helping the progress of our unique constitutional government and in making contributions to the Imperial régime fully versed in the present political situation of Japan. This is what the whole nation expects of them. The Government is determined to carry on faithfully its policies indispensable at this time with the conviction and expectation stated above. We earnestly require a full co-operation of the people in unison and in sympathy with the intention of the Government.

This statement was received by the public as voicing the Government's determination to carry on its mission in the face of all criticism none of which supported the Government's stand. The unanimous opinion was that the Government would have to retreat in a few months, either before the proposed extraordinary session of the Diet in August or at its beginning when a non-confidence decision would be passed by a unanimous vote.

Resignation of the Hayashi Cabinet In spite of the Premier's statement matters went from bad to worse for the Hayashi Government. Movements for the formation of a new ministerial party all failed, while the much talked about disruption, if there had been any possibility of one, of the existing large parties was checked by the Dissolution and the general election, for these events worked contrary to the hope of the

Government for bringing about such a disruption and strengthened the unity of political parties in their common fight against the Hayashi Cabinet.

The general state of political affairs and the trend of public opinion in May tied up Hayashi's hand in trying to get persons for the vacant ministerial chairs. Besides, secret movements for a new cabinet began to be more active, along with the public movements and decisions of leading parties for the downfall of the Hayashi régime.

On May 31, 1937, the resignation of the Hayashi Cabinet en bloc was finally announced, Premier General Hayashi giving his reasons at the last meeting of his Cabinet in the afternoon of that day as follows: As to the political situation after the election, my mind was fully expressed in my statement on the third of May. I have endeavoured to make out important policies since, but I regret that there occurred a misunderstanding between the Government and a part of the House of Representatives concerning my action of asking the Throne for the Dissolution of the House at the end of March, although the general public understand, I believe, fully well the plain reason of the action. But this is the most important moment for Japan that requires a complete unity of the Government and the people to cope with the difficulties of the times and to exert all efforts for the advance of the national fortune, allowing no dissension within the country. The Government deeply feels the responsibility in its inability to carry out the important policies, however short its time of office might have been. But I feel this is the time for us to tender our resignation to the Throne, when a foundation for the renewal of the national polity has been laid, and open the way for a new cabinet which may be able to promote Japan's constitutional government in accordance with the fundamentals of our national structure.

Konoé Comes to Power

The public nomination for the new Premier was Prince Fumimaro Konoé, President of the House of Peers. The Imperial wish was the same, for the Genro, Prince Saionji, the President of Privy Council Baron Hiranuma and the Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals Mr. Yuasa unitedly recommended Konoé to the Throne on the first of June, 1937. Late in the afternoon, Prince Konoé was granted an audience in the Imperial Palace and received the Imperial Order for the formation of a new cabinet.

Konoé's coming to power was welcomed by all circles in Japan. His family prestige is second to none among the Japanese subjects, his political career as the President of the House of Peers has been brilliant, and his knowledge of and sympathy with the conditions of the people as well as that of military issues is thought to be deep and thorough. He is young, being 46 years old, and has but one defect, that of physical weakness.

The formation of the new cabinet went on smoothly in favourable circumstances. Prince Konoé was successful in the first place in persuading the War and Navy Ministers to stay in their former chairs, then in bringing Dr. Eiichi Baba, Minister of Finance in the Hirota Cabinet, to the chair of Home Miniter, and finally in getting Mr. Koki Hirota, the former Premier, for the Foreign Affairs portfolio. According to his policy of forming a cabinet in which all the political forces are represented, Prince Konoé was able to get one Minister from each leading party, Mr. Ryutaro Nagai, Chief Secretary of the Minseito, to be Minister of Communications, and Mr. Chikuhei Nakajima, one of the four members of the Acting-Presidential Board of the Seiyukai, to be Minister of Railways.

The Konoé Cabinet was formally inaugurated in the presence of His Majesty the Emperor at the Phœnix Hall of the Imperial Palace, at half past three in the afternoon of the fifth of June, 1937. The 13 members of the Konoé Cabinet are:

Premier,	Prince Fumimaro Konoé, President of the House of Peers
Minister for Foreign Affairs,	Mr. Koki Hirota, M.H.P., former Premier
Minister for Home Affairs,	Dr. Eiichi Baba, M.H.P., former Minister of Finance
Minister of Finance,	Mr. Okinori Kaya, Late Vice-Minister of Finance
Minister or War,	General Sugiyama, who held the same portfolio in the Hayashi Cabinet

Minister of Marine,	Admiral Mitsumasa Yonai, who held the same portfolio in the Hayashi Cabinet
Minister of Justice,	Mr. Suehiko Shiono, who held the same portfolio in the Hayashi Cabinet
Minister of Education,	Mr. Eiji Yasui, Governor of Osaka Prefecture
Minister of Agriculture and Forestry,	Count Yoriyasu Arima, M.H.P., Chairman of the Board of Trustees of the Central Chest for Co-operative Societies
Minister of Commerce and Industry,	Mr. Shinji Yoshino, former Vice-Minister of Commerce and Industry
Minister of Communications,	Mr. Ryutaro Nagai, M.H.R., Chief-Secretary of the Minseito
Minister of Railways,	Mr. Chikuhei Nakajima, M.H.R., Member of the Acting-Presidential Board of the Seiyukai
Minister for Overseas Affairs,	Mr. Sonyu Ohtani, M.H.P.

Personal histories of these Ministers are given in the fourth chapter of this volume. The new Cabinet came into power with the full support of the press, the military circle, the leading political parties and the economic world. It was believed that the Konoé Cabinet intended to make all efforts to overcome the quasi-war time crisis by the united force of the defence services, the bureaucracy and the political parties, keeping harmony with military forces and heeding the wishes of officialdom. The economic policy of the Cabinet was to adjust the international payments of Japan, to establish a concrete programme for the development of productive power in the country and to get a clear prospect of demand and supply and control the relations of the two most effectively.

Birth of a New Party The formation of a party, either entirely new or by the amalgamation of radical elements in the Minseito and the Seiyukai or by the supposed disruption of the Seiyukai, had been much talked about in the last two years. But, the unity of members of these two leading parties was much stronger than was supposed by many, and became much more so after the dissolution of the House of Representatives in March, this year. Therefore, eminent figures in the political world who it had been presumed would assume the presidency of the new party made no move in that direction.

In the meantime, the Seiji Kakushin Kyogikai or the Political Reform Council began a movement for the formation of a new party, and held, on July 8, a preparative meeting of ten committee men including Genkuro Eto, Katsumaro Akamatsu, Shiro Koiké and Tsunekichi Yamazaki. At the meeting it was decided that the name of the new party should be the Nippon Kakushinto (the Nippon Reform Party), and programmes were prepared for holding the inaugural meeting on the 18th at the Shiba Kyocho Kaikan (Shiba Hall of the Capital and Labour Harmonizing Council) and for beginning activities with a lecture meeting to be held on the 21st at the Hibiya Public Hall.

The proposed general meeting for the organization of the Party was held as scheduled, when representatives of member bodies gathered together from all parts of Japan including the four members of the House of Representatives, Genkuro Eto, Katsumaro Akamatsu, Shiro Koiké and Tsunekichi Yamazaki. The meeting passed decisions on the general principle and policies of the party as follows :

General Principle. The Nippon Kakushinto aims at the manifestation of the true Nippon in accordance with the principle of her national polity.

Policies (1) The establishment of a constitutional government and administrative system unique to Japan ; (2) the establishment of a national planned economy based on its unification through peace and war times ; (3) the unification of industry and economy in Japan and Manchoukuo ; (4) the establishment of fundamental readjustment policies for national and local finances ; (5) the completion of the provisions for national defence and the programme of national mobilization ; (6) the establishment of an international policy in accordance with Imperial Justice ; (7) the establishment of an educational system and means in accordance with Japanese principles ; (8) the re-establishment and creation of national culture in accordance with Japanese principles ; (9) the institution of measures for the elevation of the national physical standard ; and (10) the establishment of policies for the relief of poverty-stricken people.

Officials of the party were appointed as follows : Chairman of the General Committee, Genkuro Eto ; Chief for the Party Affairs, Katsumaro Akamatsu ; General Committee, Shiro Koiké, Tsunekichi Yamazaki, Itcho Sasai, Tatsuo Tsukui, Kyuzo Takayama, Hyozo Kanda, I. Ishibashi and Katsumaro Akamatsu ; Chief of the Policy Investigation Council, Itcho Sasai.

The 71st Session of the Imperial Diet

The 71st extraordinary session of the Imperial Diet was convened on 25th of July, 1937, the opening ceremony being honoured by the presence of H. I.M. the Emperor.

The addresses of the Premier, the Minister for Foreign Affairs and the Minister of Finance were delivered at the general meeting of both Houses on the 27th. The gists of their addresses follow :

Premier Prince Konoè's Address The Premier's administrative address follows :

I desire to elucidate, first of all, the principle which underlies the endeavours of the Government to fulfill its immense responsibilities. This principle is to make all our policies stem from a single source, namely, the spirit of the solemn and superb polity of our Empire. Expression of this spirit means that externally we should, in concert with other Powers, strive to establish true peace firmly in the world in accordance with international justice and to enhance more and more the prestige of our nation abroad and that internally we should define clearly the relationship between Sovereign and subjects and enable each of the people to find his proper place in accordance with social justice, bringing about thereby a steady and healthy advance of the national fortunes. Such, then, is the principle the Government expects to observe in formulating and carrying out its policies along various lines.

It is a source of profound regret that, with the troublesome question with the Soviet Union brought to a peaceful settlement and relations with other Powers increasingly amicable, there has occurred the present incident in China and that the Government has been compelled to make an important decision. I am very grateful, however, that the Government has been accorded the united support of the nation at this critical moment. In sending troops to North China, of course, the Government has no other purpose, as was explained in its recent statement, than to preserve the peace of East Asia. I cannot but hope most fervently that reconsideration and self-discipline on the part of the Government and people of China will make speedily possible a fundamental adjustment of Sino-Japanese relations.

In view of the current circumstances at home and abroad, it is of the most urgent necessity for us to perfect our national defence and develop the economic power of our country. Accordingly, as the basic means of carrying out our national policy, the Government feels imperative need to devise a comprehensive scheme aiming principally at expansion of the nation's productive power, establishment of equilibrium in international accounts and adjustment of supply and demand. Investigations are in progress with a view to formulating a concrete programme based on the conception of Japan and Manchukuo as a single unit.

Various other plans, including reform of the administrative machinery and the parliamentary system, have been reserved for later consideration. There are a few, of course, that have already been worked out definitely or are under investigation. The Government has definitely decided, for instance, to establish the Ministry of Health and Social Affairs, and the appropriation needed for it is being submitted to the Diet for approval.

As regards education, I am convinced of the great importance of laying down anew foundations of our educational system that will be in accord with the principle of our national polity. But it is extremely difficult to accomplish reform of our educational system in a brief period. The Government intends to appoint an educational council and to continue careful deliberations on the question.

Japan is at present passing through one of those trials that will enable it to rise to greater heights of prosperity and power. To achieve such spectacular progress, or to execute the various attendant reform measures, I believe there is no other way than to have all our people act as one with a firm resolve and the utmost perseverance. Internal friction or rivalry not only will frustrate that purpose but is likely to bring national humiliation upon us. At the time of forming the Cabinet, I thus followed a policy calculated to promote as much as possible the unity and co-operation of the nation.

In consonance with the spirit of national unity, the Government is prepared to carry out reforms where reforms are needed and to go the way

that is "new and ever new." It is its intention, moreover, to take up and solve, one by one, those questions that hitherto have been considered difficult of solution.

Mr. Hirota's Speech follows :

It is not necessary for me to expatiate afresh on our national policy, which aims at securing Japan's position as a stabilizing force in East Asia and contributing toward the establishment of true peace throughout the world. In order to carry out this policy we should, first of all, consider the relations between Japan, Manchoukuo, China and the Soviet Union.

In surveying the conditions of present-day China, the Government profoundly regret to note that anti-Japanese sentiments and movements have been encouraged and systematically exploited for the purpose of unifying public opinion and arousing nationalistic consciousness, and that untoward incidents evidently resulting thereform are taking place in various quarters in China. At the time of the Chengtu incident last year, the Japanese Government took occasion to ask the Chinese to rectify their attitude toward Japan, which constituted the fundamental obstacle to friendly intercourse between Japan and China, and to invite the Nanking Government to demonstrate its sincerity regarding the concrete questions bound up with amelioration of the relations between the two countries. Unfortunately the negotiations came to an impasse, owing to Chinese recalcitrance. Since then, Sino-Japanese relations have been, frankly speaking, far from satisfactory. Japanese policy in East Asia is directed solely toward realization of the stability of that region through conciliation and co-operation between Japan, Manchoukuo and China and by stopping the Communist invasion of the Orient. The Japanese Government therefore earnestly hopes that China will as soon as possible come to have a full understanding and appreciation of our basic policy.

Today in China not only is such understanding or appreciation absent, but anti-Japanese sentiments have been still more intensified, of which the Lukowkiao incident of the seventh of this month was only the logical consequence. As regards the present incident, the Japanese Government has maintained, as announced in its official statement of July 11, a policy of seeking a settlement on the spot and non-aggravation of the situation. Accordingly, the Government has been doing its best to effect a peaceful local solution, and at the same time to induce the Nanking Government to take proper steps for an early settlement of the question. It is my earnest hope that prompt reconsideration on the part of the Chinese authorities will lead to a faithful execution of the terms of settlement arrived at on the night of July 11. The Governments of the Powers have been informed in detail through our diplomatic representatives of this policy of the Japanese Government, and I believe they understand fully Japan's attitude of patience and self-restraint. On the other hand, there is no knowing what will be the possible repercussions among the Chinese masses, dependent as this is upon what stand the Nanking Government may take. There exists, it must be admitted, the danger of an untoward outbreak at any moment. We have more than once called the attention of both the Chinese Central Government and the local authorities to the necessity for control of anti-Japanese activities and protection of our nationals in China. In order to insure the safety of our fellow-countrymen, the Japanese Government is prepared to use all available means which may be called for by the development of the situation. Thus, in a word, China holds the key to the settlement of the present incident, as it depends entirely upon what course it may choose to follow. I confidently hope that the Nanking Government will adopt such effective and appropriate measures as will accord with our desire and bring about an early and amicable settlement.

The Government is giving careful consideration to our relations with the Soviet Union. Incidents have continued to occur along the Manchoukuo-Soviet frontier. The most serious case was the recent illicit invasion and occupation of Manchoukuo islands in the Amur, which led to an armed clash of the Japanese-Manchoukuo forces and the Russian forces to restore the status quo ante, in that region. The situation threatened for a time to develop into one of extreme gravity. However, the affair ended, in a peaceful settlement, the Soviet Government agreeing to restore the status quo ante in that region. The Japanese Government is deeply concerned over the state of things on the Manchoukuo-Soviet frontier, which gives rise to frequent friction. What is needed first of all is to take practical steps to prevent these border disputes. For that purpose, we should lose no time in setting up those two commissions for the demarcation of the border line and the settlement of disputes

which for some years past have been under consideration and also devise other means of removing the tension all along the frontier. I cannot but urge most strongly upon the Soviet Government to co-operate freely and unreservedly with us in this task for the sake of the peace of East Asia.

Again, it is a matter of no small concern for the Government whether or not our nationals engaged in fishing in the northern waters and those having oil and coal concessions in North Saghalien are to be accorded full guarantees for the legitimate operation of their enterprises. It is our policy never to tolerate the creation of any such circumstances as will in substance destroy those enterprises sanctioned, as they are, by treaty. In short, there remains between Japan and the Soviet Union a number of issues still pending, for the solution of which the Government will do its utmost.

As for our relations with Great Britain, I am deeply moved when I say that a short while ago, on behalf of His Majesty the Emperor, His Imperial Highness Prince Chichibu, accompanied by Princess Chichibu, attended the coronation ceremonies of the King and Queen of England, and by their mission they have enhanced the traditional friendship that binds our two nations. It has always been the consistent policy of the Government to promote Anglo-Japanese friendship, and more recently the two Governments have come to an agreement of views regarding the advisability of entering into frank conversations with the object of adjusting the relations of the two countries. We hope to bring about an early attainment of that aim.

Japanese - American relations have been of late really good, being marked by ever-growing amity and goodwill. I am glad to say that the economic mission which visited the United States some weeks ago has by its candid exchange of views with various circles accomplished much toward establishing closer contact between our two nations economically and otherwise.

Last year this country concluded the anti-Comintern agreement with Germany. The Government is striving for an effective application of the said agreement and at the same time for the furtherance of friendly and intimate relations between Japan and Germany.

Now to turn to our trade relations with other countries.

Obviously the expansion of our export trade constitutes not only an indispensable condition of our national existence, but one of the most important means of balancing our international accounts under the present economic circumstances of the country. But as a matter of fact, the foreign Powers, for economic, financial, or other reasons, still continue to maintain commercial barriers of various kinds against Japanese goods. The Government is working for a smooth development of our export trade by concluding such individual agreements with the governments of those countries as may be best suited to their respective circumstances, or by arranging for private agreements to be arrived at between our business interests and those of other countries. I am glad to say that since last spring our trade negotiations with India, Burma, the Netherlands East Indies and Turkey have all been brought to a successful conclusion. The Government will strive more energetically than ever for the maintenance and furtherance of Japan's commercial interests, and at the same time make all possible endeavours to insure free access to raw materials and natural resources and to promote the freedom of international trade. It is gratifying to note the growth of certain tendencies favourable to restoration of the freedom of trade. I desire to take this opportunity to declare the readiness of the Japanese Government to participate heartily in any international undertaking to convert these tendencies into a reality.

Finance Minister Mr. Okimori Kaya's Address I have the honour of explaining the supplementary budget for 1937–38 and the Government's financial policy. Number 1 of the supplementary budgets for 1937–38 is for expenses for the present North China Incident. It amounts to ¥96,800,000. For immediate use ¥10,000,000 was disbursed for the expenses at the War Ministry from the second reserve of the Treasury, and ¥86,700,000 is to be expended for matters handled by the Ministries of Foreign Affairs (¥700,000), Finance (40,800,000), War (¥46,000,000) and Navy (¥9,100,000). To meet the need, the Government is going to float North China Incident Loans in addition to using some reserves of the Treasury. Besides, ¥200,000 is added to the sum from the Special Account for the Chosen Government-General.

In addition to No. 1 of the supplementary budgets for 1937–38, the Government will present to the present Session a second supplementary budget to cover the expenses for the establishment of the Ministry of Health and Social

Affairs, institutions for training technical workers, promotion of gold production, completion of the Board of Planning, relief and prevention of natural calamities, enforcement of the Foreign Exchange Control Law, and the increase of the reserve funds in the Treasury.

For the advance of the national fortune we have to take positive measures on important matters in all direction. But at the base of all positive measures there must be a sound development of economic power and the realization of all undertakings will be limited after all to the grade of our national economic power. For a sound development of our economic power and its maintenance it is of first importance to put Japan and Manchoukuo under a united economic programme and to draw a concrete united plan and carry it out for the expansion of productive power, proper adjustment of international payment and harmonious relations between demand and supply.

For the realization of important measures human power and dexterity in the work are much required, but the first necessity is the abundance of materials. We have to make efforts first to get a sufficient supply of materials, and the present situation of Japan in this line is such that we must develop the productive power in the country and improve the condition of international payments so as to enhance the consuming power of imported materials. For the development of productive power plans have to be established along three lines, to ensure the self supply of necessary provisions in wartime, to increase the production of commodities of which the supply is insufficient in peace-time, and to increase production of commodities which may contribute to better international payments. At the same time selections must be made as to the kinds of production according to their importance and urgency for the present need to make both ends meet in international payments in such a country as Japan which is short of both raw materials and capital.

It is most important to maintain the present exchange rate of the yen for carrying out important national policies and for the stability of national life. In the present condition of our international payments it is but natural that the exchange rate will tend to decline when it is left uncontrolled. With the present state of affairs, a decline of the exchange rate will not only affect Japan's foreign trade badly but will also cause the rise of commodity prices in the country and the lower exchange rate and the rise of prices may counteract each other, carrying matters from bad to worse and threaten the living of the masses, hinder the systematic working of national economy and lay obstacles against the realization of the Government's programmes. A lower exchange rate will neither increase our exports in the face of the difficult international trade relations nor decrease the imports of Japan, which must largely rely upon foreign commodities and materials. It will, on the contrary, augment our burden in international payments. To get safely through the transition period, that is, until our national productive power is properly developed we have to exert ourselves to maintain the present standard of the exchange rate, to improve the condition of international payments and to promote foreign trade, fully acknowledging the great need of foreign supplies of materials for years to come, and yet restricting unnecessary payments abroad by a careful control of imports and other items of payment.

Consumption of materials is restricted by the productive power and the volume of imports of a nation, and demands must be harmonized with the supply so as not to cause an undue rise of prices and yet keep the balance of international payments. The Government must therefore devise means for a proper control of demand and supply, making a thorough investigation on these matters. Efforts are being made by the Government to draw up united programmes on all the points above mentioned, and a full co-operation of the people concerned is earnestly requested in carrying them out.

The productive power, international payments and demand and supply of Manchoukuo are in a close relation with those of Japan, and for the establishment of our financial and economic schemes Manchoukuo must be considered as one with Japan and the Government will keep in close relations with the Government of that country for the realization of its proposed programmes.

The demands of capital for industrial enterprises in Japan have greatly increased recently, and the paid-up capital and loans of the banks have remarkably increased. In view of an ever increasing tendency of demands for capital the Government will take necessary measures for a smooth movement of capital and keep the interest rates as low as possible. The Bank of Japan has lowered the discount rate

of mortgaged bonds and has decided to devise a new means for discounting bills on the security of the debentures of corporations undertaking those enterprises which are important from the national point of view. These measures will work for the good of the Government's bond policy and the general money market.

The rise of price of gold is universal. But the valuation of gold bullion reserved in the Bank of Japan for the issuance of convertible notes is fixed at one yen per 750 mg. of pure gold in accordance with the Coin Law, so the real value of the considerable gold reserve of the Bank is not duly calculated. The Government is going to make a revaluation of the gold reserve in order to get a fund for the control of the exchange rate; but the Government has no intention to effect any change on the present exchange rate, but will take all measures necessary for maintaining the Tokyo-London rate at 1s 2d.

The foreign trade of Japan for the first half of 1937 inclusive of colonies reached ¥1,602,000,000 in exports and ¥2,243,000,000 in imports. The increase of exports over the same period of 1936 is ¥338,000,000 while that of imports is ¥664,000,000. The increase of the latter is conspicuous owing to the increased demands for materials along with the advance of national policies. The Government is shipping gold for the maintenance of the present exchange rate, but the amount of gold shipped in the future will be limited to the annual amount of gold produced, and a bill pertaining to the production of gold will be presented to the present session.

Then the Finance Minister dwelt upon the problems arising in connection with the rise of prices in the country, about the revision of customs duties, and finally on the effect of the North China Incident on domestic economic conditions, closing his address with a warning against speculations which may arise in such a time of emergency.

The minute reports of the North China Incident made by the War Minister, General Gen Sugiyama, before the Diet on the same day and on several other occasions held the attention of the audience, and the Diet gave consent to the Government's request for the second supplementary budget in relation to the North China Incident which reached ¥419,600,000, without any amendment.

The 71st Session of the Diet passed two bills presented by the Lower House and the 34 bills introduced by the Government, including budgets for the Incident and for the establishment of the Ministry of Health and Social Affairs. Only one bill was laid on the table. The closing ceremony was held on the 8th of August, 1937.

The Board of Planning The Imperial Ordinance authorizing the formation of the Board of Planning, and ordering the abolition of the Board of Investigation, was promulgated on May 14, 1937. On the same day, the new Board embarked on its important mission with the appointment of a President, a Vice-President, and other officials.

According to Article I of the Ordinance the functions of the Board are

(1) To make recommendations to the Cabinet, acting on the instruction of the Prime Minister. With pertinent observations, both in regard to important national policies and to their co-ordination and adjustment.

(2) To investigate the important policies proposed to the Cabinet by its Ministers and to make recommendations based on due observation of them. Policies proposed by different Departments are referred to the Board, which is to study them in the light of their importance, and investigate them from the point of view of the unity and harmony of all national policies.

(3) To investigate important policies, and to study the means of co-ordinating and adjusting them.

(4) To make recommendations concerning control over budget estimates on proposed policies.

(5) To have authority to call for explanations or explanatory data such as deemed necessary for carrying out its functions outlined above.

Institution of the Imperial Academy of Arts The Teikoku Geijutsu In or the Imperial Academy of Arts was instituted on June 24, 1937, by the promulgation of Imperial Ordinance No. 280, and the first meeting of the members of the Academy was held on July 9. The governmental policy for controlling and encouraging the progress of arts in the country had met many difficulties for years, obliging the successive Governments to make changes in the practical handling of the matters pertaining to the policy. But, all troubles seem to be settled by the formation of the Imperial Academy of Arts.

The purpose of the Academy is to promote the progress of all arts in Japan and make contributions for the elevation of national culture. The membership of the Academy is limited to 80, the members being appointed by the Cabinet according to the recom-

mendation of the Minister of Education who is entrusted with power to choose candidates from among the persons who have long careers and full knowledge of fine arts, music or literature. The functions of the Academy are to make studies on important matters pertaining to arts and to take necessary measures for the progress of arts in Japan. The former Imperial Academy of Fine Arts was dissolved with the institution of the new academy, transferring its members en masse to the new organization.

The North China Incident

On Wednesday night, July 7, 1937, a small unit of Japanese troops was engaged in manoeuvres on their usual grounds, near Marco Polo Bridge, southwest of Peiping, and in the vicinity of Lukouchiao and Lungwangmiao on the Yungting River. With the regular summer inspection but a fortnight ahead, all Japanese troops in the area had been drilling day and night for weeks. The Chinese authorities had been notified of these manoeuvres, as usual, and nothing untoward had occurred or been anticipated.

But suddenly, at 11:40 o'clock on this particular night, the Japanese troops were fired upon by Chinese soldiers from the directions of Lukouchiao and Lungwangmiao. The Japanese were utterly unprepared to return the fire, for they were only 150 strong and had a supply of live ammunition amounting only to one ball-cartridge per person, which was being kept by the commanding officer. All that they could do at this critical moment was to halt their manoeuvres, concentrate at a spot some distance from the Chinese, and send for help to their headquarters, situated about two and a half miles away in the former British barracks at Fengtai. Re-enforcements came quickly, and with the Japanese replying with real shots to the Chinese fire, the first clash occurred.

The Chinese authorities at Peiping were immediately notified, and a joint Sino-Japanese mediation party hurried to the scene. But before it arrived, the Chinese troops at 5:20 a.m. again opened fire. Cessation of hostilities was at last arranged for at 6:00 o'clock on Thursday morning. However, the Chinese soldiers, either in ignorance or in wilful disregard, of the terms of settlement, fired on the Japanese troops who were forced to protect themselves. So fighting broke out for the second time at 3:00 o'clock in the afternoon, and for the third time at 6:00 o'clock in the evening.

A more definite agreement for maintaining a truce was reached on Friday, July 9, between Colonel Matsui of the Japanese Special Mission Service at Peiping and the representatives of the 29th Army, according to which the Chinese were to withdraw to the right bank of the Yungting and the Japanese to remain on the left. And, save for spasmodic shots fired by the Chinese soldiery in various localities, this day passed quietly.

The Chinese troops involved in this affair were a part of the 37th Division, belonging to the 29th Army. This division, under the command of General Feng Chi-an, was composed of remnants of General Feng Yu-hsiang's troops, well-known for their anti-Japanese spirit. In view of the fact that, during the preceding months, the Communists and Bule Shirts had been busily carrying on propaganda for the so-called "Anti-Japanese People's Front," the attitude of these troops was a matter of concern to both Chinese and Japanese authorities. Accordingly it was with no small relief that the news of speedy settlement of the affair was received.

On the following day, however, at about 5:00 o'clock in the afternoon, approximately 100 Chinese soldiers, in violation of the terms of the truce, appeared with trench mortars 3 miles to the north of Lukouchiao, and launched an attack upon the Japanese. At 7:00 o'clock another Chinese contingent of some 100 men marched into the village of Lungwangmiao from a northwesterly direction, and there opened fire upon the Japanese, who then launched a counter-attack and drove the Chinese from the village. These clashes were ended by an agreement between the authorities of the two sides to suspend hostilities for the night.

The situation seemed quiet for the moment and some members of the Tokyo Government had even left the capital, when, on Saturday afternoon, July 10, news poured into Tokyo of the northward movements of armies belonging to the Chinese Central Government, the mobilization of air forces in all parts of China, and the proclamation of martial law in the Peiping area. The rapid worsening of the situation endangering Japanese lives in North China became evident.

In view of these disquieting developments members of the Cabinet assembled late on July 10 and discussed the question of sending troops to North China in order to forestall any event that might precipitate a general clash.

At the same time, without abandoning hope for an early settlement, or at least of minimizing the affair, the Government, on Sunday morning, July 11, sent instructions to the authorities on the spot to continue endeavours in this direction. On the basis of these instructions, negotiations were conducted with the Chinese; an agreement was reached on July 11, and, at 4:00 o'clock in the afternoon, the Chinese representatives, General Chang Tsu-jung, mayor of Tientsin, and General Ying Yung, chief of the Public Safety Bureau of Hopei, wrote to the Japanese representative, Colonel Matsui, agreeing to the following terms :

(1) Apology by the representatives of the 29th Army and punishment of those directly responsible.

(2) Chinese troops to evacuate Lukouchiao and to be replaced by the Peace Preservation Corps for the purpose of keeping the Chinese troops sufficiently separated from the Japanese.

(3) To take adequate measures for curbing the activities of the Blue Shirts and Communists.

It will be duly seen that these terms were extremely easy to carry out, having no political or economic significance whatsoever, and that the intention of the unoffending side was to arrive at as rapid and simple a settlement as possible.

Meanwhile, in Tokyo, the Japanese Government had been studying measures for coping with the situation. The decision to send necessary forces to North China was maintained in view of the alarming news which continued to come from China regarding the provocative actions of the 29th Army soldiers, and the movements of Chinese troops not only in North China but also in South Hopei. The following statement was issued by the Japanese Government at 4:00 p.m. on that same day :

The Japanese forces garrisoned in North China have always maintained a calm and patient attitude toward successive anti-Japanese outbursts in North China. On the night of July 7, an unfortunate clash occurred when the Japanese troops were wantonly fired upon by soldiers of the 29th Army, which had been co-operating with our forces in maintaining peace and order in that region. This led to such an atmosphere of tension in the Peiping and Tientsin districts as to cause deep anxiety for the safety of the lives and property of Japanese nationals. However, the earnest endeavours of the Japanese authorities to localize the affair and prevent further aggravation succeeded in bringing the 29th Army auhorities to agree to a peaceful settlement.

On the night of July 10, however, soldiers of the 29th Army, in violation of the agreement, suddenly fired upon Japanese troops, causing considerable casualties. The Chinese have since pushed on warlike preparations by increasing their forces on the front lines; the troops stationed at Siyuan have advanced to the South, while troops of the Central Government have been moved forward. The Chinese have thus not only failed to evince any desire for a peaceful solution, but have gone the length of flatly rejecting all Japan's offers for amicable settlement, thus leaving no room for doubt that the present incident is the outcome of a well-organized agitation for warlike action against Japan.

There is no need of stressing on the vital importance to Japan and Manchoukuo of the maintenance of peace and order in North China. What is more urgently needed for the peace of East Asia is that the Chinese not only apologize for their most recent lawless actions and manifestations of antagonism to Japan, but give adequate guarantee against a recurrence of such outrages in the future. An important decision has been reached by the Japanese Government at today's Cabinet meeting to take all necessary measures for dispatching military forces to North China.

But, desirous as ever of preserving the peace of East Asia, the Japanese Government has not abandoned its hope that negotiations may yet assure the non-aggravation of the situation, and that prompt reconsideration on the part of China may bring about an amicable solution. The Japanese Government is, of course, prepared to give full consideration to the safeguarding of the rights and interests of the Powers in China. (See Chapter VI, Foreign Relations.)

The development of the Incident from July 12 to August 4 is as follows :

July 12 Mr. Hidaka, counsellor of the Japanese Embassy at Nanking, visits Mr. Wang Ching-hui, Nanking's Foreign Minister, and urges that his Government not obstruct the execution of the settlement arrived at on the spot. He reiterates the request two days later to another Nanking official. The Nanking Government, however, refuses to listen and declares that it will not recognize any local arrangement.

July 13 General Sung Che-yuan, chairman of the Hopei-Chahar Political

Council, whose establishment in 1935 was recognized by the Nanking Government, returns from his country home and takes up negotiations with Lieutenant-General Katsuki, new commander of the Tientsin garrison. In spite of this, minor clashes take place owing to the anti-Japanese spirit of the 29th Army. China fails to carry out her promise to lift martial law, release the Japanese held in detention and restore communications between Peiping and Tientsin, and furthermore, morning reveals the whole city of Peiping bedecked with anti-Japanese posters and seething with anti-Japanese demonstrations. On this day 4 Japanese motor lorries are fired upon near Yungtingmen.

July 17 Mr. Hidaka calls on Mr. Wang again and hands him a memorandum urging the Nanking Government not to interfere with the execution of the agreement arrived at between the authorities in North China and to suspend immediately all military preparations against Japan.

July 18 General Sung Che-yuan in accordance with the agreement expresses his regrets to General Katsuki concerning the Lukouchiao incident. Thus the first practical step toward a satisfactory settlement of the incident seems to have been taken. However, the attitude of the officers and men of the 37th Division is far from conforming to that of General Sung. To all appearances they are awaiting Nanking's decision whether or not to reject the local settlement.

July 19 Japanese guards at Lukuochiao are fired on by Chinese soldiers, and the commanding officer, Captain Yamazaki, is severely wounded.

Mr. Tung Tao-ning, chief of the first section of the Asiatic Bureau, calls on Mr. Hidaka at 2:30 p.m. and hands him an aide mémoire, in which the Nanking Government declares the movements of Chinese troops to be a defence measure and submits the following :

(1)The two Governments to agree upon a date for both sides simultaneously to stop the movements of their troops and also to recall their armed forces to their original stations.

(2) They should enter into diplomatic negotiations with a view to reaching an immediate settlement.

(3) The authorization of the Central Government is necessary for any agreement made on the spot concerning any question, even of a local character.

(4) The Chinese Government is willing to accept any means of settlement recognized by international law or treaties, such as direct negotiations, good offices, mediation or arbitration.

Comments on the memorandum made in Tokyo are (1) that it evades the two points put forward by Mr. Hidaka on July 17, (2) the simultaneous withdrawal of troops would imply that Japan was partly responsible for the affairs, whereas in fact China was solely responsible, since the incident was started by the firing of Chinese soldiers, (3) the contention that the Chinese troops movements are a defence measure is absurd, since Japan's decision to send troops to North China was motivated by the heavy concentration of Chinese troops in North China beginning on July 9, until there were more than 80,000 men of the 29th Army in the Peiping-Tientsin region and more than 25 divisions along the railway lines leading to these cities, and finally (4) that because the Nanking Government recognized the Hopei-Chahar Political Council and its freedom to enter into local agreements, there is no justification for Nanking to declare now that local agreements are null and void unless they have the Central Government's authorization.

The headquarters of the Japanese garrison at Tientsin announces at 10:00 p.m. that they will be compelled to take such action as they deem appropriate on and after July 20, unless the Chinese immediately cease their provocative actions.

July 20 The Japanese commander makes representations, and General Sung Che-yuan renews his pledge to cause the withdrawal of the 37th Division under General Feng Chi-an from Yamenkou and Papaoshan by noon of July 21, and its replacement by the Peace Preservation Corps. General Sung also announces that on his own responsibility he will see that the incident is localized.

The Nanking Government has assembled nearly 350 planes at Loyang and Hsuchou, part of which have begun joint operations with Chinese troops in Hopei.

July 23 At General Chiang Kai-shek's orders, General Hsiung Pin, assistant Chief of the Chinese General Staff, goes from Nanking to Poating by plane, and reaches Peiping in the evening. The arrival of such an important officer is interpreted by the Chinese troops as encouragement to resist.

July 26 At 3:30 p.m. strong note from General Katsuki is delivered to General Sung at Peiping by Col. T. Matsui, demanding, in view of the repeated violation by the Chinese of their pledges, (1) withdrawal by noon on July 28 of the 37th Division troops

near Lukouchiao and Papaoshan to Changsintien on the Peiping-Hankow Railway south of Lukouchiao; (2) withdrawal to the west bank of the Yungting River by noon on July 28 of all 37th Division troops inside the walled city of Peiping and all 37th Division troops stationed at Siyuan, northwest of Peiping; and (3) subsequent withdrawal of all the foregoing troops to the Paoting area, 90 miles south of Peiping. The note warns that if the Chinese fail to carry out these demands, the Japanese Army will "be compelled to conclude that the 29th Army's authorities lack sincerity and to take any action it may deem appropriate," with full responsibility lying with the 29th Aarmy.

July 27 At Tokyo: After a meeting called at 1:30 p.m. the Cabinet submits for Imperial sanction an order mobilizing reinforcements to be sent to China. Through its Chief Secretary the Cabinet issues a statement pointing out that China's consistent anti-Japanese policy has repeatedly menaced the peace in North China, citing Japan's policy of attempting to settle the trouble locally and peacefully, and recalling that Japan has submitted very lenient conditions for settlement to the Hopei-Chahar Political Council which accepted them but failed to carry them out. The statement recalls that, while Japan was exerting every effort for a peaceful solution, the Nanking Government was making preparations for war and thus causing unrest. It reviews the various attacks upon Japanese troops by Chinese soldiers and shows that the Japanese Army has been forced to take defensive action. The statement disclaims territorial ambitions and enmity toward the Chinese people, and promises recognition of foreign rights and every effort to protect foreign rights and nationals. It closes with an expression of a continued desire to minimize the situation and expedite an amicable settlement.

At Nanking: The Foreign Ministry at 10:30 p.m. belatedly issues a statement indicating its willingness to accept the "emergency form of settlement" worked out between the Japanese and the North China local authorities.

At Peiping: With the safety of 18,000 Japanese civilians at stake, General Katsuki finds no alternative to swift and drastic action toward the forcible eviction of the 29th Army. Late at night General Katsuki informs General Feng and the Mayor of Peiping of his decision.

July 28 The Japanese troops begin moveing toward the Chinese lines at 5:00 a.m. General Katsuki simultaneously issues a statement declaring the crisis has been caused by China's breach of faith in rushing Central Army troops northward, contrary to the Ho-Umezu Agreement, and in other preparations for war against the Japanese. He explains that every means to reach a peaceful settlement has been exhausted, and that the peace of North China, which is of vital importance to both Japan and Manchoukuo, has been disrupted with consequent imminent danger to the lives and property of Japanese residents. The statement says this punitive action is aimed only at the Chinese forces and not at the Chinese population; announces that the Japanese troops will not use force inside Peiping unless challenged by the Chinese soldiery.

General Sung Che-yuan, commander of the 29th Army, General Chin Tehchun, Mayor of Peiping, and General Feng Chi-an, commander of the 37th Division, secretly flee to Paoting.

July 29 About 2,000 men of the 29th Army, reinforced by some 1,000 men of the Peace Preservation Corps, launch an obviously premeditated attack on the principal Japanese buildings and the Japanese garrison at Tungchow. Civilians falling into their hands are butchered; other atrocities are committed.

July 31 Despite rain, Japanese planes fly over Tungchow and bomb the Chinese, who abandon the siege and retreat to the south. At 4:20 p.m. the Kawabé detachment, which has been fighting south of Peiping, reaches Tungchow, mans the five gates to the city, overpowers the Chinese soldiers remaining at the scene, and restores order.

The Japanese troops find all Japanese homes ransacked and many of the residents killed. Survivors describe some of the atrocities. Men, women and children were ruthlessly butchered and in many cases their bodies were mutilated. The maidservants of the Kinsuiro, a Japanese-managed hotel, were strung together on a wire run through their noses or throats and were thus led out to be shot. Their bodies were subjected to horrible outrages and then thrown into a lotus pond.

August 4 It is ascertained that of the 151 Japanese and 187 Koreans residing in Tungchow, more than 200 men, women and children were killed in the massacre.

CHAPTER VI

FOREIGN RELATIONS

Earlier Contacts with Foreign Countries

China and Korea China and Korea were the first foreign nations to come into contact with Japan. To these two countries the ancient Japanese were indebted in a large measure for various institutions of civilization. It was, however, not until about the middle of the fourth century A. D., when the Empress Jingo sent an expedition to south Korea and established a resident Japanese government in Silla, one of the three Korean kingdoms, that the Japanese began systematically introducing Chinese culture and learning through Korea. After this, Chinese civilization continued to influence the Japanese to an increasing extent, and in 593 the Prince Regent Shotoku began the construction of an imposing Buddhist temple and pagoda called Shitennoji (or Tennoji) at Naniwa, present Osaka. This was intended to help propagate Buddhism among the Japanese as well as to impress the Chinese envoys and traders who, in those days, were in the habit of coming to this country by small sailing craft and landing at what is now known as Osaka.

Other contacts with China and Korea occurred on the occasion of the Korean resistance against the encroachment of the Chinese under the Tang dynasty in the seventh century, when the Emperor Tenchi sent assistance to Korea, and at the time of the invasion of the northern shores of the island of Kyushu by an expeditionary force under Kublai Khan in the thirteenth century, which was the first instance of the security of Japan being menaced by foreign invasion. The Mongolian expedition was finally repulsed by the Japanese with the help of a hurricane which wrecked practically all the Monogolian fleet.

Another major event in Japan's earlier foreign relations was the expedition sent to Korea by Hideyoshi Toyotomi in 1592. This expedition was recalled without any decisive results shortly after the death of Toyotomi. It is regarded as probable that the failure of this military action was partly due to the assistance given to Korea by China, which claimed sovereignty over the Korean peninsula.

Chinese civilization was also brought to Japan by the Chinese refugees who emigrated when the Manchus invaded and subjugated China proper in the middle of the seventeenth century.

Spain and Portugal Japan's first contact with Western countries occurred in the middle of the sixteenth century, when Portuguese and Spanish traders first visited the shores of this country. These traders were instrumental in introducing Christianity.

Britain and the Netherlands Shortly afterwards, Dutch and English traders arrived in Japan and were granted every facility for the conduct of business. In the meantime, the Jesuit and Franciscan missionaries had erected churches in various parts of the country, and their activities came to be regarded with grave apprehension as it was believed that they had political motives. Consequently, the Shogunate Government ordered all missionaries to leave Japan and strictly prohibited Christianity in 1597. The Shogunate Government later went so far as to close the country entirely against communications with foreign countries, issuing a decree to this effect in May, 1636. After this, only a limited number of Chinese and Dutch traders were allowed to reside at Deshima in Nagasaki, and all contact with foreigners was made through them.

Russia Over one and a half centuries of complete seclusion followed until 1792, when Russia sought the opening of the Japanese ports to trade through her representative. In 1806, two Russian ships attacked the coast of Saghalien, plundering a Japanese town and carrying off a number of its inhabitants.

Great Britain during the Napoleonic wars attempted to supplant the Dutch merchants at Deshima by British nationals. These British ventures were followed by the arrival of Americans in Japan. Arriving in the Bay of Yedo in 1837, aboard a ship called the Morrison, these Americans tried to convince the leaders of the Tokugawa Shogunate of the inevitability of Japan entering into relations with the Western powers. A similar attempt was made by King William II of the Netherlands

who, in February, 1844, sent a friendly communication to the Shogunate Government urging Japan to enter into treaty-relations with Western countries. It was not, however, until 1853, when the American fleet commanded by Commodore Perry arrived at Uraga, that the leaders of the Tokugawa régime came to consider seriously the question of regular foreign contacts.

The United States As a result of Commodore Perry's visit, Japan concluded her first treaty of amity with the United States on March 1, 1954, providing for the opening of the ports of Shimoda and Hakodaté to American citizens and for the extension of reciprocal aid to vessels in distress. Russia, Great Britain, France and other Western countries soon concluded treaties of a similar nature.

The conclusion of these treaties, for which no Imperial sanction was sought immediately, gave rise to a strong anti-foreign sentiment and several resident foreigners were murdered. A British squadron avenged these outrages by bombarding the city of Kagoshima at the southern tip of the Island of Kyushu in 1863. A similar attack was made on Shimonoseki the following year by a combined fleet of British, American, French and Dutch warships.

The international engagements entered into by the Shogunate Government were sanctioned in 1865 by the Throne, which reassumed its civil and military powers from the Shogunate Government in 1868 after having left de facto power in other hands for nearly seven centuries.

The Meiji Era

The "Maria Luz" Incident The first noteworthy incident in Japan's foreign relations in the Meiji Era was what is known as the Maria Luz incident which took place in 1872, when the Japanese Government successfully helped in releasing 200 Chinese slaves from the Peruvian ship Maria Luz at Yokohama. This action was upheld by an international tribunal presided over by Emperor Alexander II of Russia and was instrumental in strengthening the position of Japan as an independent nation in international politics.

Saghalien and the Loochoo In 1872, the Japanese Government proposed to buy the Island of Saghalien for ¥2,000,000, but the negotiations for this purchase were broken off on the advice of Count Kuroda, who contended that the island was worthless. Three years later Japan gave up all claim to Saghalien in exchange for Russia's recognition of Japan's sovereignty over the Kurile Islands.

The Loochoo Islands, a group lying between Kyushu and Taiwan, were formally incorporated in the Japanese Empire in 1871, when, inviting the King of Loochoo to Tokyo and creating him a peer, the Japanese Government organized the archipelago into a prefecture called "Okinawa-ken."

The Bonin Island Dispute The Bonin Islands, called in Japanese "Ogasawara-jima," were officially recognized as a territory of Japan in 1875 by the United States following a dispute as to sovereignty therein between the two nations.

Expedition to Formosa When a group of shipwrecked Loochooan sailors were massacred by the savages of Formosa (now known as Taiwan) in 1872, the Japanese Government sent a punitive expedition to the island, and a strong protest was received from China. The situation threatened to become very tense, but through the intervention of British Minister at Peking, the trouble was settled, Japan evacuating the island and China consenting to pay an indemnity to the families of the victims of the outrage.

Treaty Revision Revision of Japan's unequal treaties with the foreign Powers was accomplished in 1894, after a series of unsuccessful attempts, which had led to the collapse of several of the most powerful Cabinets. The treaties of commerce and navigation concluded by the Shogunate Government with the Western Powers provided for the opening of the ports of Yokohama, Kobé, Osaka, Nagasaki, Niigata and Hakodaté, together with Tokyo, to commerce and residence, with extraterritorial privileges for foreign residents. These treaties also required Japan to maintain a very low scale of import duties.

It was for the purpose of seeking revision of the treaties, on the basis of a provision therein that revisions could be made after, 1871, that Prince Tomomi Iwakura's mission was sent to America and Europe in 1871. The great difficulty standing in the way of the proposed revision was the agreement among the eighteen nations concerned to the effect that they would act conjointly in their negotiations with Japan. The United States alone consented to conclude a separate treaty, but a provision in it that it should not be put into force until after the conclusion of similar treaties with the other nations deprived the document of its practical effect.

In 1882, Count Kaoru Inouyé made overtures to the British Government

and a preliminary conference followed to discuss the basis of negotiations, at which elaborate preparations were made for a great conference, in which every treaty Power should be represented. Great Britain and Germany showed their willingness to make liberal concessions and for a time it looked as if Count Inouyé's efforts would be crowned with success. However, the conditions of the proposed new treaties leaked out and, feeling indignant over what they described as a humiliation to Japan, the vernacular newspapers started vigorous campaign against the proposed revision. This coincided with the sinking of a British steamer in which all the Japanese passengers perished, and this incident poured oil on the fire of the anti-foreign agitation then prevailing throughout the country. The situation was so threatening that the Japanese Government found it advisable to postpone the negotiations for revision.

The next foreign minister to take up his onerous task was Count Shigenobu Okuma, who started fresh negotiations in 1888. Before officially starting negotiations, however, he adopted a high-handed policy towards the foreign residents in this country with a view to convincing them of the advisability of revising the treaties. In approaching the foreign Powers concerned, Count Okuma preferred to negotiate with them individually instead of collectively and first of all made overtures to Mexico, offering to allow the presence of foreign legal assessors in the Japanese Supreme Court in cases involving foreigners during a space of at least three years after the enactment of the new legal codes on Western lines. This offer was accepted. After the signing of this treaty, the United States, Germany and Russia soon expressed willingness to make agreement on similar lines, it having been agreed that the new treaties should take effect in 1890. Before the signing of similar treaties by the other Powers, however, a vehement agitation broke out in Japan against the appointment of foreign assessors, and an attempt was made on the life of Count Okuma, in which he was seriously injured.

The treaty revision negotiations, which were thus interrupted, were resumed by Viscount Shuzo Aoki, who succeeded Count Okuma as Foreign Minister. Viscount Aoki's seven proposals did not provide for the presence of foreign assessors on Japanese tribunals, and there seemed to be a good chance of these proposals being accepted by Great Britain, when, owing to an attempt made on the life of the Grown Prince of Russia then visiting Japan, Count Aoki had to resign and was succeeded by Viscount Buyo Enomoto.

Viscount Enomoto continued efforts to complete the desired revision of the treaties, but soon had to resign when the Government was defeated on the budget. In 1892, Count Munemitsu Mutsu assumed the foreign portfolio and immediately reopened negotiations with Britain. A new difficulty was added in 1893 when the House of Representatives submitted a petition to the Throne urging the abolition of consular jurisdiction, restoration of tariff autonomy and prohibition of coastal trade. To make the situation worse still, the people agitated against foreigners being allowed unrestricted right of residence and against foreign ownership of property in Japan. The Government, however, dissolved the Diet and concluded a new treaty with Great Britain on July 16,1894, at London, signed by Lord Kimberley and Viscount Aoki, thereby finally settling the long pending question. Similar treaties were concluded with Austria, France, Germany, Italy, Russia and the United States in 1897.

The Sino-Japanese War The war with China, which arose from a complicated dispute over the independence of Korea, resulted in enhancing the prestige of Japan in the eyes of the entire world. The question whether or not Korea was an independent nation was a long standing one and an open clash of interests between Japan and China led to the inevitable war.

In 1880 Japan opened a legation in Seoul, but peaceful relations between Japan and Korea were often disturbed as the result of intrigues, if not active interference, by the Chinese. In 1882, a Korean mob attacked and burned the Japanese Legation, and the legation officials had to flee to a British gunboat then lying at anchor off Chemulpo. This incident, though settled by Count Inouyé, then Foreign Minister, who visited Seoul and suceeded in inducing the Korean Government to offer an official apology and pay an indemnity, pointed to the inevitability of war between Japan and China.

Another incident, though not directly connected with the affair just referred to, proved a more direct cause of the Sino-Japanese War. This incident took place on December 4, 1884, when, during the celebration of the opening of the Postal Bureau of Korea at Seoul, at which were present all the foreign diplomats and high officials of the Korean Government, the leader of the

reactionaries was murdered and the progressives sought the assistance of Japanese troops in carrying out an anti-reactionary coup d'état. However, the Chinese troops in Seoul, who outnumbered the Japanese by twenty to one, sided with the reactionaries and the Japanese troops were forced to retreat to the Japanese Legation, which was then attacked and burned by the Chinese. In settlement of the dispute arising from this incident what is known as the Treaty of Tientsin was signed on April 18, 1885, between Count (later Prince) Hirobumi Ito and Viceroy Li Hung-chang, under the provisions of which China and Japan agreed not to send troops to Korea without previously notifying each other.

Actual warfare between China and Japan started when a party called the "Tong-haks" rebelled against the corrupt officialdom of Korea. Seeing the régime which she favoured seriously menaced by this uprising, China despatched troops to Korea and Japan also sent an expedition in accordance with the Treaty of Tientsin. After minor clashes both on land and sea, Japan and China declared war on August 1, 1894, after which the Japanese carried out a short and entirely successful campaign. The result of the Sino-Japanese War was the Treaty of Shimonoseki, concluded on April 14, 1895, by which China recognized the full and complete independence of Korea and ceded the Liaotung Peninsula and the adjacent waters, as well as Formosa and the Pescadores, to Japan. In addition, China promised to pay an indemnity of 200,000,000 taels to Japan and open up Shashi, Chungking, Soochow and Hangchow to trade and the Yangtse-kiang river to navigation. The acquisition of the Liaotung Peninsula by Japan, however, was objected to by Russia, with the apparent support of Germany and France, and Japan had to return the territory to China, receiving, as compensation, a sum of 30,000,000 taels.

The Boxer Uprising The rendition of the Liaotung Peninsula by Japan was followed by the acquisition of territorial interests in China by various Powers. First of all, Russia obtained the right to extend the Siberian Railway through Manchuria as far as Dairen. Then Germany was granted a 99 years' lease of Kiaochow, while Russia forced China to grant her a lease of the Liaotung Peninsula for a period of 25 years. Great Britain and France subsequently obtained similar leases of Weihaiwei and Kuangchow Bay respectively.

This foreign penetration infuriated a group of Chinese patriots calling themselves Boxers who rose in arms in South Chihli in May, 1900 and besieged Peking, where the foreign envoys and their families faced imminent massacre. The legations were relieved by an allied force furnished by Japan, Russia, Great Britain, the United States, France and Germany. In this expedition, the Japanese played the most important part, sending some 10,000 troops and 54 field guns.

The Anglo-Japanese Alliance Sharing common interests in the Far East, Japan and Great Britain concluded a treaty of alliance on January 30, 1902, in order to maintain the status quo and general peace in the Far East, simultaneously making it clear that the two countries were specially interested in maintaining the independence and territorial integrity of China and Korea. Against this, France and Russia took the precautionary measure of making the Franco-Russian Alliance applicable to the Far East.

The Russo-Japanese War After her penetration into Manchuria, Russia was forced to agree on April 2, 1902, to withdraw her troops from that region, largely through the intervention of Japan, Great Britain and the United States. According to this agreement, Russia was to complete her evacuation of Manchuria within 18 months. Shortly afterwards, however, she made new demands on China, in exchange for her agreement to withdraw troops, apparently with a view to securing a position of political and economic predominance in Manchuria. This was followed by the sending of Russian soldiers in the guise of civilians to Korea.

Thus menaced, Japan made proposals to Russia for the conclusion of an agreement aimed at guaranteeing Korean independence and reciprocal recognition of Japan's preponderant interests in Korea and Russia's special interests in Manchuria. These proposals were virtually rejected by Russia, with the result that Japan declared war on February 10, 1904. This conflict ended in the victory of Japan and a treaty was signed at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, U.S.A., between the two countries through the good offices of President Roosevelt, on September 5, 1905.

By this treaty Russia recognized the preponderant interest, political, military and economic, of Japan in Korea, and the two signatories agreed to evacuate Manchuria simultaneously. Russia also turned over its lease of Port Arthur and Dalny (Dairen) and their adjacent lands and waters to Japan, while provision

was made for joint Russo-Japanese operation of the Manchurian railway. The treaty also stipulated the cession to Japan of the southern part of Saghalien Island as far north as the 50th degree of north latitude, together with the adjacent islands.

After the Russo-Japanese War Japan concluded a convention with China, on December 2, 1905, known as the Treaty of Peking, embodying the relevant terms of the Treaty of Portsmouth. This was followed by the signing of the Franco-Japanese Convention, on June 10, 1907, the exchange of what are known as the Takahira-Root notes on November 30, 1908, and the conclusion of the Russo-Japanese agreement, on July 30, 1907, all these pacts being designed to preserve peace in the Far East.

Annexation of Korea As a result of the Russo-Japanese War, Korea was made a virtual protectorate of Japan, but to make Japan's protection over Korea complete, Prince Hirobumi Ito, as Japanese ambassador, concluded a convention with the Korean Government on November 17, 1905, providing for the transfer of the control of Korean foreign relations to Japan and establishment of a Japanese Residency-General in Seoul.

Later developments in Korea, however, led to the abdication of the Korean King on July 17, 1907, and a week later a new agreement was signed according Japan practical control of the administration of the country. The formal Treaty of Annexation of Korea to Japan was signed on August 22, 1910.

The Taisho (1911–1926) and Showa Era (1926–)

The World War Less than two months after the outbreak of the European War, Japan participated on the side of the Allies, sending an ultimatum to Germany on August 16, 1914, followed by declarations of war on Germany and Austria on August 23 respectively. Refusing to send troops to Europe, her activities were confined to her attack on the German fort at Tsingtao and rendering naval assistance for the protection of allied shipping in the southern Pacific and other waters.

At Tsingtao, the Japanese military and naval forces occupied the German base on November 7, 1914, after operations lasting only a week. In the meantime, the Japanese Navy occupied between October 3 and 19 all islands in the southern Pacific north of the equator with the exception of the island of Yap, which a British squadron had taken before the arrival of the Japanese. From the beginning Japan insisted on occupying these islands permanently, and, in March, 1917, a secret agreement between Japan and Great Britain provided for the permanent occupation of these islands by Japan in return for her despatch of destroyers to the Mediterranean Sea. At the Peace Conference, however, her claim to permanent sovereignty was rejected and she was given only a mandate over the islands.

The Washington Disarmament Conference Japan first participated in international efforts to limit armaments in 1921 at the Washington Conference which opened on November 11. After strongly insisting on a 7–10–10 ratio against the navies of Great Britain and the United States, she accepted a 3–5–5 ratio with regard to capital ships.

At this conference, Secretary Hughes of the United States proposed with regard to capital ships that the United States, Great Britain and Japan scrap respectively 30 ships totaling 845,740 tons, 23 ships totaling 583,375 tons and 17 ships totaling 448,928 tons, including those in course of building, and that the three countries be allowed to retain 506,050 tons in 18 ships, 604,450 tons in 22 ships and 299,700 tons in 10 ships, respectively. After negotiations on the basis of the Hughes proposal, an agreement was reached, with some changes made in the ships to be scrapped. By this agreement Japan was allowed to retain the "Mutsu" instead of the "Settsu" and the United States the "Washington" and the "Colorado" instead of the "North Dakota" and the "Delaware," while Great Britain agreed to scrap four King George V class ships, building two new ships of not more than 35,000 tons each instead. Consequently, the capital ship tonnage which the three Powers were allowed to retain was 525,000 tons in 18 ships for the United States, 581,200 tons in 20 ships for Great Britain and 313,000 tons in 10 ships for Japan.

As regards the replacement of obsolete ships, it was agreed that capital ships might be replaced after 20 years in service, providing that the new ships do not exceed 35,000 tons each in displacement. On completion of the replacement stipulated above, the United states and Great Britain were to have 15 capital ships totaling 525,000 tons each against 9 ships aggregating 315,000 tons for Japan, while France and Italy accepted a total capital ship tonnage of 175,000 tons each.

With regard to auxiliary ships, no agreement was reached on the total

tonnage for each country, France claiming 350,000 tons in auxiliary ships and 90,000 tons in submarines, to which Great Britain and the United States were vigorously opposed. The proposal made by Britain favouring the total abolition of submarines added to the difficulties of making a total tonnage agreement regarding auxiliary ships. It was finally decided that an auxiliary ship must not exceed 10,000 tons in displacement and must not carry guns of more than 8 inches in calibre.

As to fortifications and naval bases in the Pacific, it was agreed that the status quo should be maintained.

In addition to the general disarmament treaty the five Powers also concluded an agreement limiting the use of submarines and poison-gas in warfare.

At this conference, Japan was represented by Admiral Baron Tomosaburo Kato, then Minister of Marine, and the treaty was to remain in force until December 31, 1936.

Tri-partite Conference This conference opened on June 20, 1927, and was participated in by Japan, Great Britain and the United States, with a view to settling certain questions left over from the Washington Conference. Japan was represented by Admiral Viscount Makoto Saito, then Governor-General of Chosen. At the outset the three countries presented their respective proposals, when it became evident that there was an almost unsurmountable difference between the claims of Great Britain and the United States.

The Japanese delegate did his best to reconcile the British and American theses, while making it clear that Japan was in no position to accept the 3-5-5 ratio in regard to auxilary ships. In this latter connection, Japan succeeded in reaching a compromise with Great Britain but failed to induce the United States to agree to it. Thus all efforts ended in failure and the three Powers concerned closed the conference after publishing a joint declaration.

The London Conference At the naval disarmament conference called in London on January 21, 1930, in which the United States, Great Britain, Japan, France and Italy participated, the Japanese delegation, headed by Mr. (later Baron) Reijiro Wakatsuki, upheld what they called "the three great principles" of Japan. These were (1) a total tonnage of 8-inch gun cruisers for Japan equal to 70 per cent of that possessed by the United States, (2) no abolition or material reduction of submarines and maintenance of the then existing submarine strength of Japan, i. e. 78,500 tons, and (3) a ratio of 7-10 against the United States in the global tonnage of auxiliary vessels on the basis of the two foregoing conditions.

The conference was fraught with numerous difficulties. In the first place, opinion was divided as to whether global tonnage or different categories of vessels should be taken as the basis for proposed reduction, but this difficulty was overcome by a compromise allowing these two bases of reduction to be discussed simultaneously. By far the greatest difficulty was the difference between the Japanese and American theses, Japan claiming the ratio of 7-10 and the United States insisting on that 5-3. To make the situation still worse, France claimed a global tonnage of 721,400 tons. The American-Japanese entanglement, however, was in a large measure smoothed out through informal conversations between Mr. Tsuneo Matsudaira, Japanese Ambassador in London, and Mr. David A. Reed, of the American delegation.

To summarize the Japanese-American compromise, Japan was accorded a global tonnage of auxiliary vessels equal to 70 per cent of that held by the United States, and in regard to submarines, Japan reduced her claim of 78,500 tons to 52,700 tons on the condition that parity was to be maintained between Japan and the United States in this respect. As for the ratio of 10,000-ton cruisers, Japan was allowed to retain a number of such ships equal to 70 per cent of those possessed by the United States until 1936, while the United States was allowed to lay down the keels of three more ships of this category on condition that they should not be completed during the stated period.

Besides extending the naval holiday for a period of another six years, the London Naval Treaty, which was signed on April 22, 1930, affects Japan in the following respects :

(1) Japan was required to remove from active service the capital ship "Hiyéi", although she was allowed to retain it for training purposes.

(2) Japan was allowed to replace the minelayers "Aso" and "Tokiwa", provided that the two new ships should not exceed 5,000 tons in displacement.

(3) Japan was required to dispose of the "Asama", "Yakumo", "Izumo", "Iwaté" and "Kasuga" when the first three vessels of the Kuma class were replaced by new ships.

London Conference in 1935 Japan was represented by Admiral Osami Nagano and Matsuzo Nagai, former Japanese

Ambassador to Berlin, at the naval disarmament conference convened at London in 1935, in accordance with the London Naval Treaty of 1930, Part V (2). Admiral Nagano advocated the establishment of a common upper limit of naval armaments to be fixed as low as possible and reduction of offensive armaments to assure the principle of "non-menace and non-aggression." But Japan's proposal failed to obtain support from other nations, and so following the final presentation of Japan's formula and the other delegations' rejection of it, the Japanese delegation informed Viscount Monsell, on January 15, 1936, that it could no longer usefully continue participation in the conference and withdraw from it.

In the meantime, the Japanese Government notified the U. S. A. Government their intention to terminate the Washington Naval Treaty, on December 29, 1935, and all the agreements, except Part IV of the London Naval Treaty, between Japan, Great Britain, U. S. A. and other two nations on the limitation of naval armaments lost force on December 31, 1936.

Present Naval Questions Following Japan's withdrawal from the London Naval Conference of 1936 because of her inability to agree to qualitative rather than quantitative disarmament, the so-called "Naval Treaty of 1936" was concluded among Great Britain, the United States, France and Italy. The Japanese Government was invited by the British Government to become an adherent to the Treaty, but on June 28, 1937, it notified the British Government that it was unable to do so.

Prior to the Japanese notice and anticipating Japan's refusal to participate in the new treaty, the British Government notified the Governments of Japan and the United States that Britain would maintain a surplus of 40,000 tons in destroyers and transfer 4 ships from the category of "A" class cruisers to that of "B" class cruisers. In reply, the United States announced its intention to apply the escalator clause. To meet the increased tonnages of Britain and America, the Japanese Government decided to maintain a surplus tonnage in destroyers and submarines and notified the British Governments to that effect on August 31. The Japanese notice contained the following three major points :

1. The Imperial Japanese Government acknowledges receipt of the British notice that Britain will maintain a surplus of 40,000 tons in destroyers.

2. The Japanese Government wishes to give notice that Japan will maintain a surplus of a total of 26,657 tons including 11,059 tons in destroyers and 15,598 tons in submarines.

3. The Japanese Government requires the maintenence of a surplus tonnage in submarines in consideration of the fact that the surplus tonnage in destroyers is comparatively small.

On September 3, the Japanese Government notified the Government of the United States to the following effect :

"In view of the fact that the British Government has notified of its intention to maintain a surplus of 40,000 tons in destroyers through the invocation of Article 21 of the London Naval Treaty, the Japanese Government also intends to maintain a surplus tonnage in destroyers and submarines through the exercise of its treaty rights.

"According to the fixed ratio, the Japanese Government is entitled to the maintenance of a surplus of 28,000 tons in destroyers. As the surplus tonnage in destroyers does not reach these figures, the Japanese Government desires to effect a transfer of tonnage by maintaining a surplus of 15,598 tons in submarines in addition to the surplus of 11,059 tons in destroyers."

Limitation of Use of Submarines A procès-verbal was signed on November 6, concerning the continuance of the provisions in Chapter 4 of the London Naval Treaty which limit the use of submarines. The Japanese Government also participated in the procès-verbal. Other participants include Great Britain, the United States, France and Italy.

Limitation of Gun Calibre. Following Japan's refusal to participate in the London Naval Treaty of 1936, the British Government tried to persuade the Japanese Government to accept the provisions limiting the calibre of guns mounted on capital ships to 14 inches, at the least. The Japanese Government, however, declined to agree to such limitation. On March 27, 1937, Foreign Minister Naotake Sato handed a note to Sir Robert Clive, the British Ambassador in Tokyo, which read in substance as follows :

"As clarified at the London Naval Conference, the Japanese Government is not in a position to agree to a qualitative limitation of naval armaments which is not accompanied by a quantitative limitation. As no need is recognized for a change in the principle which it set forth at the London Naval Conference, the Japanese Government cannot accept the proposal to limit the gun calibre without limiting the quantity of naval armaments."

The League Disarmament Conference Late in 1932, when the general disarmament conference was called at Geneva after years of preparation by the disarmament commission of the League of Nations, Japan also submitted a plan of her own with regard to naval limitation and reduction. This proposal, which was published on December 11, 1932, made it known that Japan was desirous of making it the guiding principle of the conference that offensive power should be reduced and that the geographical and other special circumstances of each country should be fully taken into consideration in making any settlement.

As regards the formula of the projected agreement, Japan proposed to divide it into general and special agreements. In the general agreement, it was proposed to arrange for the qualitative reduction of all vessels, and also the quantitative reduction of "offensive" vessels, belonging to Japan, Great Britain, the United States, France and Italy.

With regard to the special agreement, all the countries of the world should be divided into four groups, under (1) the Pacific group, (2) the Atlantic group, (3) the European group and (4) the South America group; and each group should arrange for limitation and reduction of the armament of each of its members. Any country interested in more than one group should participate in the disarmament discussions of all groups in which it is interested.

Relations with League of Nations

Japan's connection with the League of Nations began with the inception of the international organization in April, 1919, when the Covenant was officially adopted at Paris, and came to a virtual end on March 27, 1933, when Japan gave notice of her withdrawal from membership on grounds of dissatisfaction with the dealings of the Geneva body with the Sino-Japanese dispute, particularly with the report adopted by the League Assembly on February 24 and the recommendations for the settlement of the problem as contained therein. The withdrawal became completely effective on March 26, 1935, in accordance with the provisions of the League Covenant.

Contribution to League's Work During the period of her participation in the activities of the League Japan made a material contribution to its work. In the Secretariat of the League, too, Japanese co-operation was by no means negligible, Dr. Inazo Nitobé and Dr. Yotaro Sugimura having served as Assistant Secretary-General in succession until early March, 1933, shortly before Japan's virtual withdrawal. What follows is a cursory review of Japan's relations with the League.

From the inauguration of the League until 1933, Japan served as one of the five permanent members of the Council. Moreover, she contributed a considerable sum to the revenue of the body, her annual subscriptions between 1926-1932 having amounted to 16.5 per cent of the total expenditure.

The problem of general disarmament was taken up by the disarmament preparatory commission of the League in 1925. After meeting in session several times the commission submitted its draft formula for general disarmament to the Council in January, 1931 and the General Disarmament Conference was convened to meet at Geneva to discuss limitation of the military, naval and aerial armaments of all countries late in 1932, when Japan's delegates submitted their proposal regarding naval disarmament as outlined elsewhere.

Relations with the Permanent Court As regards the Permanent Court of International Justice at the Hague, Japan has rendered due assistance to the League of Nations' efforts for arbitration at this court by sending jurists to sit on its benches, but she has not yet participated in the general provisions for peaceable disposal of international disputes, which were adopted at the Assembly in 1928. Nor has she decided yet on the adherence to the "optional clause" of the Hague court, which has been signed or accepted by Great Britain, France, Italy and about forty other countries, thereby expressing their willingness to accept compulsory arbitration in international disputes.

Relations with the International Labour Office Among the various conventions drafted by the International Labour Office of the League of Nations, Japan has ratified the following on the dates given in parenthesis:

(1) Convention concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases (November 2, 1922).

(2) Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment (June 3, 1926).

(3) Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea (June 4, 1924).

(4) Convention for establishing facilities for finding employment for seamen (November 2, 1922).

(5) Convention concerning the age for

admission of children to employment in agriculture (December 9, 1923).

(6) Convention concerning the compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea (June 7, 1924).

(7) Convention concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases (October 8, 1928). Note : this convention does not apply to such overseas dependencies of Japan as Chosen, Taiwan, Karafuto, the Kwantung Leased Territory and the mandated islands in the Southern Pacific.

(8) Convention concerning equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents (October 8, 1928). Note : this convention also does not apply to the overseas dependencies of Japan mentioned above.

(9) Convention concerning the simplification of the inspection of emigrants on board ship (October 8, 1928.) Note : this also does not apply to the above mentioned territories.

The League commission on international communication and transit has drafted several conventions, of which Japan ratified the one concerning freedom of communication in 1922, and two others concerning seaports and railway systems in 1926.

World Economic Conference

This conference was preceded by informal inter-governmental pourparlers held in Washington in May, 1933, through the good offices of President Roosevelt of the United States, with the object of coming to some general understandings in preparation for the more formal negotiations. At these pourparlers Japan was represented by Viscount Kikujiro Ishii, veteran diplomat and privy councillor, who headed the Japanese delegation to the London Conference.

The London Conference opened on June 12.

During the following sessions of the conference, however, a series of unforeseen difficulties arose and finally the exchange problem proved an unsurmountable stumbling block, wrecking the parley officially on July 27, when the plenary session was declared adjourned indefinitely.

Relations with Great Britain

Abrogation of 1905 Convention The trade relations between Japan and India received a serious setback in 1933 when notice was served Japan in April through the British Government of the abrogation on October 10, 1933, of the Indo-Japanese Trade Convention of 1905.

This step was followed by an increase of the import duty of the Indian Government on Japanese cotton fabrics from 50 per cent to 75 per cent ad valorem on June 6, 1933. The duty on British cotton fabrics remained at 25 per cent This drastic action on the part of the Indian Government caused the Japanese cotton spinners to boycott Indian cotton, and the situation was such that the British Government suggested the opening of negotiations between the industrial and trade interests of Japan, India and Great Britain in the hope of finding a solution.

Simla Conference Opinion was divided among industrialists in Japan with regard to acceptance of the British proposal, but it was finally decided to send representatives both to London and Simla to confer with representatives of the British and Indian interests. For the Simla conference, which was scheduled to be held on September 22, with the British and Indian delegates present, Mr. Setsuzo Sawada, former chief of the Japanese Bureau of the League of Nations, Mr. Susumu Terao, chief of the Trade Bureau of the Commerce and Industry Ministry, and Mr. Tetsuichiro Miyaké, Consul-General at Calcutta, were appointed to represent the Japanese Government, although they were not given full powers because the British Government had made it known that any agreement to be reached at Simla was subject to the approval of the British Government, while no official assurance was obtainable as to whether such an agreement would be adopted by the British Government without modification.

The Agreement Negotiations were not easy due to conflicts of interests of the two countries and more than 3 months was spent before it came to the final agreement of January 5, 1934, at New Delhi. Agreement was reached on various important problems relative to the commerce between Japan and India, including : (1) most-favoured-nation treatment ; (2) a provision to open negotiations with a view to modifying customs tariff ; (3) measures to be taken to adjust the effects of the exchange fluctuations ; (4) customs duties applicable to Japanese cotton piece-goods imported into India ; (5) a quota to be applied to the same ; and (6) enforcement of the agreement entered into. The gist of the agreement follows :[1]

1 For particulars of the agreement see "Commercial Treaty between Japan and India" (Appendix).

(1) Customs duties to be imposed on Japanese cotton piecegoods should not exceed following rates.

Duty on plain greys	50 per cent, ad valorem or 5.25 annas per pound
Duty on others	50 per cent. ad valorem

It is understood that the Government of India shall not impose on Japanese cotton piece-goods other than plain greys a specific duty exceeding 5.25 annas per pound subject to agreement concerning most-favoured-nation treatment.

(2) Basic quota of Japanese cotton piece-goods to be exported to India in a piece-goods year shall be 325,000,000 yards, and it shall be linked with 1,-000,000 bales of India raw cotton exported to Japan in corresponding cotton year.

(3) Treaty shall come into force immediately after exchange of ratifications and shall remain in force until March 31, 1937.

Specific Duties. The conference however could not come to happy ending because of specific duties imposed by the Government of India on December 23, 1933, which were applicable to large part of Japanese miscellaneous goods exported to India. The increase in duties were so heavy as to deal a serious blow to the export of miscellaneous goods from Japan, notably hosiery, earthenwares and potteries, enamelled ironwares and pencils. The new duties were prohibitive, although Sir Joseph Bhore told Mr. Sawada that the new tariffs were meant to protect domestic industry and in no way unreasonable.

On January 22, Mr. Sawada met Sir Joseph Bhore, member of the Executive Council, Railways and Commerce, to call attention of the Indian Government concerning the new duties imposed upon the Japanese miscellaneous goods presenting Japanese views in a written form. On January 26 in answer to the inquiry of Sawada on the intention of the Government of India to increase duties on Japanese rayon goods, Bhore admitted the fact, and it caused another apprehension among the Japanese manufacturers and traders concerned.

The Indo-Japanese Trade Agreement was signed in London on July 12, 1934.

Revision of the Convention According to the proposal of the Japanese Government, which presented on April 24, 1936, for revision of the Japanese-Indian convention, negotations were opened between Mr. Yonezawa, the Japanese Consul-General at Simla and the Commercial Secretary of the Government of India on July 20. After the commencement of the negotiations the British Government notified the Japanese Government on October 21 of its intention to abrogate the Japanese-Indian convention of July 12, 1934. Consequently the Japanese-Indian negotiations were continued at Delhi and resulted in an agreement.

In regard to the Japanese-Indian agreement which was signed provisionally on April 12 the Japanese Government issued a statement reading as follows :

Anglo-Japanese Trade Issue (See the Japan Year Book, 1935, pp. 195, 196.)

With reference to an adjustment of the relations between Japan and Great Britain, Mr. Shigeru Yoshida, the Japanese Ambassador at London, started his activities in May, 1936, utilizing every occasion available for taking up the question with the British Authorities. As trade relations between the two nations are considered the principal factor responsible for the aggravation of the Anglo-Japanese relations, an Anglo-Japanese trade commission was created to try and adjust any trade differences. The commission held its first meeting on November 4, when, attended by 20 British and Japanese members, an exchange of views took place.

On April 11, 1937, the Keelung affair involving the trouble caused between some sailors belonging to the British Far Eastern Squadron and the police authorities in Keelung, which had been pending since October, 1936, was settled and the seemingly strained situation was greatly eased. To add to the influence brightening the prospects of Anglo-Japanese relations, the coronation of King George VI was held in London in May with Prince Chichibu attending on behalf of the Emperor of Japan, thereby renewing the friendship between the British Royal Family and the Japanese Imperial Family.

The feeling between Japan and Britain has thus been greatly improved and the negotiations between Ambassador Yoshida and the British authorities have been making fairly good progress. Indications at the time of writing are that the Anglo-Japanese negotiations will soon enter upon the main stage.

Japano-Canadian Trade Relations

Japan applied the Commerce Adjustment and safeguarding Law against the Canadian goods in July, 1935 in answer to the latter's placing prohibitive high tariff walls against the Japanese goods. Circumstances surrounding the matter were treated in the Japan Year Book of 1935, pp. 443–445. Even then there

was an indication that a new agreement would be arranged between the two countries. In the meantime negotiations were made between Minister Kato and Premier King and a new agreement was made on December 26, 1935, which has been in operation since January 1, 1936. The substance of the agreement is as follows :

The Canadian Government, in accordance with the general policy respecting trade and tariff matters, decided to make the following modifications in its customs regulation :

1. The classification " goods of a class or kind made or produced in Canada," as it appears in the Customs Tariff, will be restricted to goods which are of a class or kind made or produced in commercial quantities sufficient to supply at least ten per cent of the normal Canadian consumption.

Adequate notice will be given of the transfer for customs purposes of a product from the category " not of a class or kind made or produced in Canada " to the category " of a class or kind made or produced in Canada."

2. In computing the value for duty of goods of a class or kind not made or produced in Canada, the value of the Yen will be the current exchange value in tems of the Canadian dollar at the time the goods were exported to Canada.

3. In computing the value for ordinary duty and for special duty under Section 6 of the Customs Tariff of goods of a class or kind made or produced in Canada the value of the Yen during the twelve months beginning January 1, 1936, will be at the rate of 39.5 cents ; being the average exchange value of the Yen in terms of the Canadian dollar, for the five-year period 1930–34, besed on the exchange rates published in the Statistical Year Book of the League of Nations.

For the succeeding twelve-month period the Yen will be taken at the average exchange value for the five-year period 1931–35, computed on the same basis, and similarly for each succeeding year. It is understood, of course, that if the Yen should reach a value in Canadian currency higher than the value set forth or provided for above, such value would thereupon cease to apply and would be replaced by the current exchange value.

4. The values established under authority of Section 43 of the Customs Act will be cancelled on January 1, 1936, on an extensive list of commodities.

5. Opportunity will be afforded for appeal to the Tariff Board of Canada respecting any value for duty which may in future be established under Section 43 of the Customs Act. In the event of such an appeal the value for duty in force will, upon the expiration of three months after the date of appeal, cease to have any force or effect unless the Tariff Board, following a public inquiry, finds that such value or some lower value is required to prevent the importation of the goods into Canada from prejudicially or injuriously affecting the interests of Canadian producers or manufactures. If a lower value is found by the Tariff Board to be appropriate such lower value will promptly become effective.

The Canadian Government has decided to cancel on January 1, 1936, the surtax of 33 1/3 per cent ad valorem levied on goods the produce or manufacture of Japan under the regulations made by Order in Council P.C. 2108 of July 22, 1935, as modified by Order in Council P. C. 2317 of August 3, 1935.

The Japanese Government decided to cancel, on January 1, 1936, the surtax of 50 per cent ad valorem levied on certain goods the produce or manufacture of Canada under the provisions of the Imperial Ordinance No. 208, 1935 and the proclamation No. 162 of the Department of Finance of Japan of July 20, 1935.

Trade Relations Between Japan and Australia

Japan was again compelled to apply the Commerce Adjustment and Safeguarding Law or Trade Protection Law (given in full at the end of Chapter XI) against Australia on June 25, 1936, under the circumstances explained in the declaration of the Japanese Government, full text of which was given in the Japan Year Book, 1936, pp.198–200. But the negotiations since succeeded in bringing about a provisional agreement between the two countries on December 26, 1936, and the Government of the Commonwealth of Australia decided to take the following actions as on and from the January 1, 1937, in relation to trade between Australia and Japan :—

1. The Commonwealth Government will repeal the Statutory Rule No.. 92 of 1936 notified in the Commonwealth Gazette on July 8, 1936.

2. The Commonwealth Government will reduce the existing intermediate tariff rates on cotton piece-goods and artificial silk piece-goods admissible under the following items of the Australian Customs Tariff 1933–1936 :—

Cotton piece goods
Tariff item 105 (A) (1) (a)
105 (A) (1) (c)
105 (A) (1) (d)
105 (B)
105 (C)
120 (D) (1)
130 (B) (1)
Artificial silk piece goods
Tariff item 105 (D) (1) (b)
To the following rates, viz.:—
Cotton piece goods
Unbleached 1½ d per square yard
Bleached, 1½d per square yard
Printed dyed or coloured 2 d per square yard
Artificial silk piece goods
4 d per square yard

3. The Commonwealth Government, in addition to according Japan the benefits of Australian intermediate tariff on cotton piece-goods and artificial silk piece-goods admissible under the aforesaid items of the Australian Customs Tariff, will accord to Japan the benefits of Australian intermediate tariff on cotton piece-goods and artificial silk piece-goods admissible under the items 105 (A) (1) (e), 105 (A) (3) and 105 (A) (4).

4. The Commonwealth Government will exempt from primage duty Japanese cotton piece-goods and artificial silk piece-goods admissible in accordance with the decisions set out in paragraphs (2) and (3).

5. During the period January 1, 1937 to June 30, 1938, the Commonwealth Government will permit importation into Australia of 76,875,000 square yards of Japanese cotton piece-goods (other than calico for bag-making admissible under the tariff item 105 (A) (2) and 76,875,000 square yards of Japanese artificial silk piece-goods at the rate of 51,250,000 square yards for each of the two classes of piece-goods per annum.

Any cotton piece-goods or any artificial piece-goods exported from Japan within the quota allotment during the period ending June 30, 1938, but not arriving in Australia until after that date, will be admitted into Australia provided they are imported into Australia not later than September 30, 1938.

In answer to the above the Japanese Government decided to take the following actions as on and from the January 1, 1937, in relation to trade between Japan and Australia :—

1. The Japanese Government will cancel the surtax of 50% ad valorem and abolish the licensing system provided in the Imperial Ordinance No. 124, 1936.

2. The Japanese Government will permit importation into Japan from Australia during the period ending June 30, 1938, of not less than 800,000 bales of Australian sheep's wool. Any sheep's wool exported from Australia for which import permission has been accorded during the period ending June 30, 1938, but which does not arrive in Japan until after that date, will be admitted into Japan, provided such wool is imported into Japan not later than September 30, 1938.

Japan-Dutch Conference

On the heels of the Indo-Japanese trade conference, Japan decided to negotiate on trade with Holland. In the talks at The Hague in December, 1933, between the Dutch Premier and Japanese diplomatic representatives, it was decided that Japanese and Dutch delegations negotiate in Java on the trade relations of Japan and the Dutch East Indies and that the outcome of their discussions be further debated at The Hague by representatives of both governments.

Dutch East Indies constitute one of Japan's most important markets, and since 1932 they had been taking more from this country than from Holland itself, a situation that naturally led the Dutch industrialists to campaign for restrictions against Japanese commodities.

With the purpose, on the part of the Dutch East Indies, to adjust the one sided trade relation with Japan for it bought ¥157,487,000 and sold ¥55,709,000 in 1933, the Japan-Dutch trade conference was opened at Batavia on June 8, 1934.

General committee meetings were opened on June 26 and adjourned indefinitely without any result on December 21, 1934.

Shipping Conference For some time since 1931 there had been a very severe competition in freight business between the Java, China and Japan Line and the Japanese shipping companies. In order to improve the situation freight conference had been arranged towards the close of 1932 between the abovementioned Dutch Line and the Japanese shipping interests. In 1934 parties interested in the quota system of cargoes held a conference at Kobé. After the Japan-Dutch Conference, a new Conference was held at Kobé in February, 1935. But before going to discuss any question of practical importance the conference came to a deadlock as soon as the question of language to be used came up, and, on February 22, the Conference was adjourned.

Since the rupture of the Kobé Confer-

ence the Dutch Government barred imports of the Japanese goods through the issuance of ordinances restricting imports and business, and through a restriction placed on handling of imported goods by the Japanese companies, which resulted in a marked decrease of imports of Japanese goods, the former ratio of trade between Japan and the Dutch East Indies which was 3 to 1 having been changed to 2 to 1.

The freight conference on Japan-Java-Line expired in June, 1935 and the freight competition became very severe. Japan then established the Nanyo Kaiun Kaisha, Ltd., with the Ishihara Sangyo, the Nanyo Yusen, and the Osaka Shosen as its investing companies. The result, however, was adverse to Japanese shipping companies. The ratio of placing of steamers which was 7 to 8 in Japan's favour has become 3 to 2.

In November of 1935 a shipping conference was held at Kobé, but both sides stuck to their own views and the conference brought about no satisfactory result. Later the matter was taken up again by the Japanese Consul-General Mr. Ishikawa at Batavia with the officials of the Dutch Government, and on June, 1936 an agreement was made between the two countries. According to this new agreement, the Japanese steamers have been enabled to load 64.28 per cent of the outgoing cargoes and 60 per cent of incoming cargoes.

The Japanese-Dutch negotiations entered their main stage in the autumn of 1936 and on April 9, 1937 an agreement of opinion was reached between the Japanese and Dutch representatives. Thus after three years' efforts, the negotiations between the two countries were brought to a successful end. It was decided that the new agreement should be signed formally at The Hague as a supplement to the Japanese-Dutch Treaty of Commerce and Navigation of 1931.

Relations with Soviet Russia

After the Siberian expedition in which Japan participated from 1918 until 1920, diplomatic relations were not restored between the Japanese and Russian Governments until 1924, although Japan had withdraw her troops from Siberia a few years previously.

After her participation in the World War, Japan concluded an agreement with Russia on July 3, 1916 for the purpose of preventing Russia from making peace with Germany independently of the other Allies. At this time there was a rumour that the two countries had concluded an offensive and defensive alliance. Following the establishment of the communist régime in Russia, in 1917, Japan sent the 3rd and the 12th divisions and a part of the 7th division to Siberia between August and October of 1918, in compliance with a proposal from the United States, in order to enable some 50,000 Czechoslovak troops (formerly prisoners of war taken by the Russians from the Austrian armies) to establish contact with the allied armies in the East. This expedition automatically disrupted the diplomatic relations between Japan and Russia, and even after the Czechoslovak troops had re-established liaison with the other allied armies, the Japanese remained in Siberia with fresh troops relieving the first expeditionary forces. The American and other foreign troops were withdrawn early in 1920, but Japan in spite of the demand for withdrawal by the Soviet Government of Irkutsk on March 11, 1920, continued to station her troops in the vicinity of Vladivostok and Habarovsk for the professed purpose of protecting the Japanese residents there. On March 18 and 19, 1920, partisan troops attacked the Japanese consulate, Nikolaevsk, killing all the officials and guards. On March 31, the Japanese Government issued a statement to the effect that Japan had no territorial designs in Siberia, but that the withdrawal of troops was impossible in the circumstances. Japan maintained relations with the Far Eastern Republic, constituted an independent state in February, 1921, until January, 1922, when this region was incorporated in the U. S. S. R.

With a view to restoring diplomatic relations with Soviet Russia, with which she shared interests on the Asiatic mainland, Japan undertook to negotiate with the Russian representatives on several occasions at Changchun and Dairen. Such efforts were resumed in 1923 in Tokyo, where M. Joffe and Mr. Toshihiko Kawakami met in conference officially representing Soviet Russia and Japan through the good offices of Count Shimpei Goto, but no satisfactory results were forthcoming. It was at Peking that the diplomatic relations between the two countries were resumed officially on January 20, 1925, when Mr. Kenkichi Yoshizawa, the Japanese Minister there, succeeded in concluding an agreement with M. Karakhan, the Soviet representative, after seven months' negotiations.

The Fishery Dispute The first fishery convention between the two countries had been concluded in 1907, and after the resumption of Soviet-Japanese re-

lations, efforts were made for its revision and, following the visit to Russia by Count Shimpei Goto in this connection, the revised convention was signed on January 24, 1928, remedying such provisions as had proved disadvantageous to the Japanese and otherwise improving the pact to meet the new situation. However, this revision was later found to be imperfect and disputes arose one after another between the Japanese fishing interests and the Soviet authorities regarding the details of the fishery convention.

Among other issues in this connection the most notable in recent years was that concerning the exchange rate of the rouble. This dispute originated in the inspection of the Vladivostok office of the Bank of Chosen by the local Soviet authorities and the subsequent prohibition of free tansactions in rouble exchange. As a result, the Japanese fishing interests, which had been paying various taxes and rates to the Soviet authorities with Soviet currency obtainable at the Vladivostok office of the Bank of Chosen at depreciated exchange rates, now faced the necessity of exchanging the yen for the rouble at an official rate five or six times higher than the open market value. In order to settle this problem, the Japanese Government demanded that either the rents of the fishing leases or the official exchange value of the rouble be reduced, and this proposal was followed by prolonged negotiations in Moscow and Tokyo.

The negotiations were started in Moscow in October, 1930, but soon afterwards the Soviet Ambassador to Japan, M. Troianovsky, took up the dispute in Tokyo, and communicated the willingness of his Government to reduce the official exchange rate of the rouble by 25 per cent, when selling debentures of the state operated corporation, Aco (in charge of the Russian fishery interests), fixing the rate at 75 sen in Japanese currency. In reply Japan insisted on the rate of 30 sen for the rouble, and negotiations continued until April 26, 1931, when a compromise was reached providing that the payments of the Japanese fishing interests to the Soviet authorities during the year of 1931 should be made with Aco debentures to be purchased at the rate of 32.5 sen for the rouble.

In view of this dispute and other difficulties arising from the differences between the two countries in the interpretation of the provisions of the Fishery Convention, Japan proposed on June 22, 1931, to open a conference with Soviet Russia to reconsider the whole convention. After a delay of five months, Soviet Russia consented to negotiate with Japan and pourparlers were started between Mr. Koki Hirota, the Japanese Ambassador, and M. Karakhan, Assistant Commissar of Foreign Affairs of Soviet Russia, on November 27, 1931. No substantial progress, however, was made during the negotiations, which were carried on with frequent interruptions for several months.

On February 20, 1934, the auction for the current year of the fishery grounds was held at Vladivostok. Bids were submitted by both Japanese and Soviets. The Soviets, however, declared that the Japanese bids were unacceptable, because they were accompanied by a guarantee made out at the rate of 32.5 sen, instead of 75 sen ruled by the Vladivostok fishery authorities, per ruble, and the Soviets' bids, which numbered 60, were accepted as valid. The reason that the Japanese interests insisted upon a 32.5 sen rate of exchange is based upon a provision in the Shidehara-Troianovsky Agreement of April 26, 1931.

On February 25 the Russian authorities proposed a compromise which purported to permit Japanese bidders to enter new offers at 32.5 sen on February 28 for the remaining 66 fishing grounds, provided that the exchange rate question would be held open for future negotiations. This was accepted by the Japanese interests and the grounds were given them at the auction held on May 20.

The question of yen-ruble exchange still remained and negotiations to settle the matter were opened on June 17 at Moscow, from then up to February 21, 1935, the negotiations were held 15 times. As Japan thought it necessary to revise it, the Foreign Office caused Ambassador Tamekichi Ohta, in Moscow, to make a proposal to the Moscow Government in May, 1935, one year prior to the date of maturity, in conformity with Article XV of the treaty, for its revision.

On April 26, 1936 the Japanese Government proposed, at the conference held at the Embassy at Moscow, between the councillor Sako and Mr. B. I. Kozlovsky, second head of the eastern department of the Foreign Commissariat, to revise the 1928 fishery convention and to extend 1932 Hirota-Karakhan agreement for 12 years, which the Soviet declined. As the basic claim of Japan was not heeded the negotiation was impossible to come to a satisfactory close before May 27, which was the final date

set for the revision of the convention. However, a provisional agreement for the extension of the 1928 convention was signed at Moscow on May 25. According to this agreement, the present convention has become valid till December 31, 1936.

Non-Aggression Pact Proposal (See the Japan Year Book, 1935, p. 199.)

Negotiations for Sale of the N. M. R. Through the good offices of the Japanese Government a conference was opened in Tokyo on June 26, 1933, between representatives of Soviet Russia and Manchoukuo regarding the proposed sale of the North Manchuria Railway (formerly the Chinese Eastern Railway). Japan took no active part in the railway negotiations, except that a few Japanese officials attended the sessions as observers.

According to a memorandum stating the fundamental principles for the transfer of the North Manchuria Railway submitted by the Soviet Russia at the third official meeting held on July 4, 1933, the sale price was put at 250,000,000 gold roubles. The price offered by Manchoukuo was ¥50,000,000. The Soviet side based its calculation on the amount of its investment totalling 411,690,000 gold roubles up to 1932 and, taking into consideration the depreciation of economic value of the railway and its condition of damage, it finally estimated the total amount of transfer at 250,000,000 gold roubles. The Manchurian side appraised the value on the basis of the prevailing construction cost. In March, 1934, the Soviet side brought down the price to ¥200,000,000, but the Manchurian side lowered it to ¥100,000,000 in April of that year. Through mutual concession, the price was fixed at ¥170,000,000 on September 21, 1934. During the intervening period Foreign Minister Koki Hirota held interviews with Ambassador Youreneff ten times and Mr. Shigenori Togo, Director of the Europe and Asia Bureau, of the Foreign Office, saw M. Benedict I. Kazlovsky, one of the Soviet delegates, eight times on negotiations. Finally, the negotiations were concluded on January 21, 1935, and on March 23 the signing of the agreement took place at the official residence of the Foreign Minister in Tokyo. (The Agreement is given in full in the Appendix.)

North Saghalien Oil Concession The North Saghalien Oil Concession contract, based on Article VI of the Japanese-Soviet Basic Treaty, concluded in October, 1925, has proved very disadvantageous to Japan as well as the Japanese-Soviet Fishery Treaty. The whole area where oil prospecting is to be undertaken is divided like a checker board. If one bloc of the board is assigned for Japan to prospect, the adjoining bloc is claimed by the Soviet side as its prospecting field. When Japan succeeds in turning out oil by prospecting, paying an enormous amount of expenses, and changes it into an oil mining section, the Soviet side enlists the adjoining bloc into its oil fields, thus profiting without much trouble and expenses. It is also disadvantageously provided for in the treaty that the term of oil prospecting in unexploited fields covering an area of 1,000 versts in Ocha districts is fixed at only 10 years. Moreover, North Saghalien is open to the practicability of actual work for a brief period of only two or three months during summer. The actual period of operation throughout 10 years is therefore only about 20 or 30 months. The term will mature at the end of 1936. The North Saghalien Oil Company has been negotiating with the Soviet Government for extension of the term of prospecting since about seven years ago.

Oil Prospecting Rights Negotiations were opened between the president of the Karafuto Petroleum Company and the authorities of the Soviet People's Commissariat for Heavy Industries in the spring of 1936, which resulted in an understanding to extend the term of the Japanese right to prospect the oil resources in the northern half of Saghalien by five years. Documents containing detailed items of the understanding were signed at Moscow on October 10, 1936, between the president of the Japanese company and the Soviet People's Commissar for Heavy Industries.

Revision of Fishery Agreement Although the German-Japanese agreement is directed against the Comintern, with which the Soviet Government declares itself to have nothing to do, and is aimed at the creation of a common German-Japanese front against Communism, the Soviet Government suspects that the pact is directed against the Soviet Union. Out of this suspicion, the Soviet Government went the length of refusing to sign a new fishery agreement with Japan, which had already been initialled. As a result, the Soviet-Japanese situation was greatly aggravated because it became impossible to enforce a new agreement to replace the Soviet-Japanese Fishery Agreement and the Hirota-Karakhan Agreement, both scheduled to expire at the end of the year. The situation was rectified only by making provisional arrange-

ments for the extension of the terms of the said two agreements by one year.

Official documents embodying the provisional arrangements were signed at Moscow on December 28, 1936, between Mr. Mamoru Shigemitsu, the Japanese Ambassador to the U. S. S. R., and Mr. Stomoniakov, the Soviet Assistant People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs, on December 28.

Oppression of Japanese Residents The number of Japanese residents within the territory of the Soviet Union once reached several thousands but it has decreased to only a very few due to the pressure brought to bear upon Japanese residents by the Soviet authorities. In November, 1936, when the oppression of the Japanese residents was most severe, a staff member of the Shosen-gumi, a Japanese firm in Vladivostok, was arrested and sentenced to death on a charge of espionage. This was followed by the arrest on January 4, 1937, of Mr. Takahashi, mananger of the Shosen-gumi, on a similar charge.

Again on January 19, the Soviet authorities at Vladivostok illegally inspected and detained the Kongo Maru, a freighter of the Chosen Yusen Kaisha in regular service between Osaka and Vladivostok, and the Siberia Maru, a freighter of the North Japan Steamship Company also in regular service betwen Tsuruga and the Soviet port. As these acts of the local Soviet authorities were calculated to interfere with the legitimate business of the Shosen-gumi and as such caused the situation to assume threating aspects, the Japanese Foreign Office lodged a strong protest with the Moscow Government through the Japanese Ambassador there, Mr. Mamoru Shigemitsu.

The Japanese protest, however, could not prevent the Soviet authorities from repeating such illegal acts. On January 21, the director of the Soviet Far Eastern Railway Bureau caused the international train service between Soviet territory and Suifenho, a town on the eastern border of Manchoukuo, to be suspended under the pretext of oppression of Soviet railway workers by the Japanese and Manchoukuo authorities. The Manchoukuo General Direction of State Railways investigated the affair and found that the Soviet pretext was entirely unfounded. The General Direction therefore called the attention of the Soviet authorities to the fact that their action in suspending the traffic on the trunk line of the Asiatic-European route constituted a great obstacle to international transportation business and urged them to reconsider their attitude.

In addition, the Soviet authorities took illegal action in connection with the taking over of mail matters aboard international trains reaching Manchouli on January 14 and 16, thereby causing a great delay in the delivery of matter addressed to Europe. This matter was settled only after the Manchoukuo Foreign Office filed strong protests with the Soviet consular authorities at Manchouli and Harbin.

Frontier Troubles There were as many as 280 cases of border troubles occurring betwen the Soviet Union and Manchoukuo in 1935 and more than 30 cases in 1936. In regard to the matter, Mr. Arita, the Japanese Foreign Minister, and Mr. Youreneff, the Soviet Ambassador to Japan, reached agreement of opinion on April 23, 1936 and according to the agreement, Japan and Manchoukuo presented a joint formula for creating the proposed commissions to deal with the border troubles and define the border line on July 16. The Soviet side, however, refused to accept the formula with the result that the negotiatinos were brought to a standstill.

In the meantime, border troubles continued to occur. During the first six months of 1937, more than 80 cases of such troubles were reported. The troubles culminated on June 30 in the Kanchatze affair which was explained by the Japanese Foreign Office as follows :

"Two Manchoukuo islands, the Kanchatze and Chinamuho, in the Amur River were illegally occupied by Soviet troops which thus attempted to obstruct the navigation of Manchoukuo ships on the river. In view of the strained situation caused by the affair, the Japanese Government instructed its Ambassador at Moscow, Mr. Mamoru Shigemitsu, to urge the Soviet authorities to settle the matter at an early date.

"Acting on the instructions, Ambassador Shigemitsu called the attention of Mr. Stomoniakov, the Soviet Assistant People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs, on the night of June 28 to the fact that the Japanese Government was deeply concerned over the occurence because of its responsibility of cooperating with Manchoukuo in its national defence. The Japanese envoy expressed his hope for an early settlement of the question from the standpoint of Far Eastern peace and urged the Soviet official to see that the illegal action of the Soviet troops in occupying the Manchoukuo islands be rectified. Mr. Stomoniakov promised to submit a report to the Soviet Government on his conversation with the Japanese envoy.

"On the afternoon of January 29,

Ambassador Shigemitsu held an interview with Mr. Litvinov, the Soviet People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs, and in the course of their conversation, the latter agreed to have the two Manchoukuo islands evacuated by Soviet troops and also to have armed Soviets in the neighbourhood withdrawn. At the same time, the Soviet diplomat expressed his hope that the Japanese Government would also take steps to ease the situation.

"As regards the invasion of the area south of the Kanchatze waterway by three Soviet gunboats, which occurred at 3 o'clock on the afternoon of January 30, the actual state of affairs has already been clarified by the statement issued by the Kwantung Army.

"In spite of the agreement reached between Ambassador Shigemitsu and Commissar Litvinov whereby the two Manchoukuo islands would be evacuated, the Soviet soldiers continued occupying the islands. They even went the length of taking provocative action against the Japanese and Manchoukuo garrison troops with the result that the Japanese and Manchoukuoans acted in self-defence, inflicting considerable losses to the Soviet side.

"The Japanese Government regrets deeply that the Soviet side should have failed to live up to its pledge but is still hoping that in order to prevent further untoward events from occurring, the Soviets will evacuate the two Manchoukuo islands as soon as possible."

As the result of the efforts of Ambassador Shigemitsu, the issue was finally settled on July 3 when Commissar Litvinov agreed to effect the evacuation of the Manchoukuo islands immediately and the agreement was carried out.

Relations with the United States

The mutual friendship of Japan and the United States largely hinges upon their respective interests on the Asiatic continent, most notably in Manchuria and China proper. The United States first made it known in 1899 that she had an equal claim in China to that of other Powers by advocating the so-called open door policy. The United States thought it necessary to assert this principle in order to catch up with the other Powers, which had already acquired extensive interest in China, and it followed naturally that the Americans should sympathize with Japan in her desperate attempt in 1904–5 to force Russia out of Manchuria and leave the region open to all nations interested.

The Four-Power Treaty For the same reason the United States objected to Japan's occupation of Shantung during the World War. The result was that Japan formally restored the territory to China on May 17, 1919 and at the Washington Conference, 1921–22, agreed to complete evacuation thereof. The Four-Power Treaty concerning the insular possessions of the signatories in the Pacific and the Nine-Power Treaty regarding the sovereignty and the open door principle of China, which were signed at the Washington Conference, also had a more important bearing upon Japan and the United States than on the other signatories. The Four-Power Treaty provided that the signatories should mutually respect the right of the Powers regarding their respective insular possessions in the Pacific and also that in case a dispute arose regarding such rights with likelihood to prove detrimental to the peaceful relations between the powers concerned, the parties involved in such a dispute should call a joint conference of the other signatories to discuss settlement of the entire issue. So far as Japan is concerned, however, this provision applies only to Karafuto, the Pescadores and her mandated islands in the Southern Pacific. The most important provision in this treaty for Japan is embodied in its fourth article which stipulates that the Anglo-Japanese alliance, which had been concluded at London on July 13, 1911, should terminate simultaneously with the conclusion of this treaty.

The Nine-Power Treaty The Nine-Power Treaty also has an important bearing on Japan in that it consolidated the open door policy in connection with China, where Japan has greater interests than any other foreign country, especially in Manchuria. This treaty was invoked against Japan both by the United States and the League of Nations in connection with the Manchurian incident.

In the first article of this treaty, what are known as Root's four principles were incorporated, providing, first, that the sovereignty and independence as well as the territorial and political integrity of China should be respected, second, that most perfect and unrestricted opportunities should be offered China in order that she might be able to establish and maintain a powerful stable government, third, that efforts sould be made to establish and maintain the principle of equal opportunity for commerce and industry to be undertaken by people of all nationalities

throughout the territory of China, and fourth, that the signatories should refrain from utilizing conditions in China to seek special rights or interests detrimental to the interests of the subjects or citizens of other friendly nations, or from recognizing actions detrimental to the welfare of such friendly nations.

The Immigration Question In view of the agitation in the United States against Japanese labour, the Tokyo Government had taken every precaution not to aggravate this issue and from 1907, when what is known as the "Gentleman's Agreement" was concluded, Japan continued to restrict emigration to the United States by withholding passports from intending emigrants above a limited number.

However, on August 19, 1913 the State of California promulgated the Alien Land Law (the Webb Bill) prohibiting Japanese and other aliens ineligible for citizenship from owning land, in spite of three protests by Baron Sutemi Chinda, Japanese Ambassador in Washington. In 1919, the Japanese Government took the further precaution of stopping the emigration of so-called "picture brides" to the United States, but nevertheless an ever increasing anti-Japanese sentiment continued to prevail in the United States, and on April 19, 1920, the Federal Immigration Bureau revised the regulations governing the entry of the adopted children of Japanese parents. Moreover, the State of California enacted a secoud law of exclusion barring the Japanese and other aliens from leasing land, or owning land in the name of corporations or from operating land owned in the name of their American-born children.

The immigration problem assumed its greatest gravity in 1924, when the United States Congress passed a new federal immigration law, which included a provision absolutely prohibiting immigration of Japanese labourers. While this bill was before the Congress, the Japanese Government instructed its ambassador at Washington, Mr. Masanao Hanihara, to call the attention of the United States Government to the importance attached by the Japanese to the proposed legislation. The steps taken by Mr. Hanihara, however, resulted in provoking the American sentiment owing to a phrase "grave consequences" which he used inadvertently in a communication to the Secretary of State, Mr. Hughes.

When the United States President signed the bill on May 24, 1924, the Japanese Government sent in a strong protest but could not improve the situation in any way. The Japanese people took this action on the part of the United States as a serious insult to their national honour.

A resolution calling for ejection of Japanese farmers for the next 10 days from Arizona farmlands was adopted at a convention of about 200 American tenant farmers near Phoenix, the capital of Arizona State in the United States, on August 15, 1934. A movement of forcing Japanese farmers out of their farmlands was subsequently staged several times. These American farmers approached the Governor of the State to recognize their movement, but, when he rejected their petition they resorted to direct action to force Japanese farmers out. The situation then spread to California and in February, 1935, an anti-Japanese exclusion bill was submitted to the Californian State Legislature. The bill provided for an absolute prohibition of Japanese people from engaging in agriculture under any circumstances. The exclusion bill was submitted to an agriculture committee of the Lower House and then was turned over to a judicial committee. Finding that the bill was too exacting and aimed at depriving the Japanese farmers of the right of agriculture, the committee doubted it might conflict the U. S. Constitution and submitted it to the Plenary session of the Californian State Lower House with a desideratum for amendment, but it was shelved at the Upper House. The problem thus was apparently solved, but the exclusion tendency against Japanese was growing keener. Even Japanese who legally entered that country and are engaged in peaceful vocations are not given the treatment accorded the American citizens.

Other Issues The attempted intervention in the Manchurian and Shanghai affairs in 1931 and 1932 by the American Secretary of State, Col. Henry L. Stimson, at one time seemed to menace seriously the relations between Japan and the United States.

Hirota-Hull Messages As soon as Mr. Koki Hirota took office as Foreign Minister he commenced to devote himself to strengthening Japan's friendly relations with her neighbouring countries. As one of the manifestations of such endeavour, he sent through Mr. H. Sato, the new Ambassador, his personal message to Mr. Hull, the Secretary of State of the United States, on February 21, 1934 :

"I firmly believe that, viewed in the light of the broad aspect of the situa-

tion and studied from all possible angles, no question exists between our two countries that is fundamentally incapable of amicable solution. I do not doubt that all issues pending between the two nations will be settled in a satisfactory manner, when examined with a good understanding on the part of each of the other's position, discussed with an open mind and in all frankness, and approached with a spirit of co-operation and conciliation."

To this, Secretary Hull replied on March 3 with his personal message in the form of a letter to Mr. Hirota, a summary of which is as follows.

"I believe that there are in fact no questions between our two countries which, if they be viewed in proper perspective in both countries, can with any warrant be regarded as not readily susceptible to adjustment by pacific processes."

American-Japanese Relations in 1936

The diplomatic relations between Japan and the United States have been quite amicable although arguments were exchanged between them regarding the naval question. Apart from the naval question, mention must be made of the fact that the United States raised its tariffs on Japanese cotton cloth. In May, 1936, Congress and industrialist circles in America urged the Japanese Government to control exports of cotton cloth but arrangements in this connection failed to be concluded.

Reference may also be made of the fact that since the autumn of 1936, there have been increasing signs pointing to the possibility of the Japanese salmon-fising operations off Alaska being made an issue.

German-Japanese Agreement

The Governments of Japan and Germany having decided on the fundamental policy of creating a common front against Communism, detailed negotiations were commenced during the latter part of July at Berlin between the Japanese Ambassador to Germany and the German authorities. The negotiations resulted in an agreement which was signed provisionally on October 23. After the approval of the Japanese Privy Council had been secured, the anti-Comintern pact was formally signed on November 25 between Viscount Kintomo Mushakoji, the Japanese Ambassador in Berlin, and Colonel von Ribbentrop, the German representative. The pact went into effect simultaneously with the signing.

The conclusion of this agreement with Germany attracted a great deal of public attention all over the world as the most important diplomatic step taken by Japan since her withdrawl from the League of Nations in 1933. On November 25, the Japanese Foreign Office issued a statement announcing the signing of the agreement and explaining its significance.

Statement of the Foreign Office Regarding the Agreement against the Communist International

(December 25, 1936.)

1. Ever since its establishment, the Communist International, or the so-called Comintern, with its headquarters at Moscow, has been engaged in all sorts of activities, greatly menacing the peace of the world, for the purpose of destroying the national and social structures in every country in pursuance of the fundamental policy of world revolution. At its Seventh Congress, held in the summer of last year, the Comintern decided on a policy of organizing a united front with the Second International to oppose Fascism and imperialism and at the same time made it plain that the future objectives of Comintern activities were to be Japan, Germany and Poland. It further resolved to support the Chinese Communist armies in order to fight Japan. The actual operations subsequently carried on by the Comintern have become extremely ingenious, rendering them all the more dangerous.

As to the extent to which the Comintern interferes with the internal affairs of all countries and exerts a baneful influence on the well-being of nations and the peace of the world, it is only necessary to look at the present disturbances in Spain to realize its magnitude. At least those countries that lodged protests with the Government of the Soviet Union at the time of the Comintern congress certainly have full cognizance of the harmfulness of Comintern activities.

2. The Communist invasion has hitherto been more marked in the Orient, especially in China, than elsewhere. Outer Mongolia and Sinkiang have already suffered from its calamitous effects, and China proper is now being subjected to the depredations of the Communist armies. As a matter of fact, the activities of the Comintern in China have increased notably in vigor since its Seventh Congress.

In Manchoukuo, also the Comintern has been surreptitiously endeavouring through the Manchurian district committee of the Chinese Communist Party to organize cells, to win over and instigate bandits and to direct the raids by partisan troops all over the country.

In Japan, the extreme leftiest movement temporarily showed signs of decline after the Manchurian incident, but since the Seventh Congress of the Comintern it has again become energetic. It has crept into the channels of lawful agitation in conformity with the resolution of that congress and has launched a unified front movement that is intended to be the basis for revival of the Communist movement.

3. The Japanese Government, which, in order to safeguard Japan's immutable national policy and insure national security and to maintain everlasting peace in East Asia, has pursued a clear-cut and consistent policy toward the Comintern, finds it necessary to take more rigorous measures of self-defence against the increased menace set forth above.

The organization and activities of the Comintern being of an international character, any programme of counter-action should necessarily be based on international co-operation. Germany, ever since the establishment of the present régime in 1933, has put into execution drastic anti-Communist policies. Last year at the Seventh Congress of the Comintern, Germany and Japan were selected as the special objectives of Comintern operations. Thus Japan and Germany are placed in similar circumstances vis-à-vis the Comintern. Consequently the Japanese Government, as the first step in its defensive undertaking, conducted negotiations with Germany and concluded an agreement on November 25 to take effect immediately.

4. This agreement, the fundamental object of which is common defense against the destructive operations of the Comintern, contains provisions for the exchange of information regarding Comintern activities, for consultation on, and execution of joint invitations to third Powers. There is, besides, a supplementary protocol stipulating in concrete terms the manner in which the agreement is to be executed.

5. The Japanese Government is desirous of co-operating with as many Powers as possible for the purpose of perfecting its defensive measures against the Comintern menace, but for that purpose alone. It should be pointed out that in connection with, or behind, this agreement there exists no other agreement whatsoever, that the Japanese Government has no intention to form, or join in, any special international bloc for any other purpose and finally that the present agreement is not directed against the Soviet Union or any other specific country. (The text of the agreement is given in Appendix.)

Italo-Japanese Agreement

The friendly relations between Japan and Italy were greatly improved by the avowed intention of the Italian Government to create a consulate-general in Manchoukuo and the decision of the Japanese Government to close its legation in Ethiopia following the annexation of that territory by Italy. Taking advanage of the situation, negotiations were opened between the two Governments concerned during the early part of November, following the conclusion of the German-Japanese anti-Comintern pact, for the conclusion of an Italo-Japanese agreement.

The negotiations were aimed at the virtual recognition of Manchoukuo by the Italian Government, the creation of a Japanese consulate in Ethiopia and the maintenance and promotion of the economic interests of Japan in that territory. Announcements were issued on December 28, both in Tokyo and Rome, concerning the Italo-Japanese agreement which took the form of an understanding. In this connection, the authorities of the Japanese Foreign Office issued an informal statement which read as follows :

(I) Communique The Japanese Government have notified the Italian Government that they are prepared to close the legation in Ethiopia and establish in its stead a consulate at Addis-Abeba.

The Italian Government have agreed to respect the commercial and other interests of Japan in Ethiopia and give specially favourable considerations concerning those interests.

(II) Statement of The Foreign Office Spokesman (December 2, 1936.) In order to meet the development of the situation in Ethiopia, it was deemed appropriate to close the Japanese legation there at proper time and establish in its stead a consulate. The Japanese Government, therefore, instructed their Ambassadors in European countries late in June this year to observe closely the development in Ethiopia and the attitude of the Powers which are members of the League of Nations. Now at last, the step has been consummated as a result of negotiations with the Italian Government. The German Government, as was then announced, notified the Italian Government on the 25th of July his year that they would abolish their legation in Ethiopia and set up a consulate-general.

As the Japanese Government decided upon the establishment of a consulate, the Italian Government assured us that

they would give their favourable consideration for the protection of our trade and other interests. Accordingly, on the basis of that assurance, conversations are expected to be opened for the adjustment of trade relations between Japan and Ethiopia.

Although there is no negotiation of political nature going on at present, it is a well known fact that Japan and Italy are assiduously cultivating cordial relations through their co-operation in cultural and other fields.

An agreement is said to have been concluded between the Italian Government and the Manchoukuo Government concerning the establishment of an Italian consulate-general at Mukden, but this has nothing to do with the setting up of our consulate in Ethiopia. This we add specially as there seems to be some misunderstanding.

Japan-Siamese Relation

The Government of Siam notified Japan on November 5, 1936, of its intention to abrogate he Japannese-Siamese commercial treaty. Such a notice was served, not only on Japan but all countries which had concluded commercial treaties with Siam. The memorandum which the Siamese Government presented to the Japanese Government read in substance as follows :

" With a view to realization of complete equality with other countries and to the restoration of self-government, both legally and financially, the Government of Siam hereby notifies Japan of its intention to abrogate the Japanese-Siamese Treaty of Commerce and Navigation and its Annexes which were signed at Bangkok on March 10, 1924. It is understood, however, that the said treaty will remain effective for one year after issuance of this notice, according to the provisions of article 20 of the said treaty."

Japanese-Burmese Commercial Treaty

As Burma was scheduled to be separated from India on April 1, 1937, negotiations were opened between representatives of Japan and Burma at New Delhi in December, 1936, for conclusion of a Japanese-Burmese commercial treaty. As a result, a protocol was signed provisionally beween Mr. Yonezawa, Japanese Consul General, and the Financial Secretary of the Government of India on March 1, 1937, the formal signing to take place in London between representatives of Japan and Great Britain.

The principal points of the Japanese-Burmese protocol are as follows :

" Japan and Burma have agreed to accord each other the most favoured nation treatment. Japan may export 42,000,000 yards of cotton cloth to Burma annualy if she imports 65 per cent of the amount of raw cotton which Burma is capable of exporting. However, it is under no circumstances necessary for Japan to import more than 70,000 bales of Burmese raw cotton.

" If Japan cannot import Burmese raw cotton to the stipulated amount, the Japanese exports of cotton cloth to Burma shall be reduced at the rate of 300,-000 yards to each 1,000 bales of the shortage. However, Japanese exports of cotton cloth to Burma shall not be reduced if an abnormal rise in the prices of Burma raw cotton or a shortage of supply arising from active demand in the market renders it impossible for Japan to import Burmese raw cotton to the stipulated amount.

" In principle, the 43,000,000 yards of cotton cloth which Japan is allowed to export to Burma shall be divided into 15 per cent of unbleached cotton cloth, 10 per cent of bleached cotton cloth, 45 per cent printed cotton cloth and 30 per cent of other coloured cotton cloth. A transfer from one category to another may be effected upon the following conditions :

1. The import quota shall not be increased on account of such a transfer.

2. In effecting a transfer the increase or decrease in the amount of unbleached, bleached and coloured cotton cloths shall not exceed 20 per cent and the increase or decrease in the amount of printed cotton cloth shall not exceed 5 per cent.

Japan and Transvaal

The authorities of the Transvaal in South Africa having prohibited the residence of coloured races in the gold-producing district including Johannesburg, the capital of the Transvaal, and having refused to permit coloured races to engage in wholesale business, which is closely related to the export and import trade, Mr. Ohta, Japanese Consul at Cape Town, endeavoured to have the unjustified regulation revised. Thanks to the efforts of Consul Ohta the Japanese claims were accepted by the authorities in their entirety on June 15, 1936, the parliament of South Africa passing a bill dividing the said regulations, and settling the question.

Japanese-Egyptian Negotiations

The Japanese-Egyptian negotiations which had been under way since 1935 at Cairo were discontinued on account of the political change which occurred in Egypt in May, 1936. The Japanese

representative at the negotiations, Minister Kasama, withdrew from Cairo on May 16 as a result.

Japan and Turkey

The Government of Turkey notified the Government of Japan on October 27, 1936, of its intention to abrogate the provisional trade convension between Japan and Turkey which was enforced on January 1, 1935, and the arrangement made between the two countries concerning the enforcement. At the same time, the Turkish Government expressed its readiness to conclude a new treaty. The Turkish note addressed to Japan read in substance as follows :

With a view to concluding a new commercial treaty in conformity with its policy towards domestic industry and the prevailing conditions of foreign trade, the Government of Turkey has decided to abrogate the provisional Japanese -Turkish trade convention and arrangements concerning its enforcement. It is understood that the notice which the Turkish Government gives Japan about its decision will take effect on January 2, 1937. Simultaneously the Turkish Government wishes to express its preparedness to consider a formula on which to base negotiations for conclusion of a new treaty.

Relations with South and Central America

Anti-Japanese questions have often been heard of in regard to Brazil in South America but none of the questions has ever been brought up between the diplomatic organs of the two countries. But mention must be made of the fact that Brazilian economic mission headed by Mr. Salgado Fillio, former Minister of Labour and member of the Lower House at the time, visited Japan in July, 1936, and greatly strengthened the tie of friendship between the nations.

In regard to Paraguay in Central America, it may be noted that about 35 families of Japanese emigrants settled in that country during 1936. Later, a French financial syndicate thought the co-operation of Japan in the industrial development of Paraguay would be of great benefit to that country and negotiations were conducted in this connection and on December 5, 1936, the President of Paraguay issued a decree authorizing the exportation of products of the country to Japan to the amount of 250,000 pesos annually through the French financial syndicate and the entry into Paraguay of a total of 1,000 families of Japanese emigrants within 5 years or no more than 200 families annually.

Abolition of Perpetual Leases

With reference to the abolition of perpetual leases in Japan, which are relics of the extraterritoriality system, the Japanese Government opened negotiations with Great Britain, which is the most closely connected with the question, and approached the United States. As a result, an understanding was reached with the two countries, whereby perpetual leases held by British and American nationals in Japan will be changed to ordinary ownership without compensation on April 1, 1942.

Similar negotiations were also conducted with Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal and Denmark, and resulted in an exchange of notes between Japan and the four nations. This marked the consummation of the efforts of the Japanese Government to have the perpetual lease system discontinued.

The Manchurian Incident

What is known as the Manchurian Incident broke out with the blasting of a section of the South Manchuria Railway near Liutiaokou by Chinese regular troops on September 18, 1931. It has brought about the foundation of a new nation in Manchuria and the withdrawal of Japan from the League of Nations. The incident though called in the singular was not really a single incident, but a series of incidents which followed one another after the unexpected outbreak, the inevitable sequel to long-continued and growing anti-Japanese activities on the part of the old Mukden militarists.

The hostilities which occurred in Shanghai in January, 1932, as well as the threatening situation in Tientsin some time earlier were only two of the manifold ramifications of the Manchurian Incident. The state of affairs known as the Manchurian Incident continued until the truce concluded on May 31, 1933, at Tangku between the Japanese and Chinese forces, which to all intents and purposes wound up the Jehol expedition carried out by the combined Japanese and Manchoukuo armies to pacify the province and protect the provincial people from local banditry and invading troops from the south across the Great Wall.[1]

Founding of Manchoukuo

The Manchurian Incident having re-

1 For particulars of the incident see the Japan Year Book, 1933, Chapter VII.

sulted in the over-throw of the old régime of Chang Hsueh-liang, various groups came to declare independence in different districts of Manchuria.

The chief principles of the projected new government called for the suppression of the military cliques, co-operation with the rest of the world in line with the principle of the open door and equal opportunity for all, elimination of anti-foreignism, and promotion of the welfare of the people in place of the oppression and grinding taxation from which they had hitherto suffered.

Thus, on March 1, 1932, a manifesto was promulgated announcing that Manchoukuo was founded in response to the unanimous aspirations of the 30,000,000 people of Manchuria and Mongolia. On March 7, Mr. Henry Pu-yi, who had once reigned over the entire territory of China as the 12th Emperor of the Ching dynasty, consented to become the Chief Executive of Manchoukuo. This was followed by the installation in office of Mr. Henry Pu-yi and the ceremony celebrating the founding of Manchoukuo at Changchun on March 9. (For particulars see Chapter on Manchoukuo.)

Japan and Manchoukuo

The Japanese Envoy On August 8, 1932, General Nobuyoshi Muto was appointed commander of the Kwantung army with concurrent offices as Ambassador Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to Manchoukuo and Governor of the Kwantung Leased Territory.

Recognition of Manchoukuo The Japanese Government extended de jure recognition to Manchoukuo on September 15, 1932, when the protocol completing this procedure was signed at the Chief Executive's offices in Hsinking between General Muto representing Japan and Premier Cheng Hsiao-hsu representing Manchoukuo.

The official English translation of this protocol follows :

Whereas Japan has recognized the fact that Manchoukuo, in accordance with the free will of its inhabitants, has organized and established itself as an independent State ; and

Whereas Manchoukuo has declared its intention of abiding by all international engagements entered into by China in so far as they are applicable to Manchoukuo ;

Now the Governments of Japan and Manchoukuo have, for the purpose of establishing a perpetual relationship of good neighbourhood between Japan and Manchoukuo, each respecting the territorial rights of the other, and also in order to secure the peace of the Far East, agreed as follows :

1. Manchoukuo shall confirm and respect, in so far as no agreement to the contrary shall be made between Japan and Manchoukuo in the future, all rights and interests possessed by Japan or her subjects within the territory of Manchoukuo by virtue of Sino-Japanese treaties, agreements or other arrangements or of Sino-Japanese contracts, private as well as public ;

2. Japan and Manchoukuo, recognizing that any threat to the territory or to the peace and order of either of the High Contracting Parties constitutes at the same time a threat to the safety and existence of the other, agree to co-operate in the maintenance of their national security ; it being understood that such Japanese forces as may be necessary for this purpose shall be stationed in Manchoukuo.

The present Protocol shall come into effect from the date of its signing.

The present Protocol has been drawn up in Japanese and Chinese, two identical copies being made in each language. Should any difference arise in regard to interpretation between the Japanese and the Chinese texts, the Japanese text shall prevail.

Partial Abolition of Extraterritoriality The basic treaty between Japan and Manchoukuo concerning the partial abolition of Japanese extraterritorial privileges in Manchoukuo, for which preparations had been underway for sometime, having been ratified by the Privy Councils of the two nations, was signed at Hsinking on June 10, 1936, by representatives of the two Governments concerned. The treaty was announced on June 12 and enforced on July 1.

The Shanghai Affair

The Causes Anti-Japanese feeling in China was increasingly accentuated following the Wanpaoshan affair, the conflict between Koreans and Chinese in Chosen and the Manchurian incident in particular. Among other places Shanghai was the scene of most vigorous and organized anti-Japanese activities, which culminated in the publication of an article disrespectful to the Imperial family of Japan by the Minkuo Jipao, a Chinese newspaper in Shanghai, in January, 1932. Shortly afterwards there occurred an assault on two Japanese Buddhist priests and three Japanese Buddhist believers of the Nichiren sect by a mob of workers of the Sanyu Business Company, manufacturers of towels, on January 18, when all of the

Buddhist group were seriously wounded, one of them dying later on January 24.

Indignation among the Japanese residents in Shanghai over this outrage was such that they immediately held a mass meeting and lodged a strong protest with Wu Tiehcheng, mayor of Shanghai.

The Ultimatum Consul-General Murai had filed an official protest with Mayor Wu of Shanghai demanding an apology from the mayor, the arrest and punishment of the marauders, payment of solatiums and expenses of medical treatment for the injured and also immediate dissolution of anti-Japanese organizations.

Seeing the general situation, Consul-General Murai sent an ultimatum to the Chinese with a time limit set for 6 p.m. on January 28 and received a reply from Mayor Wu promising to suppress the anti-Japanese agitators and accept all the Japanese demands.

Opening of Hostilities On the evening of January 28, however, Chinese crowds gathered around the municipal offices of Shanghai loudly accusing the mayor of having weakly yielded to the Japanese, and a serious situation threatened to prevail in all parts of the city, with the result that the Municipal Bureau of the International Settlement had to declare a state of siege, the foreign garrison forces taking up their positions in their respective areas of defence.

The situation, however, went from bad to worse, and the Japanese and Chinese troops came into a collision, which lasted from January 29 to March 3, when the former completely drove out the latter from the Chapei district.

On the completion of this achievement, General Shirakawa, commander of the Japanese expeditionary forces, and Vice-Admiral Nomura, commander of the Japanese fleet, ordered suspension of all hostilities at 2 p.m. on March 3.

Sino-Japanese Issue and the League

Japan's Attitude Following the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident, the Council of the League of Nations held an urgent session in compliance with a request of Dr. Alfred Sze, the Chinese representative, on September 22, 1931.

The League Adjourns Following the publication of the statement of the Tokyo Government, the intentions of Japan gradually came to be understood by the Powers, and the League Council adjourned on September 30 after adopting a resolution.

Activities of Council The situation, however, threatened to grow worse on October 8, the air raid on Chinchow was reported, and on the following day Japan lodged a protest against the anti-Japanese movement and sent a naval force to South China.

For three days from October 14, the Council discussed the question of the proposal to invite an observer of the United States to attend the Council meeting. The Japanese representative objected to this proposal from a juridical viewpoint, but at a private session held on the 15th, the Council passed this proposal as a question of "procedure" by a majority vote with Japan alone dissenting.

Accordingly the United States was represented by Mr. Prentiss Gilbert, the American consul-general at Berne, as an observer at the Council meeting from October 16.

At its private session on October 17, which is known as the 13-power conference because of the absence of the Japanese and Chinese representatives, the Council, with the attendance of the American observer, resolved that the 13 Powers take steps to call the attention of Japan and China to the Kellogg-Briand anti-war pact with regard to the Manchurian situation.

Consequently the Powers interested sent notes to Japan and China to that end, and the Japanese Government replied to these notes on the basis of a decision reached at an urgent meeting of the Cabinet held on October 22.

Briand's Proposal In the course of this conference M. Briand proposed a tentative plan to Mr. Yoshizawa, suggesting that Japan recognize the sovereignty of China in Manchuria, that China suppress her anti-Japanese agitation, boycott and anti-Japanese education, that China guarantee the safety of the lives and property of the Japanese nationals in China, that China recognize the right of Japanese nationals to reside, travel and engage in business in Manchuria, and that China confirm before the League of Nations the rights vested by all the existing treaties including what is known as the "Twenty-one Demands."

There were indications of these five proposals, if accepted by China, proving instrumental in improving the situation by making it possible for Japan to start direct negotiations with China regarding the concrete procedure of the withdrawal of the Japanese troops.

The situation, however, underwent a sudden change for the worse for an unknown reason, and at its session of

October 22 the Council proposed to make Japan complete the withdrawal of her troops by November 15 with neutral observers seeing to it that perfect peace and order would be maintained after the Japanese evacuation, and to make Japan and China appoint their respective representatives to take charge of the evacuation of the occupied area, it also being suggested that Japan and China start direct negotiations immediately after the completion of the evacuation.

These proposals were regarded as the most disadvantageous ones to Japan that had ever been considered by the Council.

The Counter Proposal Against this, the Japanese representative, Mr. Yoshizawa, submitted a counter-proposal to the Council on the 23rd to the effect that the Japanese Government should withdraw those of its troops still remaining in a few localities outside the railway zone as the then-prevailing atmosphere of tension cleared and the situation improved, by the achievement of a previous understanding between the Chinese and Japanese Governments as regards the fundamental principles governing normal relations, that the Japanese and Chinese Governments should confer together at once with a view to arriving at the understanding mentioned above, and that the Japanese and Chinese Governments should appoint representatives to arrange the details of execution of the evacuation and of taking over the districts evacuated.

The Japanese counter-proposal was defeated by a vote of 13 to 1, and the Council's resolution also failed to pass by a unanimous vote, the vote being 13 to 1 in favour of the Council proposal, the Japanese representative dissenting.

The Five Principles Following this, the Japanese Government published a statement on October 26, regarding the "fundamental principles." In this statement Japan made it clear that these so-called "basic principles" related to :

1. Mutual repudiation of aggressive policy and conduct.
2. Respect for China's territorial integrity.
3. Complete suppression of all organized movements interfering with freedom of trade and stirring up international hatred.
4. Effective protection throughout Manchuria of all peaceful pursuits undertaken by Japanese subjects.
5. Respect for the treaty rights of Japan in Manchuria.

Tension Continues The League of Nations' Council held its third session to discuss the Sino-Japanese issue on November 16, 1932. Whereas League circles had been looking to the withdrawl of the Japanese troops by that date, the situation in Manchuria was such that Japan could not live up to their expectation, with the result that a frontal clash threatened to take place between Japan and the League of Nations.

In this connection League circles were reported advocating severence of economic relations with Japan, withdrawl of diplomatic representatives from Japan or exclusion of Japan from the League. These reports were met by an outburst of strong nationalistic sentiment in Japan and serious tension prevailed.

The Council met on November 16 as scheduled amid an atmosphere of such tension and was continued until December 10.

The Resolution Before adjourning, the Council adopted a resolution by a unanimous vote on December 10. This resolution in effect provided that the Japanese Government should withdraw its troops within the railway zone in proportion as the safety of the lives and the protection of the property of Japanese subjects were effectively secured and that the two parties should undertake to adopt all measures necessary to avoid any further aggravation of the situation and to refrain from any initiative which might lead to further fighting and loss of life.

Regarding this resolution, the Japanese representative declared that his Government accepted the resolution on the understanding that it would not prevent the Japanese military authorities from taking action in defence of lives and property of Japanese nationals against bandits and other lawless elements rampant in various parts of Manchuria.

Opinion Adverse Just after the League Council met in its 66th regular session on January 25, 1932, troubles broke out in Shanghai and Mr. W. W. Yen, the Chinese representative, appealed to the Council on January 29 to invoke Article 15 of the Legue Covenant in regard to the affair.

Thus, at the Council meeting on January 30, it was decided that only the first paragraph of Article 15 of the Covenant would be invoked, in regard to the Shanghai incident alone. Accordingly, representatives of the neutral members of the Council organized an

international committee at Shanghai to gather information on the spot and submit it to the Council.

This committee sent in four reports successively, first under date of February 6, second under date of Febuary 12, third under date of February 20 and fourth under date of March 6. Of these, the first report was very favourable to Japan, but the second report proved decidedly unfavourable to Japan, it declaring that the Japanese and Chinese troops had been in a state of open hostilities since February 3.

Consequently, the Council caused the representatives of the 12 members of the Council other than Japan and China to address an appeal to Japan on February 16, regretting that it appeared that Japan could no longer trust to the peaceful settlement to be provided by the League of Nations.

Japan's Refutation Thereupon, in a statement published on February 23, the Japanese Government refuted this appeal in detail asserting that, although China had been treated in the past, by common consent, as if the expression connoted an organized people, such fictions could not last forever, nor could they be tolerated when they became grave sources of actual danger. Thus the Japanese Government declared that the time had inevitably come when realities, rather than fictions, had to be reckoned with.

Views unfavourable to Japan were also expressed in various quarters about that time, and Japan's relations with the League of Nations seemed seriously menaced.

A Parley Proposed On February 27, 1932, the Japanese delegation at Geneva unofficially notified the representatives of the 12 member Powers of the Council that Japan was willing to participate in a roundtable conference if the Powers would sponsor such a parley at Shanghai.

The armistice conference was officially opened at Shanghai on March 24, but the progress of the parley was delayed owing to a divergency of opinion between the Japanese and Chinese delegates regarding the time to be fixed for the final withdrawal of the Japanese troops.

During this period of deadlock China made a sudden appeal to the League of Nations on April 11, reporting a rupture of the conference.

The Mixed Committee On receipt of this appeal, the Committee of 19, organized by the League Assembly on March 11 to continue in charge of the entire Sino-Japanese issue, immediately accepted this representation and opened a session on April 16 to discuss the situation.

At its session on April 19, the Committee of 19 drafted a resolution for the Assembly with the object of breaking through the reported deadlock between Japan and China.

This proposal was met by strong opposition from the Japanese Government as well as the military and public opinion of Japan, and another crisis arose between Japan and the League of Nations. But the situation was improved and the League Assembly adopted the Lampson plan by a unanimous vote on April 30. The crisis having thus passed, the armistic conference was resumed at Shanghai on April 28, and despite the occurrence of the tragic bombing outrage on the occasion of the celebration of the Emperor's birthday on April 29, an armistice was finally signed on May 5, 1932.

The League Commission of Inquiry The League of Nations' Commission of Inquiry, appointed in line with the resolution of December 10, 1931, and comprising the Earl of Lytton of Great Britain, Général de Division Henri Claudel of France, Major-General Frank Ross McCoy of the United States, Dr. Heinrich Schnee of Germany and Count Pldrovandi of Italy, arrived in Japan on February 29, 1932 accompanied by a party of their secretaries. The Commissions left Japan for China on March 11, and spent about four months to make investigations in China and Manchuria.

Preliminary Report What the Commission learned was presented to the League of Nations on April 29 as a preliminary report.

In the course of this preliminary report, the Enquiry Commission stated that Manchuria was not under the authority of the Nanking Government and was infested by banditry, so that the Japanese troops could not be withdrawn, adding that the Nanking Government did not exercise its Power in any part of Manchuria in the prevailing situation.

The Final Report The full text of the final report of the Commission was published at 9 p.m., Tokyo time, on October 2 in Tokyo, Geneva and Nanking simultaneously.

The contents of the report were considered comparatively impartial in its description of the outline of the history of the Sino-Japanese relations, Japan's interests in Manchuria and the general observations of the prevailing situation.

However, that the Commission gave

only a cursory account of the Shanghai incident, as if this incident had been outside the scope of its investigation work, was taken to show that the Commissioners did not fully understand what their true mission was.

Further, the failure of the Commissioners to recognize the military action taken by Japan on September 18, 1931, which was dealt with in the fourth chapter of the report, as an act of self-defence, was highly resented in Japan. It was also generally held both in official and private circles in Japan that the sixth chapter of the report, in so far as the description of the circumstances pertaining to the founding of Manchoukuo was concerned, was full of prejudiced misrepresentations and that the last two chapters containing what they called "principles and conditions of settlement" and "consideration and suggestions to the Council" were for this reason practically superfluous, especially after the de jure recognition extended to Manchoukuo by Japan.

Resolution of February 24 Following the publication of the Lytton Report, the League of Nations started its discussion thereon at the Council meeting convened on November 21, 1932, and, after complicated proceedings through the Assembly, the Committee of Nineteen and other committee meetings, a report with several recommendations was adopted by a vote of 42 to 1 on February 24, 1933, at the Assembly meeting, at which Siam abstained from voting and 12 countries were not represented.

The report was on the whole based upon the Lytton Report and was distinctly unfavourable for Japan and Manchoukuo, one of the recommendations contained therein purporting to recognize Chinese sovereignty and administrative integrity in Manchuria.

Japan's Withdrawal After voting against the report of the League of Nations Assembly on the Sino-Japanese dispute, the Japanese delegation to the League meetings, headed by Mr. Yosuké Matsuoka, left Geneva without attending further meetings of the League, thereby expressing the firm determination of Japan.

In Japan, the Government decided on severance from the League of Nations and submitted a project to this end to the Throne. Accordingly the Privy Council met in plenary session on March 27, 1933, in the presence of the Emperor to recommend the project for Imperial sanction with a unanimous vote.

The Throne immediately sanctioned the project, a telegram was despatched to Geneva addressed to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations notifying the body of Japan's withdrawal from its membership, and simultaneously with this the Emperor issued an Imperial rescript announcing the policy to be followed by Japan after this action.

The official translation of the Imperial rescript follows :

"When the League of Nations came into being upon the restoration of a general peace, Our Imperial Father was pleased to order the entry of Our Empire thereinto ; and We, in Our turn, have laboured assiduously to fulfil the high purpose of the late Emperor. It is thus that Our Empire has for these thirteen years past extended consistently its co-operation to the League.

"Now Manchoukuo having of late been founded, Our Empire deems it essential to respect the independence of the new state and to encourage its healthy development, in order that the sources of evil in the Far East may be eradicated and an enduring peace thereby established. Unhappily, there exists between Our Empire and the League of Nations a wide divergence of view in this regard and it has devolved upon Us to cause Our government to take, upon mature deliberation, the necessary steps for the withdrawal of Our Empire from the League.

"However, the advancement of international peace is what, as evermore, We desire, and Our attitude toward enterprises of peace shall sustain no change. By quitting the League and embarking on a course of its own, Our Empire does not mean that it will stand aloof in the extreme Orient nor that it will isolate itself thereby from the fraternity of nations. It is Our desire to promote mutual confidence between Our Empire and all the other Powers and to make known the justice of its cause throughout the world.

"Every country is overtaken today by emergencies of an unprecedented magnitude. Our Empire itself is confronted by a situation fraught with momentous possibilities. It is indeed an hour that calls for an intensification of effort on the part of Our entire nation. We command that all public servants, whether civil or military, shall faithfully perform each his appointed duty, and that all private citizens shall pursue their wonted tasks with diligence. Stray not, in advancing, from the path of rectitude ; and in action, embrace always the golden mean. Strive to meet the present situation with a united will and with courage and resolution. So

may ye carry forward the glorious work bequeathed by Our Grandsire and contribute to the prosperity and well-being of Mankind."

Jehol Expedition The expedition carried out by the joint forces of Manchoukuo and Japan to Jehol to pacify this province of the new nation, and the subsequent truce concluded at Tangku between the hostile Chinese troops and the Japanese expedition on May 31, 1933, practically put an end to the long-protracted state of affairs popularly known as the Manchurian Incident.

The Jehol expedition, which was launched following a declaration to this end made by the Manchoukuo Government on February 26, 1933, announcing that it was despatching without delay necessary forces "to exterminate completely all bandits within and to dislodge all the invading armies from the province," was executed with amazing speed and on March 4 a Japanese contingent occupied Chengte, the capital of the province; a few days later the Japanese troops taking several important positions along the Great Wall.

After having been driven out of the province, however, the Chinese troops continued hostile operations on the Great Wall positions from the south, and the Japanese forces were obliged to advance south across the Great Wall more than once to destroy the bases of Chinese hostilities.

The Truce In fact, on the second occasion the Japanese advanced within a few miles of Peiping and Tientsin, but they refrained from actually entering these cities, and instead succeeded in including the representatives of the Chinese forces to sign a truce on March 31 at Tangku, providing for a demilitarized zone between Peiping and Tientsin districts and the Great Wall.

The Manchoukuo authorities, immediately after the pacification of Jehol, started a constructive programme in the province, readjusting finances and mapping out plans for future industrial and economic development for the people of the province.

Solution of Pending Questions There are many issues that have been pending between Japan and China since the signing of the Tangku truce pact on May 31, 1933. Pressed by necessity, the through railway connection problem was solved in June, 1934, and since July 1 of that year the Sino-Manchoukuo International Train Service has been in operation between Mukden and Peiping. This was followed by the Frontier Customs question which was solved in December of that year, and the trade relations of China and Manchoukuo are going on smoothly. The Sino-Manchoukuo Postal question was also solved and the postal service has been in operation since January 1, 1935.

Exchange of Ambassadors In July, 1924, Japan and China agreed on the exchange of ambassadors, but, due to the subsequent internal problems of China, the matter had been left unrealized. Sino-Japanese relations assumed a sudden turn for the better early in 1935. Taking advantage of this situation, Foreign Minister Koki Hirota made a proposal to the Nanking Government for the promotion of the Japanese Legation in China to the status of an embassy and the matter was formally announced in Tokyo and Nanking at the same time on May 17. The Japanese Government promoted Mr. Akira Ariyoshi, Minister to China, to Ambassador, and the Chinese Government promoted General Tsiang Tso-pin, Chinese Minister to Tokyo, to Ambassador. At the initiative taken by Japan, both Great Britain and the United States at once promoted their Ministers in China to Ambassadors.

North China Incidents Infringement of the Tangku truce pact on the Chinese side and violation of an official note exchanged between the Japanese and Chinese Governments regarding the retrocession of Tientsin in 1902 were the real causes of the North China incidents. Sun Yung-chin, bandit chieftain, with his followers, was expelled from Jehol Province by Japan-Manchoukuo combined forces to Shunhua in Hopei Province, where he was given support of a peace preservation corps under General Yu Hsueh-chung, chairman of the Hopei Provincial Government. It was discovered that General Yu supplied him with ammunition and foodstuffs. The Sun banditry, however, was subjugated by the Kwantung Army late in May, 1935. It was also found that General Ho Ying-chin, chairman of the Peiping branch of the National Military Council, had been giving bandits in Manchoukuo certificates of the Northeastern Volunteer Corps. All these were apparent instances of infringement of the Tangku truce pact. Another event that made the North China situation serious was assassination of two pro-Japanese Chinese journalists. On May 3 Mr. Pei Yu-han, president of the Tientsin Hsin Pao, a Chinese daily, and Mr. Hu Ching-pu, president of a Chinese magazine, the Kuo Hsien, were assassinated in the Japanese Concession in Tientsin, by

Chinese terrorists belonging to the Blue Shirt Party and Third Peiping Gendarmery in concert with other similar secret societies. Mr. Pei was an employee of the Japanese army. This was China's violation of the official note regarding the retrocession of Tientsin.

Japan's Notification Colonel Takashi Sakai, chief-of-staff of the Japanese Garrison in Tientsin, and Major Tan Takahashi, Japanese resident army officer in Peiping, called on General Ho on May 29 and blamed the dual policy of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek towards Japan, pointing out these two anti-Japanese incidents. They handed the following demands of Japan to the General Ho :

1. Dismissal of Yu Hsueh-chung who is directly responsible for the incidents and the evacuation of the Central Army of China from Hopei Province.

2. Dismissal of Chang Tingyo, Mayor of Tientsin, and Li Chunyo, Director of the Tientsin Public Peace Bureau, both directly responsible for the assassination.

On June 10 the Nanking Government replied that it accepted all the demands made by Japan.

Establishment of Two Governments Towards the close of November, 1935, an independent government was established with the demilitarized zone as the centre, which was named as the East Hopei Anti-Communist Autonomous Committee. Mr. Yin Ju-keng, special administrative inspector of the Lwanchow-Shanhai-kwan area of the zone, became its chairman. In December, the Committee was renamed as the East Hopei Anti-Communist Autonomous Government and appointed Mr. Yin its chairman.

The Kuomintang Government despatched its War Minister, General Ho Ying-ch'in to the north. As the result of his conference with General Sung Cheh-yuan and General Han Fu-chu the Hopei-Chahar Political Council was established as an organ to manage the administration of North China. General Sung Cheh-yuan was appointed as its chairman and assumed the office on December 18, 1935. This institution, while being under supervision of the Kuomintang Government, is a new political organ which has in its hand the power to negotiate with Japan and Manchoukuo for the maintenance of amicable relations with them. The domain over which the power of this political organ will be exercised comprises Hopei and Chahar Provinces, and Shantung, Suipuan and Shansi Provinces are governed by Han Fu-chu and Yen Hsi-shan respectively.

Sino-Japanese Questions in 1936 and 1937

With reference to Sino-Japanese relations, mention must be made of the fact that the students' movement launched towards the end of 1935 served greatly to intensify the anti-Japanese sentiment throughout China. As a result, on January 21, 1936, a police official named Sumida of the Japanese Consulate in Swatow was shot to death with a revolver while en route to his office. On July 10 of the same year, a Japanese merchant named Kayao in Shanghai was shot and killed with a revolver while taking a walk. This occurrence was followed on August 20 by the bombing of a resident Japanese military officer at Changsha and his family physician.

With the anti-Japanese movement thus changing to terrorism, there appeared a strong opposition to the decision of the Japanese Government to reopen its consulate-general at Chengtu in Szechwan Province. Acting Consul-General Iwai and his party were interfered with in their preparations for the opening of their office and on August 24 a Chinese mob went to the length of murdering two Japanese newspapermen, Messrs. Watanabe and Fukagawa, and badly injuring Messrs. Tanaka and Seto.

The anti-Japanese outrages continued in September. On the third day of the month, a resident Japanese druggist at Pawhoi in Kwangtung Province was slain by a Chinese mob including students who were directed in their action by the 19th Route Army, which was urging the declaration of war against Japan. On September 17, another anti-Japanese outrage occurred involving the hurling of a bomb at a Japanese merchant named Mori at Swatow. This was followed by the murder of Mr. Yoshioka, a police official of the Japanese Consulate at Hankow ; on the 19th of the same month two Japanese seamen attached to the 3rd Squadron, were assaulted, one being killed and the other injured.

September 28 witnessed the burning of the branch office at Hsiangtan of the Nisshin Kisen Kaisha (Sino-Japanese Steamship Company). The office was set afire after being looted. On the following day, a mine was found to have been placed in the neighbourhood of the Japanese Consulate at Changsha. The Chinese outrages did not stop there for on October 8, a hand grenade was thrown into a Japanese store at Hankow. Indeed, the terroristic acts of

the Chinese against Japanese were too many to be entirely enumerated here.

Sino-Japanese Negotiations In view of the frequent anti-Japanese terroristic actions, the authorities of the Japanese Foreign Office and War Department resolved to open important negotiations with the Nanking Government with a view to preventing further aggravation of the situation and adjusting the relations between Japan and China. On August 24, following the outbreak of the Chengtu affair, Foreign Minister Arita issued the following statement to the foreign correspondents in Tokyo, setting forth the views of the Japanese Government on the intended Sino-Japanese negotiations.

"I had occasion, in our interview on April 25th last, to explain to you at some length the foreign policy of my country.

"Since assuming the office of Minister for Foreign Affairs, I have been endeavouring to adjust the relations between Japan and China as prerequisite to stability in East Asia. Unfortunately, however, our endeavour has yielded no tangible result. On the contrary, various questions having been left unsettled, there has been created a gloomy atmosphere which is lowering upon the relations of our two countries. It so happened that, at Chengtu on August 24th last, two Japanese were ruthlessly slaughtered, and another two Japanese very seriously injured, by a lawless Chinese mob. The negotiations on this affair had scarcely commenced at Nanking when a succession of untoward occurrences came to pass at Pakhoi, Swatow, Hankow and Shanghai, the victims being Japanese soldiers, officials and residents.

"The Chinese authorities have, on more than one occasion in the past, issued statements or made pledges, undertaking to control the anti-Japanese agitations in China, but these undertakings have been without avail. In fact, Japanese in China have repeatedly suffered outrages of unspeakable violence at the hands of Chinese agitators, over a dozen cases of this nature, to count the principal ones only, occurring in the short space of the last ten months. Thus the lives and property of the many Japanese in China are gravely threatened, and a feeling of profound unrest is naturally prevalent among them.

"All thies unfortunate incidents may rightly be said to be the logical consequences of the anti-Japanese education, anti-Japanese instigation and other forms of anti-Japanese policy practised for many years for which the Nationalist Government and the Kuomintang cannot evade their responsibility. Even if some of the incidents may, as is maintained on the Chinese side, be possibly attributable to Communist attempts to alienate Japan and China, they should not be settled in the same manner as ordinary cases of murder and of assault and battery are disposed of in China. The mere settlement of the incidents themselves is not enough. A decisive step forward should be taken to strike at the root of the trouble in order to prevent the recurrence of any such incidents. On the one hand, China should carry out an effective control of anti-Japanese agitations. In this connection, let it be remembered that no number of edicts exhorting friendship with Japan serves any useful purpose, as is evidenced by the existing state of affairs. On the other hand, more constructive efforts should be made to drastically improve the relations between Japan and China eradicating once for all the fundamental cause of the anti-Japanese trouble. And, if necessary, consideration has also to be given to measures to meet the Communist menace.

"In the spirit of what I have just said, the Japanese Government are conducting negotiations with the Nanking Government with respect to the settlement of the respective incidents and to the adjustment of the relations between Japan and China. The negotiations, however, are making no appreciable progress, and in the meantime fresh incidents of the same unfortunate character are cropping up.

"It is the sincere desire of Japan that a settlement may, as far as possible, be peaceably reached through diplomatic negotiations, and that the stability of East Asia may be genuinely assured. However, as you are aware, opinion is steadily gaining ground among the Japanese public and among the Japanese in China that any further negotiations with China are useless. Should the negotiations be so terminated, the lives and property of the large Japanese population in China could not, of course, be left exposed to any further danger. It will, therefore, be necessary to consider the steps to be taken in case of that eventuality.

"The outcome of the present negotiation can be in one of the two ways only: either very much better or very much worse will be the Japanese-Chinese relations. In the existing situation they shall not be permitted to drift in the ambiguous state of affairs as has been prevailing in the past. China is now at the momentous cross-roads, to

decide whether or not to shake hands with Japan. I very earnestly hope that China will grasp our hand in friendly response whatever difficulties she may have to surmount."

The negotiations were commenced between Mr. Shigeru Kawagoe, the Japanese Ambassador to China, and General Chang Chun, the then Chinese Foreign Minister. Carrying the negotiations a step further, Ambassador Kawagoe had an interview with General Chiang Kai-shek, president of the Chinese Executive Yuan, on October 8. The negotiations were centered on the North China question, the specific trade in North China, the control of anti-Japanese activities, the employment of Japanese advisers and the conclusion of a Sino-Japanese anti-Communist agreement.

The Chinese attitude towards the negotiations suddenly changed as a result of the outbreak of the East Suiyuan affair and on December 3 the negotiations in progress for nearly three months had to be discontinued. Two days later, Ambassador Kawagoe withdrew from Nanking to Shanghai. In connection with the discontinuance of the Sino-Japanese negotiations, the Japanese Foreign Office issued an informal statement on February 10 which read :

Concerning the Sino-Japanese negotiations pertaining to the deplorable incidents such as the Chengtu incident, although a statement was issued by our Embassy in China on December 3, it seems useful to clarify the Japanese policy and the views of our Government.

1. The murder of the Japanese journalists at Chengtu on August 24 was an inevitable outcome of the anti-Japanese education and anti-Japanese policy which the Nanking Government had carried on for so many years. Of this anyone will be convinced who is cognizant of circumstances and the facts of the case. That the recurrence of such incidents can not be prevented by a mere proclamation of the Nanking Government on the cultivation of neighbourliness is evident from the fact that on the heels of the Chengtu incident there occurred in close succession the Pakhoi incident of September 3, the Hankow incident of September 17 and the Shanghai incident of September 23. Therefore, in taking up these matters with the Nanking Government, the Japanese Government was not satisfied with dealing with these incidents as ordinary cases of murder or assault in China and settling them accordingly. It was thought necessary to take fundamental measures for future guarantees, and we demanded, therefore, that the Nanking Government take steps in earnest for control of the anti-Japanese agitation which is the underlying cause of these incidents.

On the other hand we invited the Chinese Government to go a step further from the negative stand of merely controlling the anti-Japanese agitation and to show its sincerity toward the improvement of Sino-Japanese relations by settling such long pending questions as aerial navigation, the employment of advisers, the control of lawless Koreans and the reduction of Customs duties.

II. Mr. Suma, consul-general at Nanking, in pursuance of the Japanese Government's policy, entered into preliminary conversations with Mr. Chang Chun, Foreign Minister of the Chinese Government, on September 8. Subsequently, Mr. Kawagoe, Japanese Ambassador, met Mr. Chang Chung seven times and Mr. Suma conversed with Mr. Chang or Mr. Kao Tsung-wu, director of the Asiatic department of the Chinese Foreign Office, more than 20 times.

As a result, the Chinese attitude toward the Japanese proposals was ascertained to be as stated below, giving us a general idea to the course of future negotiations :

With regard to the control of the anti-Japanese agitation, the Chinese representative during the conversations declared that the Chinese Government not only would suppress all sorts of anti-Japanese agitation of its own accord and assume responsibility for all anti-Japanese operations whether by the Kuomintang or any other organizations, but would be ready to take necessary measures for thorough suppression of the anti-Japanese agitation, revision of school books and control of anti-Japanese utterances or press articles.

As to the question of joint defense against Communism, one of the questions relating to adjustment of Sino-Japanese relations, no agreement was reached, although there were some points on which both sides concurred. As to the North China questions, it was agreed in principle to promote the economic development of that region through the co-operation of the two countries.

As regards the other problems, it is true that some hitch was experienced with the question of air service between China and Japan, but an agreement of views was reached regarding the proposed engagement of Japanese advisers by the Chinese Government, control of

lawless Koreans in China and reduction of the Chinese customs tariffs. Besides, the Chinese Government accepted most of Japan's requests regarding the settlement of the series of anti-Japanese incidents. Consequently, it was arranged that the Japanese consulate-general at Chengtu be reopened before long.

Later, however, the Chinese Government, taking advantage of the East Suiyuan issue, communicated to the Japanese representatives that it would be difficult to bring the Nanking negotiations to successful conclusion so long as the East Suiyuan question was not settled. Besides, the Chinese representatives assumed an attitude threatening to repudiate all agreements reached in their conversations with the Japanese representatives, and Mr. Chang Chun evaded a meeting with Mr. Kawagoe, despite the latter's repeated requests.

In consequence, Ambassador Kawagoe came to the conclusion that further delay in the negotiations because of an issue entirely irrelevant to the Nanking parley would serve no useful purpose but would only complicate the situation.

On December 3, Mr. Kawagoe handed Mr. Chang a note embodying points on which an agreement had been reached between representatives of the two countries and asked that the Chinese Government translate them into action as soon as possible.

III. Such is an outline of the actual situation of the Nanking negotiations. The Japanese Government is now watchfully waiting for the response of the Chinese Government to Ambassador Kawagoe's request. At the same time, should the Nanking Government fail to take effective steps for control of the anti-Japanese movement, and the lives and property of Japanese in China be jeopardized or the rights and interests of Japan violated, we are prepared, in view of the current condition in China, to take adequate measures to cope with the situation.

The Chengtu and Pakhoi Affairs Immediately after the outbreak of the Chengtu affair, the Japanese Embassy in China dispatched a secretary to conduct an investigation on the spot. Simultaneously, Mr. Yakichiro Suma, the then Japanese Consul-General at Nanking, commenced negotiating with General Chang Chun, the then Chinese Foreign Minister, on September 8 for a settlement of the matter. The Japanese Government attached great importance to the issue, believing that it should not be dealt with as a local affair because it was closely related to the Nanking Government and urged that a solution should be sought through negotiations between the Japanese Government and the Nanking Government so that the cause of such troubles may be eliminated once for all.

The Japanese Army also paid serious attention to the affair and on August 27, Major-General Kita, military attaché at Shanghai of the Japanese Embassy, issued a statement declaring that the Chengtu affair had two points which should be given serious consideration. In the first place, the statement declared, the Nanking Government and the Kuomintang, ingnoring the vested rights of Japan, illegally interfered in the preparations for the re-opening of the Japanese Consulate General at Chengtu and incited the Chinese people at large to oppose such re-opening. Secondly, the victims of the Chinese outrage at Chengtu were Japanese nationals duly equipped with passports and thus entitled to full protection by the Chinese authorities.

The military attaché's statement said :

"Of late, an anti-Japanese movement has been revived at various places in China, causing the frequent occurrence of untoward incidents. This reflects the deep-rooted anti-Japanese sentiment among the Chinese and so long as such conditions are allowed to exist, all efforts to adjust the relations between the two countries will be futile. Consequently, it is necessary that measures should be taken to eradicate the fundamental cause of troubles if a solution of the matter is desired.

"I believe that proper measures will be taken to solve the present affair after full details have been ascertained. In this connection, emphasis must be laid upon the necessity of dealing with the situation fundamentally in order to make the great sacrifice worth paying, instead of handling the affair as being connected with the re-opening of the Japanese consulate-general at Chengtu alone. The Japanese army will extend its full support to the diplomatic organs in their efforts to solve the matter and also will render indirect assistance in the attainment of the aim."

The Japanese naval authorities on September 3 ordered the Ataka and Atami, both of the 11th division of the 3rd Squadron and lying at Shanghai, to weigh anchor and sail up the Yangtze River to Hankow. As an additional measure to cope with the strained situation, they also ordered the Wakatake, Sanae and Kuretake, all of the 13th destroyer-flotilla, to leave South China for Shanghai on September 4 to co-

operate with the Izumo, Hasu and Kotaka in patrol work.

Close on the heels of the Chengtu affair, another anti-Japanese outrage was committed by Chinese in Pakhoi in Kwantung Province. Attaching great importance to the Pakhoi affair, the Japanese Government, which was notified of the occurrence by the Chinese side on September 8, instructed Mr. Yoshitake, acting Japanese consul-general at Canton, on September 11 to serve upon the Kwantung Provincial Government an important warning which contained the following points :

1. The Japanese Government absolutely refuses to regard the Pakhoi affair as a minor local question involving the 19th Route Army because the affair was caused by the lukewarm attitude of the Chinese authorities toward the anti-Japanese movement. The Central Chinese Government must assume the entire responsibility for the occurrence.

2. The authorities of the Kwantung Provincial Government, as local authorities under the direct control of the Nanking Government, must assume responsibility for the occurrence within their jurisdiction and should take proper steps to deal with the matter.

3. At the same time, the authorities of the Kwantung Provincial Government must immediately prohibit all anti-Japanese activities within their jurisdiction lest similar affairs should be repeated in the future.

4. In case the Chinese authorities fail to take effective, adequate measures immediately, they will be considered as lacking in sincerity in the protection of Japanese lives and property. The Japanese Government will then adopt whatever measures are deemed necessary.

Upon receipt of a report on the outbreak at Pakhoi, the Japanese naval authorities ordered the Wakatake and Sanae, both of the 13th destroyer-flotilla of the 3rd Squadron, to hasten to Pakhoi from Shanghai in order to assist the Saga, another Japanese warship already there, in watching the developments in the situation. Simultaneously, the four Japanese warships—Kuma, Fuyo, Karukaya and Asagao—which sailed from Tsingtao on September 10 were instructed to proceed southward to patrol the Pakhoi area.

Meanwhile, the anti-Japanese sentiment in Kwantung Province steadily heightened with the 19th Route Army loudly demanding the immediate declaration of war against Japan. This army constructed military establishments at various strategic points on the coastal line and prevented the Japanese enquiry commission from landing at Pakhoi to perform its duty. On account of the provocative attitude of the 19th Route Army, the situation in the Pakhoi area was so threatening that the Chinese official dispatched to investigate the affair on the spot escaped back to Canton without discharging his mission.

Thus, it became impossible for the Japanese enquiry commission to perform its task. Upon being informed of the conditions, the Japanese Government presented a demand through Mr. Shigeru Kawagoe, the Japanese Ambassador to China, for the evacuation of the Pakhoi area by the 19th Route Army on September 16. At the same time, the Japanese naval authorities served a strict warning upon both the Nanking Government and the Kwangtung Provincial Government.

At this point, General Chiang Kai-shek, president of the Chinese Executive Yuan and concurrently chairman of the National Military Council, came to realize the firm attitude of the Japanese Government and for the first time undertook to make the Kwangtung faction come to terms with the Japanese side. As a result, an agreement was reached on September 20, whereby the 19th Route Army evacuated the Pakhoi area and on September 23, the Japanese enquiry commission fulfilled its mission of ascertaining the actual state of affairs surrounding the murder of the Japanese resident by the Chinese mob.

The negotiations concerning both the Chengtu and Pakhoi affairs were opened at Nanking and were carried on even after the conversations in regard to an adjustment of the Sino-Japanese relations had been brought to a standstill. The negotiations finally resulted in an exchange of official notes between the Japanese Ambassador, Mr. Shigeru Kawagoe, and the Chinese Foreign Minister, General Chang Chun, on December 30 and both affairs were thus settled.

East Suiyuan Question During the early part of November, 1936, skirmishes began to occur between the Chinese troops in Suiyuan Province and the Inner Mongolian forces in the eastern section of Suiyuan, which attracted considerable attention of all circles. On November 20, the central publicity headquarters of the Kuomintang, the Chinese Nationalist Party, issued a statement calculated to impress foreign countries that Japan was implicated in the Suiyuan affair, thus attempting to influence the negotiations in progress at the time between Mr. Shigeru Kawa-

goe, the Japanese Ambassador to China, and General Chiang Kai-shek, president of the Chinese Executive Yuan.

In order to clarify the situation, the Japanese Foreign Office also issued a statement on November 21, which read in substance as follows :

"Japan is always concerned over the conditions prevailing in the adjoining districts of Manchoukuo territory but she has nothing to do with the clash that took place between the Suiyuan troops and the Inner Mongolian forces. It hardly requires mentioning that the Japanese Army, not to say the Japanese Government, is not assisting the Mongols in any way."

Developments Following Sian Affair The Sian affair involving the forcible detention of General Chiang Kai-shek, president of the Chinese Executive Yuan and concurrently chairman of the National Military Council, by a group of troops under the control of Marshal Chang Hsueh-liang, the erstwhile Mukden warlord, suddenly occurred in the provincial capital of Shensi on December 12 but the Generalissimo returned safely to Nanking. Further, neither the Nanking Government nor the Kuomintang showed any agitation over the occurrence. These facts were taken to prove that the national unity of China had been greatly strengthened and accordingly, it came to be urged in various circles that China should he looked again in her new light .

It happened that the political change in Japan during March brought about the formation of the Hayashi Cabinet in succession to the Hirota Ministry. On March 3, Dr. Naotake Sato who had just returned home with the intention of resigning from the post of Ambassador to France and retiring from active diplomatic service was appointed Foreign Minister of the new Cabinet. Speaking before the House of Peers and the House of Representatives, on March 8 and 11 respectively, Minister Sato set forth his foreign policy, which was well received abroad.

The Chinese interpreted Minister Sato's statements as meaning a revision of the three basic principles enunciated by Mr. Koki Hirota when he was Foreign Minister of the Okada Cabinet for adjusting Sino-Japanese relations. Further, as a result of the plenary session of the Central Executive and Central Supervisory Committees of the Kuomintang, which was held at Nanking in February, 1937, General Chang Chun was replaced by Dr. Wang Chung-hui, fermer judge of the Permanent Court of International Justice, as Foreign Minister of the Nanking Government. Following his assumption of the office, the new Chinese Foreign Minister emphasized that an adjustment of the relations between China and Japan should be based on the principles of reciprocity and equality.

In the meantime, there appeared increasing signs of a close cooperation between the Nanking Government and the Chinese Communist Army following the Sian affair. The movement launched by radical Chinese organizations for the establishment of a popular front against Japan was also intensified. All these combined to heighten the anti-Japanese sentiment among the Chinese people until finally they commenced to work desperately for placing North China under the complete control of the Nanking Government, besides demanding dissolution of the East Hopei Anti-Communist Autonomous Government.

Under these circumstances, anti-Japanese outrages were repeated by the Chinese. On May 22, a police official of the Japanese Consulate at Swatow was subjected to violence. This caused the authorities of the Japanese Foreign Office to give warning that the sympathetic attitude which the Government and people of Japan had been manifesting towards China might be lost if the Nanking Government did not deal with the anti-Japanese activities in an appropriate manner.

Immediately following the outbreak of the Swatow affair, the Japanese political situation underwent a change with the Hayashi Cabinet being replaced by a new Ministry formed under the Premiership of Prince Fumimaro Konoye, then president of the House of Peers. Ex-Premier Koki Hirota again assumed the portfolio of Foreign Affairs, which was interpreted by the Chinese to signify the revival of the so-called three Hirota principles. For this reason, they again accelerated their anti-Japanese movement and brought about conditions more unfavourable to an adjustment of Sino-Japanese relations.

The North China Incident On Wednesday night, July 7th, a small unit of Japanese troops was engaged in maneuvers on their usual grounds, near Marco Polo Bridge, southwest of Peiping, and in the vicinity of Lukouchiao and Lungwangmiao when suddenly, at 11:40 o'clock the Japanese troops were fired upon by Chinese soldiers from the directions of Lukouchiao and Lungwangmiao. The Japanese were utterly unprepared to return the fire, for they were only 150 strong and had a supply of live am-

munition amounting only to one ball-cartridge per person, which was being kept by the commanding officer. All that they could do at this critical moment was to halt their maneuvers, concentrate at a spot some distance from the Chinese, and send for help to their headquarters, situated about two and a half miles away in the former British barracks at Fengtai. Reinforcements came quickly, and with the Japanese replying with real shots to the Chinese fire, the first clash occurred.

Matters are developing from bad to worse, the fight extending finally to the direction of Shanghai at the time of writing this article, August 13, 1937.

In the meantime, an agreement was reached on July 11th, and, at 4:00 o'clock in the afternoon, the Chinese representatives, General Chang Tsu-jung, mayor of Tientsin, and General Ying Yung, chief of the Public Safety Bureau of Hopei, wrote to the Japanese representative, Colonel Matsui, agreeing to the following terms :

(1) Apology by the representatives of the 29th Army and punishment of those directly responsible.

(2) Chinese troops to evacuate Lukouchiao and to be replaced by the Peace Preservation Corps for the purpose of keeping the Chinese troops sufficiently separated from the Japanese.

(3) To take adequate measures for curbing the activities of the Blue Shirts and Communists.

In Tokyo, the Government had been studying measures for coping with the situation. The decision to send necessary forces to North China was maintained in view of the alarming news which continued to come from China regarding the provocative actions of the 29th Army soldiers, and the movements of Chinese troops not only in North China but also in South Hopei. The Japanese Government issued a statement on Japan's decision to augument Imperial force in North China. (See Chapter V.) at 4:00 p.m. on that same day :

The decision of dispatching troops to North China was not intended to frighten China into submission, nor did it mean that Japan was embarking upon a war with her. The action taken by the Japanese Government was entirely in keeping with its avowed intention not to aggravate the situation ; it was calculated to forestall any conflict which would inevitably lead to hostilities on a major scale. (See Chapter V.)

The full reports on the North China Incident will be given in the Japan Year Book, 1938.

Chronological Index of Principal Events

For the convenience of reference a chronological index of principal events in the country's foreign relations is appended :

OPENING OF THE COUNTRY
- 1853—Arrival of American fleet.
- 1854—First Japanese-American Treaty.
- 1856—Arrival of first American civil envoy, Townsend Harris.
- 1857—Harris concludes convention with the Shogunate.
- 1858—Japanese-American Commercial Treaty signed.

OCCUPATION OF TSUSHIMA BY RUSSIA
- 1861—A Russian fleet seizes the island of Tsushima but abandons it shortly afterwards through the intervention of Great Britain.

BOMBARDMENT OF KAGOSHIMA AND SHIMONOSEKI
- 1863—A British fleet bombards Kagoshima city.
- 1864—A combined fleet of Great Britain, the United States, France and the Netherlands bombards Shimonoseki.

IMPERIAL SANCTION OF TREATIES
- 1865—Treaties with Britain, France, the Netherlands, Russia and the United States are sanctioned by the Emperor.

TREATY REVISION
- 1871—Prince Iwakura's mission leaves for the United States and Europe.
- 1882—Count Inouyé's Negotiations with Britain.
- 1888—Count Okuma's Negotiations.
- „ Viscount Aoki's Negotiations.
- 1894—Revised Anglo-Japanese Treaty signed.
- 1897—Similar Treaties concluded with other Powers.

THE PERUVIAN SLAVE SHIP INCIDENT
- 1872—Japanese Government seizes Peruvian slaver "Maria Luz" in Yokohama.

EXPEDITION TO TAIWAN
- 1872—Japan sends a punitive expedition to the island.

EXCHANGE OF SAGHALIEN AND THE KURILE ISLANDS
- 1875—Japan cedes Saghalien to Russia in exchange for the Kurile Islands.

BONIN ISLAND PROBLEM
- 1875—The United States recognizes Japan's territorial sovereignty over the Bonin Islands.

CONVENTION OF TIENTSIN
1885—Count Ito and Li Hung-chang sign the convention defining Sino-Japanese relations in Korea.

NON-ALIENATION OF FUKIEN PROVINCE
1889—Japan guarantees the non-alienation of Fukien province from China.

SINO-JAPANESE WAR
1894—Japan declares war.
1895—Treaty of Shimonoseki concluded.

ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE
1902—Alliance signed in London.

RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR
1904—Japan declares war.
1905—Treaty of Portsmouth signed.

JAPANESE-AMERICAN ARBITRATION TREATY
1905—Treaty signed in Washington, D. C. on Feb. 11.

PROTECTORATE OF KOREA
1905—Protectorate convention concluded.

PEKING TREATY
1905—Sino-Japanese convention embodying relevant terms of Portsmouth Treaty signed.

EXCLUSION OF JAPANESE SCHOOL CHILDREN IN CALIFORNIA
1906—Movement is started in California for exclusion of Japanese children from common schools.

FRANCO-JAPANESE AND RUSSO-JAPANESE AGREEMENTS
1907—Franco-Japanese Convention concluded.
1907—Russo-Japanese Agreement concluded.

NEW JAPAN-KOREAN AGREEMENT
1907—New Agreement concluded allowing Japan complete supervision of Korean domestic administration.

IMMIGRATION PROBLEM IN CANADA
1907—Japan exchanges on Dec. 3 a memorandum with Canada in connection with the immigration problem.

U.S.-JAPAN ARBITRATION TREATY
1908—Treaty concluded on Sep. 12.

JAPAN-AMERICAN ACCORD
1908—Official Notes exchanged regarding the preservation of peace in the Far East.

ANTUNG-MUKDEN RAILWAY ISSUE
1909—An agreement is signed on Aug. 15 between Japan and China regarding the Antung-Mukden Railway.

PROPOSAL TO NEUTRALIZE THE SOUTH MANCHURIA RAILWAY
1910—Japan refuses on Jan. 21 to accept the proposal of Secretary of State Knox of the United States regarding neutralization of the South Manchuria Railway.

RUSSO-JAPANESE AGREEMENT
1910—A new agreement is concluded on July 4 between Japan and Russia regarding the maintenance of the status quo in Manchuria.

FINAL TREATY REVISION
1910—Japan notifies Great Britain and 10 European countries on July 17 that existing treaties will be revised a year later. On August 4, similar notices are served to France and Austria-Hungary.

ANNEXATION OF KOREA
1910—Treaty of Annexation concluded.

INTERNATIONAL COPYRIGHT TREATY
1910—Japan signs the International Copyright Treaty in Berlin on September 8.

FRANCO-JAPANESE AGREEMENT REGARDING PATENTS AND COPYRIGHT
1911—An agreement is concluded on May 8, regarding patents and copyright in China.

NEW ANGLO-JAPANESE TREATY
1911—Treaty concluded on the basis of the arbitration treaties between Great Britain and the United States.

PUBLICATION OF THE REVISED TREATIES
1911—The United States publishes revised treaty with Japan on April 5. Great Britain, Spain, and Sweden do likewise on April 6, May 15 and July 13 respectively. Italy, Belgium, Denmark, the Netherlands, Switzerland and Canada publish revised treaties with Japan simultaneously on July 15, followed by Germany, Austria-Hungary and France on July 16, August 3, and August 26 respectively.

SETTLEMENT OF RUSSO-JAPANESE INDEMNITIES
1911-The Foreign Office announces that the amounts of the indemnification of private Russian and Japanese subjects for damage done during the Russo-Japanese War have been determined.

RECOGNITION OF THE REPUBLIC OF HUNGARY
1911—Japan accords recognition on September 13.

RUSSO-JAPANESE EXTRADITION CONVENTION
1911—Convention concluded on September 13.

ANTI-JAPANESE ALIEN LAND LAW IN CALIFORNIA
1913—Passage of the so-called Webb Bill.
NANKING INCIDENT
1913—Negatiations regarding the Kunchow, Hankow and Nanking incidents are concluded on October 7, the Chinese accepting all the Japanese demands.
MANCHURIA RAILWAY TREATY
1913—A treaty is concluded between Japan and China regarding the railway building concessions.
RECOGNITION OF THE CHINESE REPUBLIC
1913—Japan recoginzes the Republic of China on October 6 simultaneously with the election of Yuan Shih-kai as president
ABOLITION OF FOREIGN SETTLEMENTS IN CHOSEN
1814—The protocol abrogating the foreign settlements in Chosen, signed on April 20 the preceding year, is published.
THE GREAT WAR
1914—Japan declares war on Germany and Austria.
SINO-JAPANESE PARLEYS
1915—The Chinese Government requests Japan January 8 to delimit the war zone in Shantung and withdraw her troops from that zone. Accordingly, Minister Hioki in Peking holds a conference with Yuan Shih-kai on January 18 to discuss Japan's counter proposals. Japan serves an ultimatum on May 6, and the Chinese Government accepts all the Japanese proposals.
SPANISH-JAPANESE TREATY
1915—Ratifications of a commercial treaty are exchanged on July 10.
ANTI-INDEPENDENT PEACE AGREEMENT
1915—Japan participates on Oct. 19 in the agreement of the Allied powers signed in London prohibiting the signatories from concluding a separate peace with Germany.
WARNING TO CHINA
1915—Anticipating distrubances in connection with the apparent designs of Yuan Shih-kai to revive the Imperial government in China, Japan issues a warning to China on October 28.
PARTICIPATION IN THE ALLIED ECONOMIC CONFERENCE
1916—Baron Yoshio Sakatani leaves for Europe on May 1, to attend the Conference in Paris.
RUSSO-JAPANESE AGREEMENT
1916—The third Russo-Japanese agreement for protection of Japanese and Russian interests in the Far East is signed on July 3.
ISHII-LANSING AGREEMENT
1917—Japan and the United States exchange notes declaring that territorial propinquity creates special relation between countries. This exchange of opinion, published on November 7, is generally known as the Ishii-Lansing Agreement.
SINO-JAPANESE MILITARY ENTENTE
1918—Entente is concluded on May 16, and its text published by the Japanese Foreign Office on May 30.
SIBERIAN EXPEDITION
1818—Japanese participation announced.
DECLARATION OF THE RENDITION OF SHANTUNG
1919—Count Uchida, the Foreign Minister announces the restoration of complete Chinese sovercignty on May 17.
RECOGNITION OF FINLAND
1919—Japan recognizes the independence of the Finnish Republic on May 23.
CONTROL OF THE SIBERIAN RAILWAY
1919—The Siberian Railway Joint Control Conference decides on June 2 to place the Ussuri line, 531.1 km. in length, and the Heilungkiang line, 2,735.6 km. in length, under the control of the Japanese experts' department of the Siberian expenditionary forces.
SEQUESTRATION OF GERMAN PROPERTY
1919—An Emergency Imperial Ordinance is issued on June 23 announcing sequestration of German property.
SIGNING OF THE PEACE TREATIES
1919—Prince Kimmochi Saionji signs the Versailles treaties at 3 o'clock in the afternoon of June 28.
PARTICIPATION IN EUROPAN PROBLEMS
1920—Baron Chinda proposes on March 2 participation in the conference concerning the Dardanelles International Control, but the Japanese proposal is rejected owing to opposition from Great Britain, France and Italy.
DEMAND FOR THE EVACUATION OF SIBERIA
1920—The Soviet Government of Irkutsk

sends an ultimatum to Japan on March 11.

NIKOLAEVSK AFFAIR
1920—Attack on Japanese consulate launched.

DECLARATION OF SIBERIAN POLICY
1920—Japanese Government issues statement re withdrawal of troops.

ANTI-JAPANESE IMMIGRATIONS
1920—Revision of regulations by the Immigration Bureau of the United States.

RENEWAL OF THE ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE
1920—The Japanese and British Governments notify the Secretariat of the League of Nation on July 14, that the duration of the Anglo-Japanese alliance will be extended for another year.

REOPENING OF THE GERMAN EMBASSY IN TOKYO
1920—Dr. Solf arrives in Japan as the first German ambassador after the Great War.

WASHINGTON CONFERENCE
1921—Conference opens with Japan participating.

THE GENEVA TRI-PARTITE NAVAL DISARMAMENT CONFERENCE
1927—Conference opens with Japan participating.

THE LONDON NAVAL DISARMAMENT CONFERENCE
1930—Conference opens with Japan participating.

THE MANCHURIAN INCIDENT
1931—Outbreak occurs at Mukden.

THE JAPAN-MANCHOUKUO PROTOCOL
1932—Protocol signed whereby Japan extends de jure recognition to the new State.

THE WORLD ECONOMIC CONFERENCE
1933—Conference opens with Japan participating.

THE JAPAN-INDIA TRADE CONFERENCE
1933—Conference held at Simla and New Delhi, India.

1934—New treaty signed at London, on July 12.

MANCHOUKUO ESTABLISHED
1934—The New State was proclaimed "Empire" and Mr. Pu-yi endorsed as Emperor. March 1.

THE JAPAN-BRITAIN TRADE CONFERENCE
1934—Conference adjourned on March 14 in failure.

THE JAPAN-DUTCH CONFERENCE
1934—Conference opened at Batavia on June 8 which adjourned on December 21 indefinitely.

TRANSFERENCE OF NORTH MANCHURIA RAILWAY
1935—Transference of North Manchuria Railway by the U.S.S.R. to Manchoukuo formally signed at Tokyo on March 23.

JAPAN'S WITHDRAWAL FROM THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS
1935—Becomes completely effective on March 26.

THE VISIT OF THE EMPEROR OF MANCHOUKUO
1935—The Emperor of Manchoukuo visits Japan and makes a formal call upon the Emperor of Japan on April 6.

SETTLEMENT OF NORTH-CHINA INCIDENT
1935—All demands of the Japanese garrison at Tientsin on various problems relating to North China accepted by the Nanking Government.

WITHDRAWAL FROM THE WASHINGTON NAVAL TREATY
1935—Japanese Government notifies the U.S.A. Government their intention to terminate the Washington Naval Treaty, December 29.

JAPAN-GERMAN AGREEMENT
1936—The Agreement guarding against the communist International was entered into, between Japan and Germany on November 25, 1936.

List of the Envoys to and from Foreign Countries

JAPANESE ENVOYS TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES

(July 1, 1937)

Country	Representative	Address
Great Britain	Shigeru Yoshida, Ambassador	Embassy of Japan, 37 Portman Square, London, W.I. England

Country	Representative	Address
Great Britain	Shinjiro Matsuyama, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, 15 St., Helen's Place, Bishopsgate, London, E.C. 3. England
France	Iwataro Uchiyama, Chargé d'Affaires	Ambassade du Japon, 24 rue Greuze, Paris, (16°) France
Germany	Viscount Kintoma Mushakōji, Ambassador	Ambassade du Japon, Berlin W. 62, Ahornstr., 1, Allemagne
,,	Sentaro Edo, Consul-General	Consulat Général du Japon, Hamburg, 1, Amsterdamm, 39, (Europahaus) Allemagne
Italy	Dr. Yotaro Sugimura, Ambassador	Ambassade du Japon, Viale Regina Magherita, 260, Rome, Italie
Belgium	Saburo Kurusu, Ambassador	Ambassade du Japon, 1 Boulevard Général Jacques, Ixelles, Bruxelles, Belgique
The U.S.S.R.	Mamoru Shigemitsu, Ambassador	Ambassade du Japon, Malaya Nikitskaya, 13, Moscou. U.R.S.S.
,,	Yujiro Sugishita Consul-General	Consulat Général du Japon, 24 Pekinskaya Ulitsa, Vladivostok, U.R.S.S.
,,	Bunichiro Tanaka, Consul-General	Consulat Général du Japon, 3 Ulitsa Imeni Dzerzinskavo, Alexandrovsk-Sakhalinsky, Sakhalin, U.R.S.S.
,,	Shigeru Shimada, Consul-General	Consulat Général du Japon, 54 Komsomolskaya Ulitsa, Habarovsk, U.R.S.S.
Turkey	Toshihiko Taketomi, Ambassador	Ambassade du Japon, Ayaz Pacha 77, Péra, Stamboul, Turquie
Manchoukuo	General Kenkichi Uyeda, Ambassador	Embassy of Japan, Hsinking
,,	Hanroku Nagaoka, Chargé d'Affaires	Consulate-General of Japan, Harbin
,,	Hakuo Shibasaki, Chargé d'Affaires	Consulate-General of Japan, Hsinking
,,	Takaichi Nakano, Chargé d'Affaires	Consulate-General of Japan, Tiehling
,,	Hiroshi Kawamura, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Chientao
,,	Shohei Morioka, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Mukden
The U.S.A.	Hiroshi Saito, Ambassador	Embassy of Japan, 2514 Massachusette Avenue, N.W. Washington, D.C., U.S.A.
,,	Toyokichi Fukuma, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, 1742 Nuuanu Avenue, Honolulu, T.H., U.S.A.
,,	Kanzō Shiosaki, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Postal Telegraph Bldg., 22 Battery St., San Francisco Cal., U.S.A.
,,	Kanamé Wakasugi, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, 500 Fifth Avenue, New York City, N.Y., U.S.A.

Country	Representative	Address
Brazil	Setsuzo Sawada, Ambassador	Ambassade du Japon, 75 Rua dos Voluntarios da Patria, Botafogo, Rio de Janeiro, Brésil
„	Kozō Ichigé, Consul-General	Consulat Général du Japon, Avenida Brigadeiro Luiz Antonio 487, São Paulo, Brésil
China	Shigeru Kawagoyé, Ambassador	Chancellery of the Embassy, Nanking
„	Tateki Horiuchi, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Tientsin
„	Shojiro Otaka, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Tsingtao
„	Masayasu Hashimoto, Chargé d'Affaires	Consulate-General of Japan, Tsinan
„	Suemasa Okamoto, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Shanghai
„	Kiyoshi Fukui, Chargé d'Affaires	Consulate-General of Japan, Nanking
„	Tadahisa Matsudaira, Chargé d'Affaires	Consulate-General of Japan, Hankow
„	Goro Uchida, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Fuchow
„	Toyoichi Nakamura, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Canton
„	Hisakichi Okamoto, Chargé-d'Affaires	Consulate-General of Japan, Prince's Bldg., 5, Ice House St., Hong-Kong
Switzerland	Eiji Amō, Minister	Légation du Japon, 95 Thunstrasse, Berne, Suisse
„	Masayuki Yokoyama, Consul-General	Consulate-Général du Japon, 39, Quai, W. Wilson, Genève, Suisse
Spain	Makoto Yano, Minister	Légation du Japon, Calle de Alcalá 87, Madrid, Espagne
Portugal	Genichiro Omori, Chargé d'Affaires (ad interim)	Légation du Japon, Praça do Rio de Janeiro 14, Lisbôa, Portugal
Holland	Kazue Kuwajima, Minister	Légation du Japon, 1 Guliana van Stolberglaan, Den Haag, Pays-Bas
Sweden	Baron Keizo Fujii, Chargé d'Affaires	Légation du Japon, 25 Standvägen, Stockholm, Suède
Finland	Shuichi Sakoh, Minister	Légation du Japon, Puistokatu 11, B, Helsingfors, Finlande
Latvia	Shin Sakuma, Minister	Légation du Japon, Jura Alunana iela 2, dz 2. Riga, Lettonie
Poland	Nobubumi Itō, Minister	Légation du Japon, Ulica Bronislawa Pierackiego 10, Varsovie, Pologne
Czechoslovakia	Keinosuke Fujii, Minister	Légation du Japon, Palace "Fenix," č 60-62, Václavaské Náměsti, Praha-11, Tchécoslovaquie

Country	Representative	Address
Austria	Masayuki Tani, Minister	Légation du Japon, Wien III, Kölblgasse 1, Autriche
Rumania	Sho Kurihara, Minister	Légation du Japon, Str. G.G. Cantacuzino 33, Bucarest, Roumanie
Greece	Toshihiko Taketomi, Minister	Légation du Japon, 23 Avenue de la Reine Sophie Athènes, Grèce
Iran	Shunsuke Asada, Chargé d'Affaires	Légation du Japon, Avenue Pahlavi, Téhéran, Iran
Siam	Takashi Mori, Chargé d'Affaires	Legation of Japan, 545 Rajaprarob Road, Makasan, Bangkok, Siam
,,	Takaharu Ito, Consul-General	Consulate General of Japan 545 Rajaprarob Road Makasan, Bangkok, Siam
Canada	Takeo Kinoshita, Chargé d'Affaires	Legation of Japan, Victoria Bldg., 140 Wellington St., Ottawa, Ontario, Canada
Mexico	Saichiro Koshida, Minister	Légation du Japon, Avenida de Los Insurgentes, 190, Colonia, Roma, México, D.F., Mexique
,,	Shun-ichiro Kawahara, Consul-General	Consulat-Général du Japon, Avenida de Los Insurgentes, 190, Colonia, Roma, México, D.F., Mexique
Peru	Nobuo Fujimura, Chargé d'Affaires	Légation du Japon, Avenida Arequipa 610, Lima, Pérou
Chile	Tetsuichiro Miyake, Minister	Légation du Japon Avenida Pedro de Valdivia 522, Santiago, Chili
Argentine	Hirobumi Terajima, Chargé d'Affaires	Légation du Japon, Calle Reconquista 336, Buenos Aires, Argentine
Afghanistan	Masamoto Kitada, Minister	Légation du Japon Kaboul, Afghanistan
Cuba	Hidenari Terasaki, Chargé d'Affaires	Légation du Japon Avenida de Bélgica entre Avenida de los Aliados y Victoria, Altura de Almendares, Habana, Cuba
Colombia	Yoshio Iwaté, Minister	Légation du Japon Edificio de Banco de la Republica, Bogota, Columbie
Egypt	Ototsugu Saito, Chargé d'Affaires	Légation du Japon, No. 6 Rue Hadika Garden City: Le Caire, Egypte
Singapore	Kiichi Gunji, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Union Bldg., Collyer Quay, Singapore, Straits Settlements
Philippines	Kiyoshi Uchiyama, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Willson Bldg., 143 Juan Luna, Binondo, Manila, P.I.

Country	Representative	Address
Dutch East Indies	Yutaka Ishizawa, Chargé d'Affaires	Consulate-General of Japan, Scottweg 23, Batavia-Centrum, Java
British India	Kikuji Yonezawa, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, No. 5 Esplanade Mansions, Government Place East, Calcutta, British India
French Indo-China	——	Consulat-Général du Japon, 76 Boulevard Carnot, Hanoi, Tonkin, Indochine
Australia	Torao Wakamatsu, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Grace Bldg., 77 York St., Sydney, New South Wales, Australia

FOREIGN ENVOYS TO JAPAN

(March 15, 1937)

Country	Representative	Address in Tokyo
Afghanistan	Habibullah Khan Tarzi, Minister	7 Aoba-cho, Shibuya-ku
Germany	Dr. Herbert von Dirksen, Ambassador	14, 1-chomé, Nagatacho, Kojimachi-ku
The U.S.A.	Joseph Clark Grew, Ambassador	1 Enokizaka-machi, Akasaka-ku
Argentine	Eduardo Racedo, Minister	67 Shinsaka-machi, Akasaka-ku
Belgium	Le Baron de Bassompierre, Ambassador	33 Shimoniban-cho, Kojimachi-ku
Brazil	Pedro Leão Velloso, Ambassador	2, 3-chomé, Omoté-cho, Akasaka-ku
Canada	R. Randolph Bruce, Minister	16, 3-chomé, Omoté-cho, Akasaka-ku
Chile	Martin Figueroa, Minister	7, 1-chomé, Shirokané Dai-machi, Shiba-ku
China	Hsu Shih-Ying, Ambassador	14, 6-chomé, Iigura-machi, Azabu-ku
Colombia	Dr. Domingo Esguerra, Minister	Yusen Kaisha Building, Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku
Cuba	——	Osaka Building, Uchisaiwai-cho, Kojimachi-ku
Denmark	Baron Rudolph Bertouch-Lehn, Minister	52, Hikawa-cho, Akasaka-ku
Spain	——	2, 1-chomé, Ichibei-cho, Azabu-ku
Finland	Hugo Valvanne, Minister	62 Tansu-machi, Azabu-ku
France	Charles Arsène-Henry, Ambassador	33 Fujimi-cho, Azabu-ku
Great Britain	Sir Robert Clive, Ambassador	1 Goban-cho, Kojimachi-ku
Iran	Mirza Bagher Khan Azimi, Minister	55 Zaimoku-cho, Azabu-ku
Italy	Giacinto Auriti, Ambassador	28, 1-chomé, Mita, Shiba-ku
Manchoukuo	Hsieh Chieh-Shin, Ambassador	50 Sakurada-cho, Azabu-ku
Mexico	Général Francisco J. Agulilar, Minister	21, 2-chomé, Nagata-cho, Kojimachi-ku
Norway	Finn Koren, Minister	17 Aoyama Takagi-cho, Akasaka-ku
Holland	Général J.C. Pabst, Minister	1 Sakaé-cho, Shiba-ku
Peru	Dr. Ricardo Rivera Schreiber, Minister	2, Hiroo-cho, Azabu-ku
Poland	Michel Mościcki, Minister	9 Mita-Tsuna-machi, Shiba-ku
Portugal	Dr. Thomaz Ribeiro de Mello, Minister	1 Sannen-cho, Kojimachi-ku
Rumania	Georges G. Stoicesco, Minister	55 Zaimoku-cho, Azabu-ku
Siam	Phra Mitrakarm Raksha, Minister	2 Dai-machi, Akasaka-ku
Sweden	Widar Bagge, Minister	63 Zaimoku-cho, Azabu-ku

Country	Representative	Address
Switzerland	Walter Thurnheer, Minister	1 Shimoniban-cho, Kojimachi-ku
Czechoslovakia	Frantisĕk Havliček, Minister	22 Kasumi-cho, Azabu-ku
Turkey	R. Husrev Gerede, Ambassador	47 Kamiyama-cho, Shibuya-ku
The U.S.S.R.	Constantin Youreneff, Ambassador	1 Mamiana-cho, Azabu-ku
Uruguay	Eduardo Daniel de Arteaga, Chargé d'Affaires (ad interim)	Rooms Nos. 251-252, Osaka Building, 3, 1-chomé, Uchi-saiwai-cho, Kojimachi-ku

Japanese consulates are established in the following places :

Country	Situation of Consulates
Canada	Ottawa, Vancouver
Great Britain	Liverpool
France	Merseilles
Italy	Milan
Belgium	Antwerp
Sweden	Stockholm
U. S. S. R.	Blagovestchensk
U. S. S. R.	Odessa
U. S. S. R.	Novosivirsk
U. S. S. R.	Petropavlovsk
Manchoukuo	Manchuli
Manchoukuo	Tsitsihar
Manchoukuo	Chinchow
Manchoukuo	Antung
Manchoukuo	Chengchiatun
Manchoukuo	Hailoerh
Manchoukuo	Yingkou
Manchoukuo	Chifeng
Manchoukuo	Chengte
China	Chang Kiakou
China	Chefoo
China	Hangchow
China	Soochow
China	Wuhu
China	Chengchow
China	Kiukiang
China	Ichang
China	Shashi
China	Changsha
China	Chungking
China	Amoy
China	Swatow
China	Yunnan
Cochin China	Saigon
Siam	Bangkok
Burma	Rangoon
Java	Sourabaya
Sumatra	Medan
India	Bombay
Ceylon	Colombo
Philippines	Davao
Egypt	Port Said
Egypt	Alexandria
Union of South Africa	Cape Town
British East Africa	Mombasa
U. S. A.	Los Angeles
U. S. A.	Portland
U. S. A.	Chicago
U. S. A.	Seattle
U. S. A.	New Orleans
Cuba	Havana
Panama	Panama
Salvador	San Salvador
Mexico	Mazatlan
Argentine	Buenos Aires
Peru	Lima
Brazil	São Paulo
Brazil	Rio de Janeiro
Brazil	Belén

The following foreign consulates are registered.

Conntry	Situation of Consulates
Germany	Yokohama, Kobé, Dairen, Osaka.
Argentine	Yokohama, Kobé, Osaka, Nagoya, Tokyo.
Austria	Tokyo.
Belgium	Yokohama, Kobé Keijo, Dairen, Osaka.
Bolivia	Yokohama, Osaka, Kobé Tokyo.
Brazil	Kobé, Yokohama, Nagasaki.
Chile	Tokyo, Kobé.
China	Yokohama, Kobé, Nagasaki, Fusan, Genzan, Taihoku, Keijo, Shingishu.
Colombia	Yokohama.
Cuba	Kobé.
Denmark	Tokyo, Yokohama, Kobé, Nagasaki, Osaka.
Spain	Yokohama, Kobé.
U. S. A.	Tokyo, Yokohama, Nagoya, Kobé, Nagasaki, Taihoku, Keijo, Dairen.
France	Yokohama, Kobé, Dairen, Nagasaki, Tansui, Keijo.
Great Britain	Tokyo, Yokohama, Osaka, Kobé, Shimonoseki, Nagasaki, Tansui, Keijo, Dairen, Jinsen, Hakodate, Fukuoka, Otaru.
Finland	Kobé, Yokohama, Dairen,
Greece	Yokohama, Kobé, Osaka.
Italy	Kobé, Yokohama, Nagasaki, Taihoku, Dairen.

Country	Situation of Consulates
Mexico	Yokohama, Kobé.
Norway	Tokyo, Yokohama Kobé, Shimonoseki, Nagasaki, Tansui, Dairen.
Holland	Tokyo, Nagoya, Yokohama, Kobé, Nagasaki, Taihoku, Keijo, Dairen, Shimonoseki.
Panama	Yokohama.
Peru	Yokohama, Kobé.
Portugal	Tokyo, Kobé, Nagoya, Kyoto, Osaka, Moji, Shimonoseki, Nagasaki.
U. S. S. R.	Kobé, Hakodate, Keijo, Otaru, Tsuruga, Dairen.
Sweden	Yokohama, Osaka, Kobé, Shimonoseki, Moji, Nagasaki, Dairen.
Switzerland	Tokyo.
Venezuela	Kobé, Tokyo, Yokohama.
Poland	Osaka, Tokyo.
Czechoslovakia	Yokohama, Tokyo, Osako, Kobé.
Siam	Osaka.
Handuras	Tokyo, Kobé, Yokohama.
Salvador	Tokyo.
Latvia	Tokyo.
Dominica	Kobé.
Guatemala	Tokyo. Yokohama, Kobé.
Turkey	Osaka, Yokohama, Tokyo.
Uruguay	Kobé, Yokohama.
Rumania	Osaka.
Luxemburg	Tokyo.
Egypt	Kobé.
Yugoslavia	Osaka.
Haiti	Osaka.

CHAPTER VII

NATIONAL DEFENCE

The Imperial Precepts to The Soldiers and Sailors

The forces of Our Empire are in all ages under the command of the Emperor. It is more than twenty-five centuries since the Emperor Jimmu, leading in person the soldiers of the Otomo and Mononobé clans, subjected the unruly tribes of the land and ascended the Imperial Throne to rule over the whole country. During this period the military system has undergone frequent changes in accordance with those in the state of society. In ancient times the rule was that the Emperor should take personal command of the forces; and although the military authority was sometimes delegated to the Empress or to the Prince Imperial, it was scarcely ever entrusted to a subject. In the middle ages, when the civil and military institutions were framed after the Chinese model, the Six Guards were founded, the Right and Left Horse Bureax established, and other organizations, such as that of the Coast Guards, created. The military system was thus completed, but, habituated to a prolonged state of peace, the Imperial Court gradually lost its administrative vigour; in course of time soldiers and farmers became distinct classes, and the early conscription system was replaced by an organization of volunteers, which finally produced the military class. The military power passed over entirely to the leaders of this class; through disturbances in the Empire the political power also fell into their hands; and for about seven centuries the military families held sway. Although these results followed from changes in the state of society and were beyond human control, they were deeply to be deplored, since they were contrary to the fundamental character of Our Empire and to the law of Our Imperial Ancestors. Later on, in the eras of Kokwa and Kaei, the decline of the Tokugawa Shogunate and the new aspect of foreign relations even threatened to impair our national dignity, causing no small anxiety to Our August Grandfather, the Emperor Ninko, and Our August Father, the Emperor Komei, a fact which We recall with awe and gratitude. When in youth We succeeded to the Imperial Throne, the Shogun returned into Our hands the administrative power, and all the feudal lords their fiefs; thus, in a few years, Our entire realm was unified and the ancient régime restored. Due as this was to the meritorious services of Our loyal officers and wise councillors, civil and military, and to the abiding influence of Our Ancestors' benevolence towards the people, yet it must also be attributed to Our subjects' true sense of loyalty and their conviction of the importance of "Great Righteousness." In consideration of these things, being desirous of reconstructing Our military system and of enhancing the glory of Our Empire, We have in the course of the last fifteen years established the present system of the Army and Navy. The supreme command of Our forces is in Our hands, and although We may entrust subordinate commands to Our subjects, yet the ultimate authority We Ourself shall hold and never delegate to any subject. It is Our will that this principle be carefully handed down to posterity and that the Emperor always retain the supreme civil and military power, so that the disgrace of the middle and succeeding ages may never be repeated. Soldiers and Sailors, We are your supreme Commander-in-Chief. Our relations with you will be most intimate when We rely upon you as Our limbs and you look up to Us as your head. Whether We are able to guard the Empire, and so prove Ourself worthy of Heaven's blessings and repay the benevolence of Our Ancestors, depends upon the faithful discharge of your duties as soldiers and sailors. If the majesty and power of Our Empire be impaired, do you share with Us the sorrow; if the glory of Our arms shine resplendent, We will share with you the honour. If you all do your duty, and being one with Us in spirit do your utmost for the protection of the state, Our people will long enjoy the blessings of peace, and the might and dignity of our Empire will shine in the world. As We thus expect much of you, Soldiers and Sailors, We give you the following precepts:—

(1) The soldier and the sailor should

consider loyalty their essential duty. Who that is born in this land can be wanting in the spirit of grateful service to it? No soldier or sailor, especially, can be considered efficient unless this spirit be strong within him. A soldier or a sailor in whom this spirit is not strong, however skilled in art or proficient in science, is a mere puppet; and a body of soldiers or sailors wanting in loyalty, however well ordered and disciplined it may be, is in an emergency no better than a rabble. Remember that, as the protection of the state and the maintenance of its power depend upon the strength of its arms, the growth or decline of this strength must affect the nation's destiny for good or for evil; therefore neither be led astray by current opinions nor meddle in politics, but with single heart fulfil your essential duty of loyalty, and bear in mind that duty is weightier than a mountain, while death is lighter than a feather. Never by failing in moral principle fall into disgrace and bring dishonour upon your name.

(2) The soldier and the sailor should be strict in observing propriety. Soldiers and sailors are organized in grades, from the Marshal and the Admiral of the Fleet down to the private soldier or ordinary seaman; and even within the same rank and grade there are differences in seniority of service according to which juniors should submit to their seniors. Inferiors should regard the orders of their superiors as issuing directly from Us. Always pay due respect not only to your superiors but also to your seniors, even though not serving under them. On the other hand, superiors should never treat their inferiors with contempt or arrogance. Except when official duty requires them to be strict and severe, superiors should treat their inferiors with consideration, making kindness their chief aim, so that all grades may unite in their service to the Emperor. If you, Soldiers and Sailors, neglect to observe propriety, treating your superiors with disrespect and your inferiors with harshness, and thus cause harmonious co-operation to be lost, you will not only be a blight upon the forces but also be unpardonable offenders against the state.

(3) The soldier and the sailor should esteem valour. Ever since the ancient times valour has in our country been held in high esteem, and without it Our subjects would be unworthy of their name. How then may the soldier and the sailor, whose profession it is to confront the enemy in battle, forget even for one instant to be valiant? But there is true valour and false. To be incited by mere impetuosity to violent action cannot be called true valour. The soldier and the sailor should have sound discrimination of right and wrong, cultivate self-possession, and form their plans with deliberation. Never to despise an inferior enemy or fear a superior, but to do one's duty as soldier or sailor—this is true valour. Those who thus appreciate true valour should in their daily intercourse set gentleness first and aim to win the love and esteem of others. If you affect valour and act with violence, the world will in the end detest you and look upon you as wild beasts. Of this you should take heed.

(4) The soldier and the sailor should highly value faithfulness and righteousness. Faithfulness and righteousness are the ordinary duties of man, but the soldier and the sailor, in particular, cannot be without them and remain in the ranks even for a day. Faithfulness implies the keeping of one's word, and righteousness the fulfilment of one's duty. If then you wish to be faithful and righteous in any thing, you must carefully consider at the outset whether you can accomplish it or not. If you thoughtlessly agree to do something that is vague in its nature and bind yourself to unwise obligations, and then try to prove yourself faithful and righteous, you may find yourself in great straits from which there is no escape. In such cases your regrets will be of no avail. Hence you must first make sure whether the thing is righteous and reasonable or not. If you are convinced that you cannot possibly keep your word and maintain righteousness, you had better abandon your engagement at once. Ever since the ancient times there have been repeated instances of great men and heroes who, overwhelmed by misfortune, have perished and left a tarnished name to posterity, simply because in their effort to be faithful in small matters they failed to discern right and wrong with reference to fundamental principles, or because, losing sight of the true path of public duty, they kept faith in private relations. You should, then, take serious warning by these examples.

(5) The soldier and the sailor should make simplicity their aim. If you do not make simplicity your aim, you will become effeminate and frivolous and acquire fondness for luxurious and extravagant ways; you will finally grow selfish and sordid and sink to the last degree of baseness, so that neither loyalty nor valour will avail to save you

from the contempt of the world. It is not too much to say that you will thus fall into a life-long misfortune. If such an evil once makes its appearance among soldiers and sailors, it will certainly spread like an epidemic, and martial spirit and morale will instantly decline. Although, being greatly concerned on this point, We lately issued the Disciplinary Regulations and warned you against this evil, nevertheless, being harassed with anxiety lest it should break out, We hereby reiterate Our warning. Never do you, Soldiers and Sailors, make light of this injunction.

These five articles should not be disregarded even for a moment by soldiers and sailors. Now for putting them into practice, the all important is sincerity. These five articles are the soul of Our soldiers and sailors, and sincerity is the soul of these articles, If the heart be not sincere, words and deeds, however good, are all mere outward show and can avail nothing. If only the heart be sincere, anything can be accomplished. Moreover, these five articles are the Grand Way of Heaven and Earth and the universal law of humanity, easy to observe and to practise. If you, Soldiers and Sailors, in obedience to Our instruction, will observe and practise these principles and fulfil your duty of grateful service to the country, it will be a source of joy, not to Ourself alone, but to all people of Japan.

The 4th day of the 1st month of
the 15th Year of Meiji.
(Imperial Sign Manual)

General

Special Position of Army and Navy The Japanese Army and Navy are under the direct command of the Emperor and neither the Government nor the Diet has any right to interfere in the strategic actions or the number of men or ships to be maintained. In making any decision on military and naval strength or the organization thereof, the Emperor consults the Chiefs of the respective General Staffs, who are thereupon required to submit their plans direct to His Majesty. The plans are then handed to the Prime Minister, who in his turn consults the Diet as to the necessary appropriations. Thus the Diet, while powerless to interfere with the actual naval and military projects, is entitled to determine the amount to be appropriated for their execution. If, however, the Service estimates are reduced in such a way as to render the original projects impossible of excution, this is deemed to be an infringement of the Imperial Prerogative under Article XII of the Constitution.

The Board of Field Marshals and Fleet Admirals This Board was created in 1898 as the Emperor's highest advisory body on military and naval affairs. Its members are at present as follows :

Field Marshal H. I. H. Prince Kan-in ;
Field Marshal H. I. H. Price Nashimoto ;
Fleet Admiral H. I. H. Prince Fushimi.

The High Military Council This is a larger advisory body which was created in 1887. Its membership includes, in addition to that of the above-mentioned Board, the Ministers of War and Marine, the Chiefs of the Naval and Military General Staffs and other generals and admirals specially nominated by the Emperor. Its functions are to advise the Emperor on all matters appertaining to war, especially on the correlation of the various departments of military administration, in the broader sense of the world. The Council may meet sections to deliberate and tender advice on issues concerning the Army or Navy separately.

Present members specially nominated by the Emperor are :

Lieutenant-General	H. I. H. Prince Asaka
Lieutenant-General	H. I. H. Prince Higashkuni
Admiral	Sankichi Takahashi
Admiral	Hisanori Fujita
General	Hisaichi Terauchi
Admiral	Nobumasa Suetsugu
Admiral	Minéo Ōsumi
Lieutenant-General	Kotaro Nakamura

The Military Service System The system of compulsory military service in Japan is by no means a new one. It was established for the first time at the political innovation of Taika (646 A.D.). And the underwent a number of changes in course of time. It was improved greatly by the Taihorei promulgated by the Mommu Tenno in the year 701 A.D. According to this law the whole country was divided into several military districts to facilitate the operation of the law and one-third of the youth in each district was compulsorily enlisted for military discipline. The number of the trained men in Japan in those days is said to have reached more than 100,000. A long period of peace then ensued, with the result that the law gradually dropped out of practice, giving room to the emergence of a division of people into two classes ; namely, warriors on the

one hand and farmers on the other.

The present law relating to military conscription was promulgated in 1872. By this law the conscription system of the country was brought back to what it was in the former times. This is numbered as one of the greatest achievements of the Meiji Tenno.

The fundamental aspects of the Japanese military service system are that it is based upon the unique nature of the Japanese policy and that the people, though the system is called compulsory so far as nomenclature goes, are not only willing, but deem it the highest honour, to serve in the army and the navy. All Japanese men, between 17 and 40 (except those who are disabled or those who have been imprisoned for six years or more) are required to serve.

The service is divided as follows :

(1) Jobi hei-eki (standing service). This is of two kinds : (a) Gen-eki (active service), 2 years for the army and 3 years for the navy ; (b) Yobi-eki (1st reserve service), 5 years and 4 months for the army and 4 years for the navy.

(2) Kobi hei-eki (2nd reserve service), 10 years for the army and 5 years for the navy.

(3) Hoju hei-eki (replenishment reserve service). This is divided into two categories : — (a) First Supplementary Untrained Reservists, 2 years and 4 months for the army and 1 year for the navy, (b) Second Supplementary Untrained Reservists, 12 years and 4 months for the army and 11 years and 4 months for the Navy.

(4) Kokumin hei-eki (national service or Militia), extending in principle for the necessary period in either arm for the man to reach the age of 40.

Men are subjected to medical examination for conscription at the age of 20, and are classed as follows :

Class I ; Class II, A, Class II, B ; Class III ; Class IV ; and Class V. They are then allocated to the various categories of service according to their medical class as follows :

Medical Class	Description	Service to which Allocated
I, II A and B	Fit for active service.	Active service or replenishment reserve.
III	Fit for national service, but not for active servsce.	National service
IV	Unfit for any service.	Exempt from all service.
V	Nature of fitness undecided (may be included in Class I or Class II, A or B, in the following year.)	Allocation Postponed

They are then drafted to different branches of service according to the districts to which they belong and their ability and occupation.

Those who are fit for active service (Class I, Class II, A and B) are enrolled by lottery, at each conscription district, for active service or 1st or 2nd replenishment reserve. (Volunteer enrolments for active service are accepted.) Those having finished the period of active service are placed on the 1st reserve list for terms as stated above. At the end of such terms they are removed to the 2nd reserve, and then finally to the national service. Those who have gone through the period of replenishment reserve service are also transferred to the national service.

Sole supporters of families, and criminals sentenced to over 6 years' imprisonment or penal servitude are also exempt from service,. Those studying at certain schools, Government or private, which are recognized to be of equivalent or superior status to that of middle schools are exempt from conscription examination until the completion of their studies or until they attain their 27th year. Those staying abroad enjoy postponement of service under similar conditions, the age limit being 37.

By virtue of a revision of the conscription law in 1927, the active service of conscripts who have finished the course of a Young Peoples' School is reduced by six months, while that of the graduates from normal schools by nineteen months. In other words, the former have to serve only eighteen months and the latter only five months, instead of full two years. A similar system of short term active service has also been adopted by the Navy.

The term of active service for graduates of middle schools and higher grade schools who have received full disciplinary training while at school and passed the final examination thereof is reduced to 12 months.

The conscription examination of such students is postponed till they reach the age of full 27 years.

After 3 month's active service they may be chosen as cadets and get special

traning for the remaining 9 months. They may be promoted, according to ability, to either corporals or second lieutenants in the first reserve service at or after the expiration of active service. From among the graduates of technical or scientific departments of universities cadets may be chosen to supply technical officers of artillery, engineer and air forces.

Examination for Conscription According to medical examination, conscripts are classified into six grades as mentioned above. The figures for the past 8 years, 1928–1936, were as follows :

	Total Number Examined	Class I	Class II A	Class II B	Class III	Class IV	Class V
1928	568,796	171,744	64,970	119,783	171,758	39,861	680
1929	585,819	175,979	69,372	119,721	178,790	41,075	882
1930	595,505	174,482	69,275	121,961	187,863	40,989	938
1931	619,146	178,355	72,617	124,942	200,263	42,245	724
1932	621,844	174,282	71,556	125,938	207,401	41,951	716
1933	631,099	178,994	72,796	132,681	205,777	40,141	710
1934	641,969	185,432	72,979	135,275	206,810	40,822	651
1935	633,886	188,470	72,833	130,041	201,716	40,108	718
1936	630,802	195,832	73,722	134,744	186,610	34,316	578

Statistics on height and weight ascertained through the medical examinations for recent 8 years, 1928–1936, are as follows :

	Average Height	Average Weight
1928	1.596 m.	52.639 kg.
1929	1.602 m.	52.823 kg.
1930	1.598 m.	52.727 kg.
1931	1.600 m.	53.007 kg.
1932	1.600 m.	52.841 kg.
1933	1.602 m.	52.816 kg.
1934	1.603 m.	52.994 kg.
1935	1.603 m.	52.950 kg.
1936	1.603 m.	53.176 kg.

The grades of education attained by men examined for conscription in recent 8 years, 1928–1936, were :

	University	Higher School	Middle School	Higher Elementary School and Young People's School	Elementary School	Elementary School (Unfinished)	Uneducated
1928	81	1,209	43,309	266,611	209,413	42,200	5,973
1929	143	3,589	50,684	284,081	205,362	36,408	5,553
1930	493	7,303	65,944	296,829	197,312	31,812	4,812
1931	1,721	11,406	65,698	313,628	192,772	28,913	5,009
1932	3,741	13,188	69,147	324,204	182,064	25,323	4,177
1933	6,616	15,049	70,422	339,677	174,024	21,634	3,677
1934	9,031	16,467	72,622	356,135	165,240	18,802	3,672
1935	10,057	17,031	72,034	358,107	155,851	17,394	3,412
1936	10,285	17,155	70,992	373,823	140,910	14,591	3,046

Of those listed above as uneducated 3,463 for 1928, 3,045 for 1929, 2,873 for 1930, 3,090 for 1931, 2,543 for 1932, 2,268 for 1933, 2,433 for 1934, 2,220 for 1935 and 2,044 for 1936 were illiterates. The ratio of illiteracy, which was 4.28 per cent in 1903, 3.44 in 1911 and 2.17 in 1915, has been decreasing steadily, being 0.88 in 1925, 0.70 in 1927, 0.61 in 1928, 0.38 in 1934, 0.35 in 1935 and 0.32 in 1936.

Classified according to occupations of the households from which conscripts come in 1936, farmers head the list with 196,419 or 31.1 per cent of the total. Details follow :

Farmers	196,419
Fishermen	17,512
Miners	8,658
Industrial workers	192,348
Commercial workers	95,867
Transportation	24,486
Communications	5,807
Officials	16,698
Educators, priests, literary men, etc.	30,436
Miscellaneous	14,117
Unoccupied	28,454
Total	630,802

Volunteers The number of volunteers who are from 17 to 20 years of age, regulated by the Military Service Law, Article 7, was 25,891 in 1935 and 13,926 of which were allowed to enter the active service, a decrease of 182 in the number of volunteers and an increase of 1,132 in that of those who passed examination as compared with the previous year.

Conscripts and Leave of Absence Conscripts may return home to attend to family business for periods varying with the necessity of the case, but in no case exceeding 14 days. This departure from the general rule was proposed in 1919 to meet the convenience of the families of conscripts and was carried into effect at once.

Courts-Martial The Court-Martial Law provides that (1) all offences committed by officers and men shall be given public trial, (2) accused persons shall be given the benefit of counsel in their defence. Provision is also made for appeal.

The Army has eight courts-martial, namely, the High, the Divisional and six other temporary ones; the Navy has seven, the High, the Tokyo, the Admiralty and four other temporary ones. Courts-martial are always composed of judges (military or naval officers), law officials (civil) and clerks. The number of these varies in accordance with the nature of the court in question.

Gendarmerie The gendarmerie is under the control of the War Minister and mainly takes charge of military police, although it may assist civil or judicial police. Orders may, therefore, come from Ministers of Home Affairs and Justice. As military police its function is to see military laws and order kept. Guarding of military secrets, policing of fortress districts and naval stations, enforcement of laws concerning conscription, active service, calling out of the reserve, enforcing levy and martial laws, general surveillance of military discipline, and keeping order in war districts; there things come under its administrative responsibility. The searching and detection of crimes among military men, the collection of evidences and the arrest of culprits come under its judicial responsibility. The number of gendarmes is: Japan proper 1,450, Korea 490, Manchuria 190, and Formosa 90.

The Army

Outline History The Army under the Imperial régime was organized for the first time in the fourth year of Meiji (1871), when the samurai of the Kagoshima, Kochi and Yamaguchi clans formed an Imperial Bodyguard consisting of a few battalions, and four regular army divisions were established in Tokyo, Osaka, Kumamoto and Sendai. In January, 1873, the Government adopted a conscription system, by which members of all social classes were held equally liable for military service. The divisions in Nagoya and Hiroshima, which were established that year, were the first fighting units in this country to contain members of the farmer, merchant and other non-samurai classes. The total strength of the Japanese Army at that time was seven divisions consisting of about 36,000 men on peace standing and 46,250 on a war footing.

The number of soldiers to be mobilized was steadily increased after the Saigo Rebellion of 1877, but it was with this "cadre" of seven divisions that Japan defeated China in 1894–5. In the ten years following the Japan-China War, six more divisions were established with the result that Japan was able to put nearly one million men in the field during the Russo-Japanese War of 1904–5.

In 1922 Japan's Army strength reached twenty-one divisions consisting of 308,000 men on peace standing. The peaceful atmosphere in world affairs after the European War and the national financial condition made it necessary for Japan to reduce the army, and as the result of a readjustment effected between 1922 and 1924, a reduction of 1,800 officers, 56,000 men and 13,000 horses was made. This corresponds to a reduction of about five divisions on peace standing. In May, 1925, four more divisions (the 13th, 15th, 17th and 18th) was abolished, and the present strength of the Japanese Army is 17 divisions and about 230,000 men on peace standing, inclusive of the Taiwan and Kwantung Armies.

Army Expenditure

The Army expenditure from 1893–94 down to 1937–38 have been as follows:

Year	Running Expenses	Extraordinary Expenses	Total
1893-94	¥ 12,420,000	¥ 2,301,000	¥ 14,721.000
(Just before Sino-Japanese War)			
1896-97	32,614,000	30,629,000	53,243,000
1903-04	39,353,000	7,529,000	46,884,000
(Just before Russo-Japanese War)			
1906-07	37,835,000	30,045,000	67,870,000
(Just after Russo-Japanese War)			
1912-13	80,175,000	23,950,000	104,125,000
1917-18	88,344,000	35,093,000	123,437,000
1923-24	176,224,000	47,704,000	223,927,000
1924-25	179,331,000	27,403,000	206,734,000
1925-26	170,761,000	44,044,000	214,805,000
1926-27	167,561,000	29,380,000	199,941,000
1927-28	174,190,000	43,913,000	218,104,000
1928-29	167,620,000	81,486,000	249,106,000
1929-30	178,898,000	48,356,000	227,255,000
1930-31	174,546,000	26,278,000	200,824,000
1931-32	163,679,000	63,808,000	227,488,000
1932-33	148,266,000	225,309,000	373,575,000
1933-34	166,471,000	296,173,000	462,644,000
1934-35 (Budget)	169,038,000	284,656,000	453,694,000
1935-36 („)	179,803,000	313,155,000	492,958,000
1936-37 („)	190,900,000	317,400,000	508,310,000
1937-38 („)	217,804,071	510,161,269	727,965,340

ARMY BUDGET FOR 1937-38

(In Yen)

	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Inconnection with Manchurian Incident	Total
Fundamental needs	216,399,408	119,639,178	—	336,038,586
New demands				
For strengthening Imperial Armies in Manchoukuo	—	—	234,728,244	234,728,244
For a greater air force and defence thereof	9,216,117	58,087,313	34,885,103	102,188,533
For improvements of army organization and facilities	5,530,058	19,210,954	—	24,714,012
Scientific preparations	—	40,000,000	—	40,000,000
Others	3,423,865	4,813,154	—	8,237,019
Total of new demands	18,170,040	122,111,421	269,613,347	409,894,808
Reductions from the total of new demands				
Because of the removal of armies in Japan proper to Manchoukuo	16,443,185	941,850	—	17,385,035
Reduction in accordance with the net expenditure in the past 3 years	25,885	18,750	—	44,635
Others	296,307	242,077	—	538,384
Total of the reductions	16,765,377	1,202,677	—	17,968,054
Net new demands	1,404,663	120,908,744	269,613,347	391,926,754
Sum total	217,804,071	240,547,922	269,613,347	727,965,340

Explanations Of the fundamental needs ordinary expenses include disbursements for supporting standing armies, offices and schools while extraordinary expenses are for usual improvements, repairs, etc. indispensable in peace time.

Among the new demands ¥234,000,000 is to be expended for the support and re-inforcement of Imperial Armies in Manchoukuo. Armies in home land will be removed to Manchoukuo and their expenses is to be reduced according-

ly from the ordinary expenses for the fundamental needs mentioned above to the amount of ¥17,000,000.

For a greater air force it is proposed to require ¥352,830,000 in the coming 5 years, 1937–1942, and ¥102,000,000 in the above table is a part of it. For special improvements of army facilities ¥127,860,000 is required for coming 5 years and ¥24,714,000 is allotted to this year. It included all the expenses for improvements of army facilities such as training of soldiers in new army techniques of all kinds, reorganization of corps, general reduction and sanitary equipments.

To keep pace with the advance of scientific equipments and strategem in the armies of the world ¥900,000,000 is to be expended under a 7 year programme and ¥40,000,000 is for the first year of the programme. (See Chapter VIII, Public Finance, Budget for 1937–38).

Administrative Organization

Administration of the Army is conducted by the following three organs, the chiefs thereof working under direct order from the Throne :

The Ministry of War The central organ for military administration. The Ministry contains eight departments, the names and functions of which are listed below :

(a) The Minister's secretariat takes charge of all secret affairs, papers and other records, and general office work.

(b) The Bureau of Personal Affairs is in charge of all the affairs concerning the personnel of the army, It consists of two sections, the one dealing with appointments, promotion, etc., the other of decorations.

(c) The Bureau of Military Affairs is the real centre of military administration, and is responsible for the establishment of the system and organization of the Army, for the proclamation and withdrawal of martial law, and for all the affairs concerning ceremonies to be observed by the soldiers, morals and discipline among the men, the drafting of men and horses to various units, the conscription system, etc., etc.

(d) The Replenishment Bureau is divided into two sections, one for mobilization and the other for co-ordination, and is responsible for the estblishment and improvement of the mobilization system, preparation and coordination of war supplies, improvement of military transportation, etc.

(e) The Arms and Ordnance Bureau consists of the section for rifles and guns and the section for various supplies. It is in the charge of arms, ordnance, and various supplies of war.

(f) The Intendance Bureau has four sections, the Paymaster's, Audit, Clothing and Provisions, and Construction. This bureau is responsible for expenditure, the inspection of accounts, preparation of budgets, provisions, clothing, structures, etc.

(g) The Medical Bureau is responsible for all sanitary and medical arrangements among officers and men. It consists of the section for sanitary affairs and the section for medicine and surgery.

(h) The Judicial Bureau is responsible for the organization of courts-martial and all other affairs in connection with martial law.

The Ministry of War also supervises the following organizations situated in various parts of the country.

(a) The Military Aviation Bureau is the central organ for the study of military aviation, and is required to organize the education of pilots and mechanics, to supervise repairs, replenishment, and purchases of aeronautical supplies, etc.

(b) The Technical Investigation Bureau conducts researches on all technical developments likely to effect military efficiency. Inspection of ordnance and various war supplies is conducted by this bureau. Under its supervision is the Laboratory of Military Science which conducts research on methods of scientific warfare.

(c) The Military Technical Board. This is an organ for deliberation on all techical problems submitted by the War Minister.

(d) The Military Arsenal is responsible for the establishment of designs and plans of arms and ordnance, as well as repairs and examination of various supplies of war inclusive of gunpowder. It has branches in Osaka, Nagoya, Oji, Kokura and Heijo.

(e) The Woolen Factory at Senju is engaged in the manufacture of woollen yarn and clothes, for military supplies.

(f) The Remount Bureau has charge of horse replenishment, including breeding and purchase.

(g) The Military Arms Depot is responsible for the purchase, storage, repairs, maintenance, supply, exchange, and scrapping of arms and ordnance. It also takes care of the guns installed in fortresses. The main office is in Tokyo and there are branches in Chiba, Osaka, Nagoya, Kokura, and Hiroshima.

(h) The Military Clothing Depot has its head office in Tokyo, and branches in Osaka and Hiroshima. It takes care

of the manufacture, purchase, storage, and supply of all clothing supplies.

(i) The Military Hygienic Supplies Depot is responsible for the manufacture, purchase, storage, supply, and inspection of all hygienic supplies.

(j) The Military Depot of Provisions and Forage, with its head office in Tokyo and branches in Osaka and Ujina, is in charge of the preparation and supply of provisions and forage.

(k) The Fortifications Bureau is responsible for the construction, inspection, and maintenance of all defensive structures, besides being required to conduct researches on artillery and military engineering.

(l) The Military Transport Bureau is situated at Ujina and looks after all matters concerning the transportation of troops.

The General Staff It deliberates on national defence and strategy. It is also required to train and supervise all staff officers. The Staff College and the Land Survey Bureau are under the control of the Chief of the General Staff.

The Land Survey Bureau is responsible for the replenishment of military maps, production of maps for public use and the training of experts for the Bureau services.

The Department of Military Training It is in charge of all military schools and the training and education of officers and men, as well as the co-ordination and development of military education; aeronautical education of military aviation, however, is entrusted to the Aviation Bureau, and the training of staff officers comes under the General Staff.

The Department consists of the headquarters and sections for cavalry, artillery, engineers and commissariat.

Field Organization

The Division A division generally consists of 2 infantly brigades, 1 cavalry regiment, 1 engineer battalion, and 1 commissariat battalion. To some larger divisions, a tank corps, or a mountain artillery regiment, or a heavy field artillery regiment, is attached. While a few others include a full cavalry brigade, a regiment of transport or an anti-aircraft regiment. Eight ammunition columns (4 infantry and 4 artillery), 6 field hospitals, and 1 remount depot accompany each division on service. The number is about 10,000 on peace standing. Divisional commanders hold the rank of Lieutenant-General, brigade commanders that of Major-General.

The Regiment An infantry regiment consists of 3 battalions and a machine-gun corps, and an infantry battalion of 3 companies of 150 men each, and a machine gun section. A company is subdivided into three sections.

A cavalry regiment, of which Japan has 25 at present, consists of 2 or 3 squadrons. Eight of these regiments are organized into four independent cavalry brigades, while the remaining seventeen are attached one to each of the divisions.

Japan has 30 artillery regiments and 10 battalions, namely 15 regiments of field artillery, 1 battalion of horse artillery, 4 regiments and 1 battalion of mountain artillery, and 8 regiments of heavy field artillery. A field artillery regiment is divided into 3 battalions, and a battalion into 3 companies. On peace strength a field artillery regiment consists of only 6 batteries each equipped with four guns. In addition there are 3 regiments and 8 battalions of heavy artillery, which are responsible for the defence of fortified zones.

In peace time 1 regiment and 1 battery of anti-aircraft artillery are maintained.

Air Force Japan's air force is divided into units attached to the Army and Navy respectively. The Army air force consists at present of 11 reconnoitering squadrons, 11 fighting squadrons, 4 bombing companies, and 2 balloon companies, consisting of approximately 1,000 planes.

The Peace Strength

A full statistical classification of the peace strength of the Army, with the total number of soldiers nearly 250,000, in 1936, is given below. In addition to the units listed, a force of gendarmerie 2,220 strong and a medical corps, about 1,500 strong are maintained.

Units	No. of Complete Regiments	No. of Additional Battalions
Infantry	70	6
Cavalry	25	—
Field Artillery	14	—
Mountain Artillery	5	1
Mounted Artillery	—	1
Heavy Field Artillery	8	—
Heavy Artillery	3	8
Engineers	—	17
Railway Corps	2	—
Telegraph Corps	2	—
Air Force	9	—
		(corps)
Balloon Corps		1
Commissariat		15

Units	No. of Complete Regiments	No. of Additional Battalions
Tank Corps		2 (corps)
Anti-Aircraft Artillery	1	1

This force is divided into 17 divisions and 34 brigades and was stationed in December, 1935 as follows :

Imperial Guard Division

Divisional headquarters	Tokyo
Headquarters of 1st Infantry Guard Brigade	Tokyo
Guard Regiments 1st and 2nd	Tokyo
Headquarters of 2nd Infantry Guard Brigade	Tokyo
Guard Regiments 3rd and 4th	Tokyo
Headquarters of 1st Cavalry Brigade	Narashino
Cavalry Guard Regiment	Tokyo
13th and 14th Cavalry Regiments	Narashino
Headquarters of 4th Heavy Field Artillery Brigade	Tokyo
Artillery Guard Regiment	Tokyo
Heavy Field Artillery Regiments 4th	Shimoshizu
Heavy Field Artillery Regiments 8th	Tokyo
Engineer Guard Battalion; Commissariat Guard Battalion	Tokyo
Railway Regiment 1st	Chiba
Railway Regiment 2nd, Telegraph Regiment 1st	Tokyo
Air Force Regiment 5th	Tachikawa
Balloon Corps	Chiba

1st Division

Divisional headquarters	Tokyo
Headquarters of 1st Infantry Brigade	Tokyo
Infantry Regiment 1st	Tokyo
Infantry Regiment 49th	Kofu
Headquarters of 2nd Infantry Brigade	Tokyo
Infantry Regiment 3rd	Tokyo
Infantry Regiment 57th	Sakura
Headquarters of 2nd Cavalry Brigade	Narashino
Cavalry Regiment 1st	Tokyo
Cavalry Regiment 15th and 16th	Narashino
Heabquarters of Heavy Field Artillery Brigade 3rd	Kohnodai
Field Aatillery Regiment 1st	Tokyo
Horse Artillery Batalion	Kohnodai
Heavy Field Artillery Regiment 1st and 7th	Kohnodai
Yokosuka Heavy Artillery Regiment	Yokosuka
Engineer Battalion 1st	Tokyo
Commissariat Battalion 1st	Tokyo

2nd Division

Divisional hedquarters	Sendai
Headquarters of 3rd Infantry Brigade	Sendai
Infantry Regiment 4th	Sendai
Infantry Regiment 29th	Wakamatsu
Headquarters of 15th Infantry Brigade	Takata
Infantry Regiment 16th	Shibata
The 3rd Battalion of this regiment is stationed at Muramatsu.	
Infantry Regiment 30th	Takata
Cavalry Regiment 2nd	Sendai
Field Artillery Regiment 2nd	Sendai
Independent Mountain Artillery Regiment 1st	Takata
Engineer Battalion 2nd	Sendai
Commissarist Battalion 2nd	Sendai

3rd Division

Divisional headquarters	Nagoya
Headquarters of 5th Infantry Brigade	Nagoya
Infantry Regiment 6th	Nagoya
Infantry Regiment 68th	Gifu
Headquarters of 29th Infantry Brigade	Shizuoka
Infantry Regiment 18th	Toyohashi
Infantry Regiment 34th	Shizuoka
Headquarters of 4th Cavalry Brigade	Toyohashi
Cavalry Regiment 3rd	Nagoya
Cavalry Regiment 25th and 26th	Toyohashi
Headquarters of 1st Heavy Field Artillery Brigade	Mishima
Heavy Field Artillery Regiments 2nd and 3rd.	Mishima
Field Artillery Regiment 3rd	Nagoya
Anti-aircraft Artillery Regiment 1st	Hamamatsu
Engineer Battalion 3rd	Toyohashi
Air Force Regiments 1st and 2nd	Gifu
Air Force Regiment 7th	Hamamatsu
Commissariat Battalion 3rd	Nagoya

4th Division

Divisional headquarters	Osaka
Headquarters of 7th Infantry Brigade	Osaka
Infantry Regiment 8th	Osaka
Infantry Regiment 70th	Sasayama
Headquarters of 32nd Infantry Brigade	Wakayama
Infantry Regiment 37th	Osaka
Infantry Regiment 61st	Wakayama
Cavalry Regiment	Osaka
Field Artillery Regiment 4th	Shitayama
Miyama Heavy Artillery Regiment Engineers	Miyama
Battalion 4th	Takatsuki
Commissariat Battalion 4th	Osaka

5th Division

Divisional headquarters	Hiroshima
Headquarters of 9th Infantry Brigade	Hiroshima
Infantry Regiment 11th	Hiroshima
Infantry Regiment 41st	Fukuyama
Headquarters of 21st Infantry Brigade	Yamaguchi
Infantry Regiment 21st	Hamada
Infantry Regiment 42nd	Yamaguchi
Cavalry Regiment 5th	Hiroshima
Field Artillery Regiment 5th	Hiroshima
Engineer Battalion 5th	Hiroshima
Telegraph Regiment 2nd	Hiroshima
Commissariat Battalion 5th	Hiroshima

6th Division

Divisional Headquarters	Kumamoto
Headquarters of 11th Infantry Brigade	Kumamoto
Infantry Regiment 13th	Kumamoto
Infantry Regiment 47th	Oita
Headquarters of Infantry Brigade 36th	Kagoshima
Infantry Regiment 23th	Miyakonojo
Infantyy Regiment 45th	Kogoshima
Cavalry Regiment 6th	Kumamoto
Field Artillery Regiment 6th	Kumamoto
Engineer Battalion 6th	Kumamoto
Commissariat Battalion 6th	Kumamoto

7th Division

Divisional headquarters	Asahigawa
Headquarters of 13th Infantry Brigade	Asahigawa
Infantry Regiment 25th	Sapporo
Infantry Regiment 26th	Asahigawa
Headquarters of 14th Infantry Brigade	Asahigawa
Infantry Regiment 27th and 28th	Asahigawa
Cavalry Regiment 7th	Asahigawa
Field Artillery Regiment 7th	Asahigawa
Hakodaté Heavy Artillery Battalion	Hakodaté
Engineer Battalion 7th	Arahigawa
Commissariat Battalion 7th	Asahigawa

8th Division

Divisional headquarters	Hirosaki
Headquarters of 4th Infantry Brigade	Hirosaki
Infantry Regiment 5th	Aomori
Infanty Regiment 31st	Hirosaki
Headquarters of 16th Infantry Brigade	Akita
Infantry Regiment 17th	Akita
Infantry Regiment 32th	Yamagata
Headquarters of 3rd Cavalry Brigade	Morioka
Cavalry Regiment 8th	Hirosaki
Cavalry Regiment 23rd and 14th	Morioka
Field Artillery Regiment 8th	Hirosaki
Engineer Battalion 8th	Morioka
Commissariat Battlion	Hirosaki

9th Division

Divisional headquarters	Kanazawa
Headquarters of 6th Infantry Brigade	Kanazawa
Infantry Regiment 7th	Kanazawa
Infantry Regiment 35th	Toyama
Headquarters of 18th Infantry Brigade	Tsuruga
Infantry Regiment 19th	Tsuruga
Infantry Regiment 36th	Sabayé
Cavalry Regiment 9th	Kanazawa
Mountain Artillery Regiment 9th	Kanazawa
Engineer Battalion 9th	Kanazawa
Commissariat Battlion 9th	Kanazawa

10th Division

Divisional Headquarters	Himeji
Headquarters of 8th Infantry Brigade	Himeji
Infantry Regiment 39th	Himeji
Infantry Regiment 40th	Tottori
Headquarters of Infantry Brigade 33rd	Okayama
Infantry Regiment 10th	Okayama
Infantry Regiment 63th	Matsuyé
Cavalry Regiment 10th	Himeji
Field Artillery Regiment 10th	Himeji
Engineer Battalion 10th	Okayama
Commissariat Battalion 10th	Himeji

11th Division

Divisional headquarters	Zentsuji
Headquarters of 10th Infantry Brigade	Zentsuji
Infantry Regiments 12th	Zentsuji
Infantry Regiment 22nd	Matsuyama
Headquarters of 22nd Infantry Brigade	Tokushima
Infantry Regiment 43rd	Tokushima
Infantry Regiment 44th	Kochi
Cavalry Regiment 11th	Zentsuji
Mountain Artillery Regiment 11th	Zentsuji
Engineer Battalion 11th	Zentsuji
Commissariat Battalion 11th	Zentsuji

12th Division

Divisional headquarters	Kurumé
Headquarters of 12th Infantry Brigade	Fukuoka
Infantry Regiment 14th	Kokura
Infantry Regiment 24th	Fukuoka
Headquarters of 24th Infantry Brigade	Kurumé
Infantry Regiment 46th	Ohmura
Infantry Regiment 48th	Kurumé
The 3rd Battalion of this regiment is stationed at Saga	
Tank Corps 1	Kurumé
Cavalry Regiment 12th	Kurumé
Headquarters of 2nd Heavy Field Artillery Brigade	Kokura
Field Artillery Regiment 24th	Kurumé
Independent Mountain Artillery Regiment 3rd	Kurumé
Heavy Field Artillery Regiment 5th and 6th	Kokura
Shimonoseki Heavy Artillery Regiment	Shimonoseki
Sasebo Heavy Artillery Battalion	Sasebo
Kechi Heavy Artillery Battalion	Kechi
Engineer Battalion 18th	Kurumé
Flying Air Force Regiment 4th	Tachiarai
Commissariat Battalion 18th	Kurumé

14th Division

Divisional headquarters	Utsunomiya
Headquarters of 27th Infantry Brigade	Utsunomiya
Infantry Regiment 2nd	Mito
Infantry Regiment 59th	Utsunomiya
Headquarters of 28th Infantry Brigade	Takasaki
Infantry Regiment 15th	Takasaki
Infantry Regiment 50th	Matsumoto
Cavalry Regiment 18th	Utsunomiya
Field Artillery Regiment 20th	Utsunomiya
Engineer Battalion 14th	Mito
Commissariat Battalion 14th	Utsunomiya

16th Division

Divisional headquarters	Kyoto
Headquarters of 19th Infantry Brigade	Kyoto
Infantry Regiment 9th	Kyoto
The 3rd Battalion of this regiment is stationed at Ohtsu	
Infantry Regiment 20th	Fukuchiyama
Headquarters of 30th Infantry Brigade	Tsu
Infantry Regiment 33rd	Tsu
Infantry Regiment 38th	Nara
Cavalry Regiment 20th	Kyoto
Field Artillery Regiment 22nd	Kyoto
Maizuru Heavy Artillery Battalion	Maizuru
Engineer Battalion 16th	Kyoto
Air Force Regiment 3rd	Yokkaichi
Commissariat Battalion 16th	Kyoto

19th Division

Divisional headquarters	Ranan
Headquarters or 37th Infantry Brigade	Kanko
Infantry Regiment 73rd	Ranan
Infantry Regiment 74th	Kanko
Headquarters of 30th Infantry Brigade	Ranan
Infantry Regiment 75th	Kainei
Infantry Regiment 76th	Ranan
Cavalry Regiment 27th	Ranan
Field Artillery Regiment 25th	Ranan
Engineer Battalion 19th	Kainei

20th Division

Divisional headquarters	Ryuzan
Headquarters of 39th Infantry Brigade	Heijo
Infantry Regiment 77th	Heijo
Infantry Regiment 78th	Ryuzan
Headquarters of 40th Infantry Brigade	Ryuzan
Infantry Regiment 79th	Ryuzan
Infantry Regiment 80th	Taiko
The 3rd Battalion of the regiment is stationed at Taiden.	
Cavalry Regiment 28th	Ryuzan
Field Artillery Regiment 26th	Ryuzan
Anti-aircraft Corps of above regiment	Heijo

Heavy Artillery Battalion of Masan	Masan
Engineer Battalion 20th	Ryuzan
Air Force Regiment 6th	Heijo

The Headquarters of special units are distributed as follows :

Tokyo Garrison Head quarters	Tokyo
Headquarters of Chosen Army	Keijo
Headquarters of Taiwan Army	Taihoku
Headquarters of Taiwan Garrison	Taihoku
1st Taiwan Infantry Regiment 1	Taihoku
2nd Taiwan Infantry Regiment 2	Taihoku
Taiwan Mountain Artillery Battalion	Taihoku
Kiirun Heavy Artillery Battalion	Kiirun
Mako Heavy Artillery Battalion	Mako
Heito 8th Flight Regiment	Heito
Headquarters of Kwantung Army	Ryojun
Headquarters of Independent Garrison	Koshurei
1st Infantry Battalion Independent Garrison	Koshurei
2nd Infantry Battalion Independent Garrison	Mukden
3rd Infantry Battalion Independent Garrison	Tashihchiao
4th Infantry Battalion Independent Garrison	Lienshan-kwan
5th Infantry Battalion Independent Garrison	Ssupinkai
6th Infantry Battalion Independent Garrison	Antung
Ryojun Heavy Artillery Battalion	Ryojun
Headquarters of Japanese Force in China	Tientsin
Japanese Infantry Garrison in Tientsin	Tientsin
Japanese Infantry Garrison in Peiping	Peiping

Fortresses

The Army has 17 fortresses at places of strategic importance in different parts of Japan proper and its dependencies. At each of these fortresses, a heavy artillery regiment or battalion is stationed, and in some cases an air force detachment. Their sites and divisional attachments are as follows :

	Site	Division
(1)	Yokosuka	1st
(2)	Chichijima (Bonin Is.)	,,
(3)	Yura	4th
(4)	Amamioshima	6th
(5)	Hoyo	,,
(6)	Tsugaru	7th
(7)	Shimonoseki	12th
(8)	Tsushima	,,
(9)	Sasebo	,,
(10)	Nagasaki	,,
(11)	Iki	12th
(12)	Maizuru	16th
(13)	Chinkaiwan	Chosen Army
(14)	Eikowan	Chosen Army
(15)	Kiirun	Taiwan Army
(16)	Bokoto	,,
(17)	Ryojun (Port Arthur)	Kwantung Army

OCCUPATION OF SENIOR COMMANDS

(April 1, 1937)

Name and Rank	Command
Lieut.-General Tsuneichi Iwakoshi	Tokyo Garrison
Lieut.-General Toshizo Nishio	Guard Division
Lieut.-General Kyosuké Kawamura	1st Division
Lieut.-General Yasuji Okamura	2nd Division
Lieut.-General Masayoshi Itō	3rd Division
Lieut.-General Mei Matsui	4th Division
Lieut.-General Seishiro Itagaki	5th Division
Lieut.-General Toshio Tani	6th Division
Lieut.-General Kazuo Miké	7th Division
Lieut.-General Kumaya Shimomoto	8th Division
Lieut.-General Ban Hasunuma	9th Division
Lieut.-General Rensuké Isogai	10th Division
Lieut.-General Hayao Tada	11th Division
Lieut.-General Otozo Yamada	12th Division
Lieut.-General Kenji Dohihara	14th Division
Lieut.-General Tomoo Kodama	16th Division
Lieut.-General Kameki Otaka	19th Division
Lieut.-General Bunzaburo Kawagishi	20th Division

OVERSEAS COMMANDS

Name and Rank	Command
General Kenkichi Uéda	Kwantung Army
Lieut.-General Kuniaki Koiso	Chosen Army
Lieut.-General Shunroku Hata	Taiwan Army
Lieut.-General Kanichiro Tashiro	Japanese Garrison in China

Promotion and Age Limit

Army officers in service are promoted to higher ranks by selection in accordance with the following rules in time of peace, the time limit being reduced by one-half in war time :

One year from Sub-Lieutenant to Lieutenant, 2 years from Lieutenant to Captain, 4 years to Major, 2 years to Lieutenant-Colonel, 2 years to Colonel, 2 years to Major-General, 3 years to Lieutenant-General. Promotion to full General and then to Marshal is subject only to the Emperor's will.

The age limit for officers on the active list varies according to rank as follows :

General	65
Lieutenant-General	62
Major-General	58
Colonel	55
Lieutenant-Colonel	53
Major	50
Captain	48
Lieutenant and Sub-Lieutenant	45

There is no age limit for Marshals.

Army Education

Schools providing instruction in military affairs are of three categories as follows :

(1) Those under the authority of the Department of Military Education, of which a full list is given below :

Name	Place
Artillery and Engineering School	Tokyo
Infantry School	Chiba prefecture
Cavalry School	,, ,,
Field Artillery School	,, ,,
Heavy Field Artillery School	Kanagawa prefecture
Engineers' School	Chiba ,,
Signallers' School	Tokyo ,,
Mechanical Transport School	,, ,,
Narashino Military School	Chiba ,,
Toyama School	Tokyo city
Military Academy	,, ,,
Military Preparatory School	,, ,,
5 Non-Commissioned Officers' Schools	Tokyo, Sendai, Toyohashi, Kumamoto

Toyama School teaches fencing, gymnastics and military music to both officers and men.

(2) The Staff College (Tokyo City) under the direct control of the General Staff.

(3) Those under the control of various bureaux of the Ministry of War, of which a full list is given below :

Name	Place
Intendance School	Tokyo City
Army Medical School	Toyko City
Army Veterinary School	Tokyo City
Gendarmerie Training School	Tokyo City

Name	Place
Tokorozawa Flying School	Saitama prefecture
Akeno Flying School	Miyé profecture
Hamamatsu Flying School	Shizuoka profecture
Shimoshizu Flying School	Chiba profecture
Engineering School	Tokyo City

The Flying School at Tokorozawa is to give necessary training to military fliers as to how to handle and repair a plane and its engine, and meteorogical observation, besides a knowledge of the materials of which planes and engines are constructed. This school is opened to civilian students. The Flying School at Shimoshizu is to teach aerial photography, aerial communications and reconnoitering. The Akeno Flying

School gives courses to army pilots on the aerial tactics, air navigation, handling of machine-guns on a plane and also on the construction of aerial weapons.

To raise the level of educational capacity and general efficiency among officers, certain special courses and facilities are arranged. Graduates from universities in science or engineering are now entitled to the position of engineer of artillery lieutenants after six months' cadetship, while those from the medical and agricultural colleges are qualified to become surgeon and veterinary lieutenants respectively after three months' cadetship. Non-commissioned officers of ability may be promoted to the rank of lieutenant in virtue of a system adopted in 1930, after a short period of special training. Posts still higher, even to the supreme Marshalship, are open to non-commissioned officers of exceptional ability.

The Navy

Outline History As a result of the policy of seclusion strictly followed by the Shogunate Government of the Tokugawas, Japan was without anything worthy of the name of a navy, when Commodore Perry's fleet entered Uraga Bay in the 6th year of Kaei (1853) with a view to inducing the Shogun's Government to open Japanese ports to the world. By the 4th year of Ansei (1857), however, Japan was in possession of a few warships given her by Holland and England. They formed the first squadron of the Western type that the nation ever had. By the efforts of the Meiji Government, this squadron developed into an efficient fleet of 28 fighting craft and 24 torpedo-boats, with a total tonnage of over 50,000 tons by 1894, when Japan declared war on China. After the Sino-Japanese War, Japan's navy grew very rapidly and in 1902, just before the outbreak of Russo-Japanese War in possession of 78 ships with a total tonnage of 256,816 tons.

The Naval Policy Japan's naval policy was, and is, to maintain a fleet powerful enough to defend the country against any naval force which could be dispatched to the western Pacific by any naval Power of the world. This policy was embodied first in the expansion plan adopted in 1907, including the construction of 8 battleships, 8 battle-cruisers, 21 light cruisers, 64 destroyers, and 32 submarines. As a preliminary to carrying out the plan, it was decided to build 8 battleships, 4 battle-cruisers, 11 light cruisers and a number of destroyers and submarines at a total expenditure of ¥254,000,000. In 1916, the Diet passed the programme to be carried out in the seven years ending 1923. In 1917, the programme was enlarged by a project covering the construction of 2 more battle-cruisers and a number of auxiliary ships in the six years ending 1923. In 1919, this programme was enlarged by a new project covering the construction of 8 capital ships and 85 auxiliary ships at a total expenditure of ¥750,000,000 to be appropriated in the eight years ending 1927. Thus, in 1921, Japan's naval expenditure amounted to about ¥500,000,000 or about one-third of the total amount of the budget.

The 1919 Programme The number and kind of ships to be constructed by the 1919 plan were 8 battleships armed with 16-inch guns (Nagato, Mutsu, Tosa, Kaga, etc.) and 8 battle-cruisers (Amagi, Akagi, etc., etc.) 26 light cruisers, 94 destroyers, and 93 submarines. As a result of the Washington Conference, the construction of these ships was abandoned, the Mutsu and the Nagato being retained on the list, while the Akagi and the Amagi were retained for conversion into plane carriers. (The great earthquake of 1923 made the Amagi unfit for service, and she was replaced by the Kaga).

After the Conference every effort was made to build up a powerful fleet of auxiliary ships to compensate for the deficiency in capital ships, of which Japan was allowed only 9 as against the 15 each of America and Britain. This effort resulted in the establishment of a well balanced fleet of auxiliary ships. The Naval Treaty signed in London in 1930, however, again gave Japan a low ratio in the number and tonnage of eight-inch gun cruisers, and allowed her only 52,700 tons of submarines, in spite of her demand for a minimum of 78,000 tons. This made it necessary further to reinforce the auxiliary fleet.

The 1931 Plan In 1931, the First Naval Replenishment Plan was referred to the Diet which passed it almost unanimously. The plan covers the construction of 4 light cruisers of 8,500 tons each, 12 first class destroyers of 1,400 tons each, 9 first class submarines, 1 large mine-layer, 3 smaller mine-layers, 4 torpedo-boats, and 6 mine-sweepers, at a total expenditure of ¥247,080,000 to be

appropriated in the 6 years.

The 1932 Plan The replenishment plan is accompanied by two other plans, the first of which covers the establishment of 12 naval flying corps on land and an aeronautic arsenal, the improvement and reinforcement of other ships, and the improvement of arms to be mounted on naval planes. planes carried on plane-carriers and The total expenditure for this, amounting to ¥81,970,000, is to be voted by 1936. On its completion, the plan is to be followed by another expansion plan covering the establishment of 2 more flying corps on land at a total expenditure of ¥50,000,000. The second plan supplementary to the 1931 Replenishment Plan covers a total expenditure of ¥44,950,000 to be appropriated for the modernization of capital and auxiliary ships, plane-carriers, submarines, and the replacement of guns, etc. When these replenishment programmes are completed, Japan will have 12 Treaty cruisers, 23 light cruisers, 4 plane-carriers, 4 submarine tenders, 6 minelayers, 8 coast defence ships, 13 gunboats, 79 first class destroyers, 34 second class destroyers, 33 first class submarines, 38 second class submarines, 4 torpedo-boats, 14 mine-sweepers, 3 training-ships, 1 target ship, 2 surveying ships, 17 transports, and 1 ice-breaker.

The naval authorities referred a second naval replenishment plan to the Ministry of Finance for study on October 31, 1932. The plan calls for a total expenditure of ¥460,000,000 covering the construction of one plane-carrier of 8,000 tons, two 8,500 ton cruisers with 6-inch guns, 14 first class destroyers of 1,400 tons each, six submarines, one mine-layer of 5,000 tons type, a number of torpedo-boats and mine-sweepers, and the establishment of 8 flying corps on land, all for completion in the 4 years ending 1936.

Improvement In 1935 the Second Air Force Squadron was added to the Second Fleet which was composed of the Akagi, aircraft carrier, and 9th destroyer flotilla.

Naval defence on Chinese seas was formerly divided into three sections, i.e. north China defended by boats under the Ryojun Minor Naval Station, central China defended by the Third Fleet and south China by boats under the Bako Minor Naval Station. These three were united into one in 1935 and is now defended by the Third Fleet which was composed of the 10th and 11th Squardrons and the 5th Destroyer Squadron.

In addition to the naval barrack which had been instituted in 1933 defence corps were organized in 1935 to reinforce the coastal defence (see "The Three Districts", this Chapter).

An air force enlargement plan has been carried out according to the first and second programmes. Kuré and Saéki air corps were completed, and the four corps at Kisarazu, Maizuru, Tomioka (Yokohama) and Shikaya (Kagoshima prefecture) are to be completed by the end of 1936.

In educational line improvements were made by prolonging school years in Naval College, Naval Engineering College and Naval Paymasters' College from 3 years 8 months to 4 years, and a greater number of freshmen were taken into these colleges.

Naval Expenditure

The naval expenditure from 1893–94 down to 1937–38 have been as follows (As to the minutes of the 1937–38 budget, see Chapter VIII, Public Finance, Budget for 1937–38.)

Year	Running Expenses	Extraordinary Expenses	Total
1893–94 (Just before Sino-Japanese War)	¥ 5,141,000	¥ 2,960,000	¥ 8,101,000
1896–97 (Just after Sino-Japanese War)	7,351,000	12,655,000	20,006,000
1903–04 (Just before Russo-Japanese War)	21,530,000	14,588,000	36,118,000
1906–07 (Just after Russo-Japanese War)	27,991,000	33,885,000	61,876,000
1912–13	41,534,000	53,952,000	95,486,000
1917–18	48,528,000	113,906,000	162,434,000
1925–26	122,242,000	106,761,000	229,003,000
1926–27	127,428,000	109,879,000	237,307,000
1927–28	136,545,000	136,992,000	273,537,000
1928–29	143,026,000	125,106,000	268,132,000
1929–30	147,648,000	120,016,000	267,664,000
1930–31	146,888,000	95,147,000	242,035,000
1931–32	138,914,000	88,215,000	227,129,000
1932–33	140,740,000	172,069,000	312,809,000
1933–34	179,027,000	230,948,000	409,975,000

Year	Running Expenses	Extraordinary Expenses	Total
1934-35 (budget)	199,909,000	289,237,000	489,147,000
1935-36 (,,)	215,917,000	313,765,900	529,683,000
1936-37 (,,)	236,750,000	313,640,000	550,390,000
1937-38 (,,)	273,953,380	407,700,236	681,653,616

Administrative Organization

Warships and other vessels organized into fleets and squadrons actually represent what is called the Japanese Navy, and all the organs under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Marine are intended for the construction, maintenance, control and successful utilization of these vessels. Each naval station and fleet is placed in the charge of a Commander-in-chief, who is responsible for the discipline and education of his men.

The Minister The Minister of Marine is in charge of the administration of the Navy, while the Chief of the Naval Staff is directly responsible to the Emperor for operation, mobilization and intelligence. The administrative departments under the supervision of the Minister of Marine are the following :

(1) Ministerial Secretariat
(2) Bureau of Military Affairs
(3) Personnel Bureau
(4) Education Bureau
(5) Bureau of Stores
(6) Medical Bureau
(7) Bureau of Accounts and Supplies
(8) Bureau of Civil Engineering
(9) Bureau of Judicial Affairs
(10) Library
(11) Telegraphy Division

The schools under the supervision of the Minister are :

(1) Naval War College (Tokyo). This school is intended for the training of advanced students selected from among naval officers.

(2) Naval College (Etajima). This school is intended for the education of intending naval officers. Warrant officers are also educated here before they are promoted to the rank of special service officer.

(3) Naval Engineering College (Maizuru). This school is intended for the education of intending engineering officers. Warrant engineering officers are received under the same conditions as at the Naval College.

(4) Naval Medical College. This school is to train surgeons and pharmacists and to conduct research in the field of surgery, medicine and naval sanitation. Warrant Ward masters are educated here before they are qualified for the rank of Wardmaster Lieutenant.

(5) Naval Paymasters' College. This school is intended for the education of intending naval paymasters. Warrant Writers are educated here before they are qualified for the rank of Accountant Lieutenants.

Under the Commander-in-Chief The following schools are under the direct supervision of the Commanders-in-Chief of the Naval Stations.

(1) Naval Gunnery School (Yokosuka). Officers, special service officers, warrant officers and seamen of special-ratings are admitted.

(2) Torpedo School (Yokosuka). Officers, warrant officers and seamen specially selected are admitted.

(3) Naval Communication School (Yokosuka). Officers, warrant officers and seamen specially selected are admitted.

(4) Navigation School (Yokosuka). Officers, warrant officers and seamen specially selected are admitted.

(5) Submarine School (Kure). Officers, warrant officers and seamen specially selected are trained here for submarine warfare. Researches on submarine construction and operation are also conducted.

(6) Naval Machinists' School (Yokosuka). This school is for the training of warrant officers and seamen aspiring to the rank of engineering officer, or special service engineering officer, or shipwright.

Active Service Organization

The Three Districts The coasts of Japan and the seas surrounding the country are divided into three Naval Districts, and these districts are placed in the charge of naval stations as follows :

1st Naval District, consisting of the coasts of Aomori, Iwaté, Miyagi, Fukushima, Ibaraki, Chiba Tokyo, Kanagawa, Shidzuoka, Aichi, Miyé, Hokkaido and Karafuto, and the adjacent seas, is in the charge of the Yokosuka Naval Station.

2nd Naval District, consisting of the coasts of Wakayama, Osaka, Hyogo, Okayama, Hiroshima, Yamaguchi, Shimané, Tottori, Kyoto, Fukui, Ishikawa, Toyama, Niigata, Yamagata, Akita, Tokushima, Kochi, Ehimé, Kagawa, Oita,, Miyazaki, and the eastern part of Fukuoka prefecture, and the adjacent

seas, is in the charge of the Kuré Naval Station.

3rd Naval District, consisting of the coasts of the remainder of Fukuoka prefecture, Saga, Nagasaki, Kumamoto, Kagoshima, Okinawa, Taiwan and Chosen and the adjacent seas, is in the charge of the Sasebo Naval Station.

The coasts and adjacent seas of the South Sea Islands, now under mandate to Japan, are in the charge of the Yokosuka Naval Station. There are also minor naval Stations at Maizuru in Kyoto prefecture, Ohminato in Aomori prefecture, Chinkai in Chosen, Bako in the Boko Islands (Pescadores) and Ryojun (Port Arthur) in Kwantosyu (Kwantung).

The naval district have each a naval barrack, which is responsible for the defence of the naval port where it is posted, besides being required to protect the neighbouring district from attack. In addition to the naval barrack, each naval station or minor naval station has a defence corps, which is responsible for the defence of the neighbouring seas. Where there is no naval barrack, the defence corps is required to take care of the port where it is stationed and to protect the neighbouring district from attack. The naval ports and minor naval ports have respectively one or more air force detachments, which are required to protect the port and neighbouring district from naval and aerial raids.

Naval Office in Manchoukuo

Japan's recognition of Manchoukuo and provisions of the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol necessitated military and naval actions in that country on the part of Japan and to meet the emergency the Naval Department of Japan issued a law in March, 1933, for the establishment of the Naval Department in Manchoukuo to be located in Hsinking.

The Office takes charge of the watch and protection of the rivers and the coast lines of Manchoukuo. The commander is directly under the Emperor, and as to the administration he acts in accordance with the order of the Minister of the Navy of Japan. At present a provisional Naval Defence Brigade is quartered at Harbin and is guarding the banks of the Sungari.

Ryojun (Port Arthur) Naval Station The Imperial Naval Station at Port Arthur was abolished in November, 1922, according to the Naval disarmament programme. But the newly created situation in Manchuria made it a matter of necessity to revive it and it was re-established in April, 1933. The station is under a special regulation independent of the Naval stations in home land. It has a specific duties in the Kwantung Leased Territory and is engaged in the protection of the coasts of Kwantung Province, Manchoukuo and the North China above the Yangtze.

The Standing Fleets

The standing fleets as reorganized on November 3,1936, are as follows :

Combined Fleet

The Combined Fleet is organized with the 1st, 2nd fleets and the 12th Squadron, Mamiya and Naruto appended.

Ist Fleet

1st Squadron—Nagato, Mutsu, Hyuga.
3rd Squadron—Haruna, Kirishima.
8th Squadron—Kinu, Natori, Yura.
1st Destroyer Squadron—Kawachi, 9th and 21st destroyer flotillas.
1st Submarine Squadron—Isuzu, 7th and 8th submarine flotillas.
1st Air Force Squadron—Hosho, Ryujo, and 30th destroyer flotilla.

2nd Fleet

4th Squadron—Takao, Maya.
5th Squadron—Nachi, Haguro, Ashikaga.
2nd Destroyer Squadron—Jintsu, 7th, 8th and 19th destroyer flotillas.
2nd Submarine Squadron—Jingei, 12th, 29th and 30th submarine flotillas.
2nd Air Force Squadron—Kaga, 22nd destroyer flotilla.
12th Squadron—Okishima, Kamoi, 28th destroyer flotilla.

3rd Fleet

10th Squadron—Izumo, Tenryu, Tatsuta.
11th Squadron—Ataka, Toba, Seta, Katada, Hira, Hotzu, Atami, Futami, Kuri, Tsuga and Hasu.
5th Destroyer Squadron—Yubari, 13th and 16th destroyer flotillas.
Saga is appended.

Training Squadron

Yakumo and Iwate.

The Naval Air Force

The Naval Air Force consists of :

(1) 7½ aeroplane corps at Kasumigaura, 5 aeroplane corps at Yokosuka, 5½ aeroplane corps at Tateyama, 1½ aeroplane corps at Sasebo, 2½ corps at Omura, 1½ corps at Kuré, 1½ Corpse at Saheki and 1½ Corps at Ominato, the number of planes belonging to these air corps are unavailable ; and (2) the aircraft-carriers proper, Kaga, Akagi, Hosho, Notoro, Ryujo, Kamoi and several other ships, the number of planes

carried are unavailable. Flying officers and men number over 10,000.

The Personnel

Classified according to ranks, naval officers on the active list were as follows at the end of 1934 :

Admirals to Rear-Admirals and non-executive officers	148
Captains to Lieut.-Commanders and non-executive officers	2,395
Lieutenants to 2nd Sub-Lieutenants, non-executive officers, midshipmen and special service officers	3,958
Warrant officers	1,953
Cadets at school	348
Total	8,802

Equipment Each naval station is equipped with a shipbuilding yard, and one or more dry docks for accomodating warships. The Yokosuka and Kuré arsenals are capable of taking in superdreadnoughts of over 40,000 tons, but those of Sasebo and Maizuru are only fit for building cruisers and smaller ships. There are a number of up-to-date private establishments, such as the Mitsubishi shipyard at Nagasaki, Kawasaki shipyard at Kobé, Fujinagata shipyard at Osaka, and Ishikawajima shipyard at Tokyo. Of these the Mitsubishi and Kawasaki shipyards are capable of building superdreadnoughts.

Warship Building

The first warship built in Japan was the Seiki (870 tons) launched at Yokosuka in 1875. She played an important part in the civil war of 1877. The Hashidaté (4,228 tons), launched just before the Sino-Japanese War of 1894–5, remained the largest warship built at home until 1903. Soon after the Russo-Japanese War, Japan succeeded in building the battle-cruisers Tsukuba (13,800 tons), Ikoma, and Kurama (14,600 tons each), the battleships Satsuma (19,300 tons), Aki (19,250 tons), Kawachi and Settsu (20,800 tons each). The two last named were the first dreadnoughts planned and constructed at home and marked a new stage in the progress of naval architecture in Japan.

The Tsukuba and Kawachi sank 18 and 17 years ago respectively as a result of an explosion of their magazines, the former at Yokosuka and the latter at Tokuyama, while the Satsuma and Aki were removed from the list and sunk in target practice. The Settsu has been converted into a target ship of 16,130 tons and is still in service.

Independent of Foreign Material Up to recent years, Japan was dependent on foreign countries as regards war material, but is now almost independent in this connection. She has ample supplies of coal, iron, copper and zinc as long as she controls the mines in Manchuria. At present 95 per cent of warship building materials is of home production and in case of international competitive building of warships Japan will lose little out of the competition in international payments. The supply of crude oil as still insufficient, but the rapid progress in the oil-shale industry of Manchuria, and the remarkable development of the oil industry in North Saghalien, Formosa, etc., show that the empire will shortly be self-sufficing in this respect also. The Imperial Iron Works at Yawata (Kyushu) has an annual output of about 200,000 tons armour plates, rails, etc., while the Muroran Steel Works of Hokkaido is turning out an ample quantity of steel for use by the Army and Navy. In the chemical industry also, Japan is now almost independent and prepared for any form of chemical warfare.

List of Ships

The Navy consisted on September 30, 1936 of the following ships, classified by types with the total tonnage in each :

Type	No.	Tonnage
Battleships	9	272,070
Training Battleship	1	19,500
1st Class Cruisers	12	107,800
2nd Class Cruisers	25	107,255
Aircraft Carriers	6	68,370
Seaplane Carriers	3	31,050
Submarine Tenders	5	31,015
Mine Layers	6	19,630
Coast Defence Vessels	7	55,450
Gun Boats	11	5,045
1st Class Destroyers	80	95,479
2nd Class Destroyers	30	23,390
1st Class Submarines	37	49,157
2nd Class Submarines	25	20,927
Torpedo Boats	12	2,108
Mine Sweepers	12	6,642
Special Service Ships	21	219,935
Total	302	1,134,823

(Tonnage of ships under construction is not included.)

The full individual list of warships at the same date was :

BATTLESHIPS

Name	Displacement (ton)	When Completed	Nominal Speed (knot)	Main Armaments (centimetre)		High Angle guns (centimetre)	Torpedo Tubes
Kongo	29,330	1913	26.0	36(8)	15(16)	12.7(8)	4
Kirishima	29,330	1915	26.0	36(8)	15(16)	12.7(8)	4
Haruna	29,330	1915	26.0	36(8)	15(16)	12.7(8)	4
Fuso	29,330	1915	22.5	36(12)	15(16)	12.7(8)	2
Yamashiro	29,330	1917	22.5	36(12)	15(16)	12.7(8)	2
Isé	29,990	1917	23.0	36(12)	14(18)	12.7(8)	4
Hyuga	29,990	1918	23.0	36(12)	14(18)	12.7(8)	4
Nagato	32,720	1920	23.0	40(8)	14(20)	12.7(8)	6
Mutsu	32,720	1921	23.0	40(8)	14(20)	12.7(8)	6
Total 9	272,070 tons						

TRAINING BATTLESHIP

Hiei	19,500	1914	18.0	36(6)	15(16)	12.7(4)	—

1ST CLASS CRUISERS

Kako	7,100	1926	33.0	20(6)		12(4)	12
Furutaka	7,100	1926	33.0	20(6)		12(4)	12
Kinukasa	7,100	1927	33.0	20(6)		12(4)	12
Aoba	7,100	1927	33.0	20(6)		12(4)	12
Myoko	10,000	1929	33.0	20(10)		12(6)	12
Nachi	10,000	1928	33.0	20(10)		12(6)	12
Ashigara	10,000	1929	33.0	20(10)		12(6)	12
Haguro	10,000	1929	33.0	20(10)		12(6)	12
Takao	9,850	1932	33.0	20(10)		12(4)	8
Atago	9,850	1932	33.0	20(10)		12(4)	8
Chokai	9,850	1932	33.0	20(10)		12(4)	8
Maya	9,850	1932	33.0	20(10)		12(4)	8
Total 12	107,800 tons						

2ND CLASS CRUISERS

Hirato	4,400	1912	26.0	15(8)	8(2)	8(2)	3
Yahagi	4,400	1912	26.0	15(8)	8(2)	8(2)	3
Tenryu	3,230	1919	31.0	14(4)		8(1)	6
Tatsuta	3,230	1919	31.0	14(4)		8(1)	6
Kuma	5,100	1920	33.0	14(7)		8(2)	8
Tama	5,100	1921	33.0	14(7)		8(2)	8
Kitakami	5,100	1921	33.0	14(7)		8(2)	8
Oi	5,100	1921	33.0	14(7)		8(2)	8
Kiso	5,100	1921	33.0	14(7)		8(2)	8
Nagara	5,170	1922	33.0	14(7)		8(2)	8
Isuzu	5,170	1923	33.0	14(7)		8(2)	8
Natori	5,170	1922	33.0	14(7)		8(2)	8
Yura	5,170	1923	33.0	14(7)		8(2)	8
Kinu	5,170	1922	33.0	14(7)		8(2)	8
Abukuma	5,170	1924	33.0	14(7)		8(2)	8
Naka	5,195	1925	33.0	14(7)		8(2)	8
Sendai	5,195	1924	33.0	14(7)		8(2)	8
Jintsu	5,195	1925	33.0	14(7)		8(2)	8
Yubari	2,890	1923	33.0	14(6)		8(1)	4
Mogami	8,500	1935	33.0	15.5(15)		12.7(8)	12
Mikuma	8,500	1935	33.0	—		12.7(8)	12
Suzuya	8,500	under construction	33.0	—		12.7(8)	12
Kumano	8,500	,,	33.0	—		12.7(8)	12
Toné	8,500	,,	—	—		—	—
Chikuma	—	,,	—	—		—	—
Total 25	107,255 tons (completed ones only)						

AISCRAFT CARRIERS

Name	Displacement (ton)	When Completed	Nominal Speed (knot)	Main Armaments (centimetre)	High Angle guns (centimetre)	Torpedo Tubes
Hosho	7,470	1922	25.0	14(4)	8(2)	—
Kaga	26,900	1928	23.0	20(10)	12(12)	—
Akagi	26,900	1927	28.5	20(10)	12(12)	—
Ryujo	7,100	1933	25.0	—	12.7(12)	—
Soryu	10,050	—	30.0	—	12.7(12)	—
Hiryu	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total 6	68,370 tons (completed ones only)					

SEAPLANE CARRIERS

Notoro	14,050	1920	12.0	12(2)	8(2)	—
Kamoi	17,000	1922	15.0	14(2)	8(2)	—
Chitosé	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total 3	31,050 tons					

SUMBARINE TENDERS

Karasaki	9,570	—	12.6	8(1)	8(1)	—
Komabashi	1,125	1914	13.9	8(2)	8(1)	—
Jingei	5,160	1923	16.0	14(4)	8(2)	—
Chogei	5,160	1924	16.0	14(4)	8(2)	—
Taigéi	10,000tons	1934	20.0	—	12.7(4)	—
Total 5	31,015 tons (completed ones only)					

MINE LAYERS

Tokiwa	9,240	1899	21.25	20(2)	15(8)	8(1)	—
Katsuriki	1.540	1917	13.0	8(3)		—	—
Shirataka	1,345	1929	16.0	—		12(3)	—
Itsukushima	1,970	1929	16.0	14(3)		8(2)	—
Yaeyama	1,135	1932	20.0	—		12(2)	—
Okinoshima	4,400	1936	20.0	14(4)		—	—
Total 6	19,630 tons						

COAST DEFENCE VESSELS

Asama	9,240	1899	21.25	16(4)	15(12)	8(1)	4
Yakumo	9,010	1900	16.0	20(4)	15(12)	8(1)	2
Azuma	8,640	1900	16.0	16(4)	15(12)	8(1)	4
Izumo	9,180	1900	16.0	20(4)	15(14)	8(1)	2
Iwaté	9,180	1901	16.0	20(4)	15(14)	8(1)	4
Kasuga	7,080	1904	20.0	25(1)20(2)	15(14)	8(1)	4
Tsushima	3,120	1904	20.0	15(6)	8(8)	8(1)	—
Total 7	55,450 tons						

GUNBOATS

Yodo	1,320	1908	22.0	8(2)	—	2
Ataka	725	1922	16,0	12(2)	8(2)	—
Uji	540	1903	13.0	8(4)	—	—
Toba	215	1911	15.0	8(2)	—	—
Saga	685	1912	15.0	12(1)	8(3)	—
Seta	305	1923	16.0	—	8(2)	—
Katado	305	1923	16.0	—	8(2)	—
Hira	305	1923	16.0	—	8(2)	—
Hotsu	305	1923	16.0	—	8(2)	—
Atami	170	1929	16.0	—	8(1)	—
Futami	170	1930	16.0	—	8(1)	—
Total 11	5,045 tons					

1ST CLASS DESTROYERS

Name	Displacement (ton)	When Completed	Nominal Speed (knot)	Main Armaments (centimetre)	High Angle guns (centimetre)	Torpedo Tubes
Minekazé	1,215	1920	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Sawakazé	1,215	1920	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Okikazé	1,215	1920	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Shimakazé	1,215	1920	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Nadakazé	1,215	1921	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Yakazé	1,215	1920	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Hakazé	1,215	1920	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Shiokazé	1,215	1921	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Akikazé	1,215	1921	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Yukazé	1,215	1921	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Tachikazé	1,215	1921	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Hokazé	1,215	1921	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Nokazé	1,215	1922	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Namikazé	1,215	1922	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Numakazé	1,215	1922	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Kamikazé	1,270	1322	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Asakazé	1,270	1923	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Harukazé	1,270	1923	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Matsukazé	1,270	1924	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Hatakazé	1,270	1924	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Oikazé	1,270	1925	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Hayaté	1,270	1925	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Asanagi	1,270	1924	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Yunagi	1,270	1925	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Muzuki	1,315	1926	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Kisaragi	1,315	1925	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Yayoi	1,315	1926	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Uzuki	1,315	1926	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Satsuki	1,315	1925	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Minazuki	1,315	1927	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Fumizuki	1,315	1926	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Nagatsuki	1,315	1927	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Kikuzuki	1,315	1926	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Mikazuki	1,315	1927	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Mochizuki	1,315	1927	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Yuzuki	1,315	1927	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Fubuki	1,700	1928	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Shirayuki	1,700	1928	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Hatsuyuki	1,700	1928	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Murakumo	1,700	1929	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Shinonomé	1,700	1929	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Usugumo	1,700	1928	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Shirakumo	1,700	1928	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Isonami	1,700	1928	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Uranami	1,700	1929	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Ayanami	1,700	1930	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Shikinami	1,700	1929	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Asagiri	1,700	1930	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Yugiri	1,700	1930	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Amagiri	1,700	1930	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Sagiri	1,700	1931	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Oboro	1,700	1931	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Akebono	1,700	1931	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Sazanami	1,700	1932	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Ushio	1,700	1931	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Akatsuki	1,700	1932	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Hibiki	1,700	1933	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Ikazuchi	1,700	1932	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9

Name	Displacement (ton)	When Completed	Nominal Speed (knot)	Main Armaments (centimetre)	High Angle guns (centimetre)	Torpedo Tubes
Inazuma	1,700	1932	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Hatsuharu	1,368	1933	34.0	12.7(5)	—	6
Nenohi	1,368	1933	34.0	12.7(5)	—	6
Wakaba	1,368	1934	34.0	12.7(5)	—	6
Hatsushimo	1,368	1934	34.0	12.7(5)	—	6
Ariaké	1,378	1935	34.0	12.7(5)	—	6
Yuguré	1,368	1935	34.0	12.7(5)	—	6
Shiratsuyu	1,368	1936	34.0	12.7(5)	—	8
Shiguré	1,368	1936	34.0	12.7(5)	—	8
Murasamé	1,368	under construction	34.0	12.7(5)	—	8
Yudachi	1,368	,,	34.0	12.7(5)	—	8
Harusamé	1,368	,,	34.0	12.7(5)	—	8
Samidaré	1,368	,,	34.0	12.7(5)	—	8
Umikazé	1,368	,,	34.0	12.7(5)	—	8
Yamakazé	1,368	,,	34.0	12.7(5)	—	8
Kawakazé	1,368	,,	34.0	12.7(5)	—	8
Suzukazé	—	,,	—	—	—	—
Asashio	—	,,	—	—	—	—
Arashio	—	,,	—	—	—	—
Michishio	—	,,	—	—	—	—
Natsugumo	—	,,	—	—	—	—
Oshio	—	,,	—	—	—	—
Total 80	95,479 tons (completed ones only)					

2ND CLASS DESTROYERS

Momo	755	1916	31.5	12(3)	—	6
Kashi	755	1917	31.5	12(3)	—	6
Hinoki	755	1817	31.5	12(3)	—	6
Yanagi	755	1917	31.5	12(3)	—	6
Kaya	770	1920	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Niré	770	1920	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Kuri	770	1920	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Nashi	770	1919	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Také	770	1919	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Kaki	770	1920	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Tsuga	770	1920	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Kiku	770	1920	31.5	12(8)	—	4
Aoi	770	1920	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Hagi	770	1921	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Susuki	770	1921	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Fuji	770	1921	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Tsuta	770	1921	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Ashi	770	1921	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Hishi	700	1921	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Hasu	770	1922	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Sumiré	770	1923	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Yomogi	770	1922	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Tadé	770	1922	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Wakataké	820	1922	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Kuretaké	820	1922	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Sanaé	820	1923	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Asagao	820	1923	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Yugao	820	1924	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Fuyo	820	1923	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Karukaya	820	1923	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Total 30	23,390 tons					

1ST CLASS SUBMARINES

Name	Tonnage (when afloat)	When Completed	Speed (when afloat)	Armament (centimetre)	High Angle guns (centimetre)	Torpedo Tubes)
I No. 1	1,955	1926	17.0	14(2)	—	6
I No. 2	1,955	1926	17.0	14(2)	—	6
I No. 3	1,955	1926	17.0	14(2)	—	6
I No. 4	1,955	1929	17.0	14(2)	—	6
I No. 5	1,455	1932	17.0	12(2)	—	6
I No. 6	1,900	1935	17.0	12(2)	—	6
I No. 7	—	under construction	—	—	—	—
I No. 8	—	,,	—	—	—	—
I No. 21	1,142	1927	14.0	14(1)	—	4
I No. 22	1,142	1927	14.0	14(1)	—	4
I No. 23	1,142	1928	14.0	14(1)	—	4
I No. 24	1,142	1928	14.0	14(1)	—	4
I No. 51	1,390	1924	17.0	12(1)	—	8
I No. 52	1,390	1925	19.0	12(1)	—	8
I No. 53	1,635	1927	19.0	12(1)	—	8
I No. 54	1,635	1927	19.0	12(1)	—	8
I No. 55	1,635	1927	19.0	12(1)	—	8
I No. 56	1,635	1929	19.0	12(1)	—	8
I No. 57	1,635	1929	19.0	12(1)	—	8
I No. 58	1,635	1928	19.0	12(1)	—	8
I No. 59	1,635	1930	19.0	12(1)	—	8
I No. 60	1,635	1929	19.0	12(1)	—	8
I No. 61	1,635	1929	19.0	12(1)	—	6
I No. 62	1,635	1930	19.0	12(1)	—	6
I No. 63	1,635	1928	19.0	12(1)	—	8
I No. 64	1,635	1930	19.0	12(1)	—	6
I No. 65	1,638	1932	19.0	10(1)	—	6
I No. 66	1,638	1932	19.0	10(1)	—	6
I No. 67	1,638	1932	19.0	10(1)	—	6
I No. 68	1,400	1934	20.0	10(1)	—	6
I No. 69	1,400	1935	20.0	10(1)	—	6
I No. 70	1,400	1935	20.0	10(1)	—	6
I No. 71	1,400	1935	20.0	12(1)	—	6
I No. 72	—	under construction	—	—	—	—
I No. 73	—	,,	—	—	—	—
I No. 74	—	,,	—	—	—	—
I No. 75	—	,,	—	—	—	—
Total 37	49,157 tons (completed ones only)					

2ND CLASS SUBMARINES

Ro No. 26	746	1923	16.0	8(1)	—	4
Ro No. 27	746	1924	16.0	8(1)	—	4
Ro No. 28	746	1923	16.0	8(1)	—	4
Ro No. 30	655	1924	13.0	10(1)	—	4
Ro No. 31	655	1927	13.0	10(1)	—	4
Ro No. 32	655	1924	13.0	10(1)	—	4
Ro No. 33	700	1935	16.0	8(1)	—	4
Ro No. 34	—	under construction	—	—	—	—
Ro No. 51	893	1920	17.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 53	893	1921	17.0	8(1)	—	4
Ro No. 54	893	1921	17.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 55	893	1921	17.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 56	893	1922	17.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 57	889	1922	17.0	8(1)	—	4

Name	Tonnage (when afloat)	When Completed	Speed (when afloat)	Armament (centimetre)	High Angle guns (centimetre)	Torpedo Tubes
Ro No. 58	889	1922	17.0	8(1)	—	4
Ro No. 59	889	1923	17.0	8(1)	—	4
Ro No. 60	988	1923	16.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 61	988	1924	16.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 62	988	1924	16.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 63	988	1924	16.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 64	988	1925	16.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 65	988	1926	16.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 66	988	1927	16.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 67	988	1926	16.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 68	988	1925	16.0	8(1)	—	6
Total 25	20,927 tons (completed ones only)					

Note: I and Ro represent first and second letters of the Japanese Alphabet.

TORPEDO BOATS

Chidori	527	1933	26	12(3)		4
Manazuru	527	1934	26	12(3)		4
Tomozuru	527	1934	26	12(3)		—
Hatsukari	527	1934	26	12(3)		—
Otori	527	under construction	26	12(3)		—
Hiyodori	527	,,	26	12(3)		—
Kasasagi	527	,,	26	12(3)		—
Hayafusa	527	,,	26	12(3)		—
Kiji	—	,,	—	—		—
Kari	—	,,	—	—		—
Sagi	—	,,	—	—		—
Hato	—	,,	—	—		—
Total 12	2,108 tons					
No. 1	615	1923	20.9	12(2)	8(1)	—
No. 2	615	1923	20.0	12(2)	8(1)	—
No. 3	615	1925	20.0	12(2)	8(1)	—
No. 4	615	1925	20.0	12(2)	8(1)	—
No. 5	615	1929	20.0	12(2)	8(1)	—
No. 6	615	1929	20.0	12(2)	8(1)	—
No. 13	492	1933	20.0	12(2)	—	—
No. 14	492	1933	20.0	12(2)	—	—
No. 15	492	1934	20.0	12(2)	—	—
No. 16	492	1934	20.0	12(2)	—	—
No. 17	492	1936	19.0	12(2)	—	—
No. 18	492	1936	19.0	12(2)	—	—
Total 12	6,642 tons (completed ones only)					

SPECIAL SERVICE SHIPS

Training Ships

Asahi	11,441	1900	18.2	—	—	—	—
Shikishima	11,275	1900	18.6	—	—	—	—
Fuji	9,179	1897	18.25	—	—	—	—

Target Ships

Settsu	16,130	1912	21.0	

Surveying Ships

Koshu	2,080	—	10.3	8(2)

Transports

Name	Tonnage (when afloat)	When Completed	Speed (when afloat)	Armament (centimetre)	High Angle guns (centimetre)	Torpedo Tubes
Suzaki	8,800	1918	14.0	12(2)	8(2)	
Muroto	8,215	1918	12.5	12(2)	—	—
Nojima	8,215	1919	12.5	12(2)	—	
Shiretoko	14,050	1920	12.0	12(2)	8(2)	
Erimo	14,050	1920	12.0	12(2)	8(2)	
Sata	14,050	1921	12.0	14(2)	8(2)	
Tsurumi	14,050	1922	12.0	14(2)	8(2)	
Shiriya	14,050	1922	12.0	14(2)	8(2)	
Iry	14,050	1922	12.0	14(2)	8(2)	
Ondo	14,050	1923	12.0	14(2)	8(2)	
Hayatomo	14,550	1924	12.0	14(2)	8(2)	
Naruto	14,050	1924	12.0	14(2)	8(2)	
Mamiya	15,820	1924	14.0	14(2)	8(2)	
Kenzaki	—	—	—	—	—	
Takasaki	—	—	—	—	—	

Ice-breaker

Ohtomari	2,330	1921	13.0	8(1)
Total 21	219,935 tons			

The Planes

The battle planes in use in the Naval Air Force are of type 3 and type 90. The bombers and torpedo planes in use are of type 13, type 89 and type 92. Some of these machines played an important part in the Sino-Japanese conflict in Shanghai, but some of them are not suitable for an aerial war in the future.

The reconnoitering planes in use are of type 14. They are equipped with a 450 h.p. motor and can cover nearly 200 kilometres an hour. They are armed with a machine-gun mounted behind the seat of the reconnoitering officer, so that he can defend the machine against enemy fire from behind. Their speed is considered too slow for satisfactory service in the future. There are also in use type 15 and type 90.

There are also a few large patrol planes of type 90. No. 1 of these is of metallic material, 21 metres long, 30 metres wide, 12 tons in weight, and is equipped with a number of motors producing 2,100 h.p. in all. Its maximum speed is 220 kilometres an hour. The No. 2 of type 90 is 20 metres long, 30 metres wide, 13 tons in weight, and equipped with motors producing 2,400 h.p. in all. Both of them are superior in capacity to the PN-12 of the American Navy, which has a speed of less than 200 kilometres.

OCCUPANTS OF SENIOR COMMANDS

(May 1, 1937)

Name and Rank		Command
(1) FLEETS AND SQUADRONS:		
Admiral	Sankichi Takahashi	Combined Fleet and 1st Fleet
Vice-Admiral	Takayoshi Kato	2nd Fleet
Vice-Admiral	Koshiro Oikawa	3rd Fleet
(2) YOKOSUKA NAVAL STATION:		
Admiral	Gengo Hyakutaké	Naval Station
Vice-Admiral	Tatsuo Furuichi	Naval Dockyard
Rear-Admiral	Goro Hara	Naval Aeronautical Arsenal
(3) KURÉ NAVAL STATION:		
Vice-Admiral	Takayoshi Kato	Naval Station
Vice-Admiral	Teijiro Toyoda	Naval Dockyard
(4) SASEBO NAVAL STATION:		
Vice-Admiral	Koichi Shiozawa	Naval Station

Name and Rank	Command
Vice-Admiral Shigeru Kikuno	Naval Dockyard
(5) MINOR NAVAL STATIONS:	
Vice-Admiral Kamesaburo Nakamura	Maizuru Minor Station
Rear-Admiral Haruma Izawa	Ominato Minor Station
Rear-Admiral Kotozo Wada	Bako Minor Station
Vice-Admiral Keitaro Hara	Chinkai Minor Station
Rear-Admiral Masaichi Maeda	Ryojun Minor Station
Vice-Admiral Kichijiro Hamada	Manchoukuo Naval Office
Rear-Admiral Denshichi Ogochi	Landing Party at Shanghai

Presidents of Naval Schools

Vice-Admiral Saburo Sato	Naval War College
Vice-Admiral Manbei Demitsu	Naval College
Vice-Admiral Ichiro Kaneda	Naval Engineering College
Surgeon Rear-Admiral Yoshihiro Mukoyama	Naval Medical College
Paymaster Rear-Admiral Juzo Sasaki	Naval Paymasters' College
Rear-Admiral Ninichi Kusaka	Naval Gunnery School
Rear-Admiral Taichi Miki	Torpedo School
Rear-Admiral Boshiro Hosokaya	Naval Communications School
Rear-Admiral Hidehiko Ukita	Submarine School
Rear-Admirol Shiro Koiké	Navigation School
Rear-Admiral Hikohichi Asakuma	Naval Mechanists' School

Naval Promotion

Officers are promoted by selection, and candidates for special promotion are selected at the conference of the Admirals' Council.

The regular course of promotion for them is : Midshipmen, over one year's service on a training ship ; 2nd Sub-Lieutenants, over one year's service ; 1st Sub-Lieutenants, over 18 months' service including 6 months' service in Torpedo or Gunnery School. Lieutenants of over 4 years' service are promoted to Lieutenant-Commander.

Special service 1st Sub-Lieutenants, over two years' service ; Special service 2nd Sub-Lieutenants, over three years' service. Special service Lieutenants (combatants, engineers and paymasters) may be promoted to Lieutenant-Commander by special appointment.

The qualifications for subsequent promotion are as follows :

Promotion	Minimum Service in Lower Rank
Commanders—Lieutenant-Commanders	2 years
Captains—Commanders	2 ,,
Rear-Admirals—Captains	2 ,,
Vice-Admirals—Rear-Admirals	2 ,,
Admirals—Vice-Admirals	Period determined by Imperial order subject to special merit

N. B. 1st class warrant or ranking officer of over 6 years in the service may be promoted to 1st Lieutenant or ranking officer.

CHAPTER VIII

PUBLIC FINANCE

General Outline

The total revenue and expenditure of the Japanese Government at the beginning of the Meiji Era were maintained around the ¥30,000,000 mark, but in recent years they have reached as high as from ¥1,800,000,000 to ¥2,000,000,000 each for general accounts only.[1]

Sources of Income Early in the Meiji Era the land tax constituted the chief financial source of revenue for the State, consequently the farmers provided by far the greater part of the revenue, and the burden business men and industrialists had to bear for the State was very small. The tax revenue in the first year of Meiji amounted to ¥3,150,000, of which the land tax yielded more than 60 per cent. A tax revision was carried out in 1875 and, in consequence, the Government established various new taxes as direct sources of State income.

The Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese wars also brought about noteworthy changes in the State finances, because the necessary funds were raised by the issuance of bonds and the imposition of heavy taxes on people. As the Taisho Era coincided with the World War and postwar prosperity periods it was marked by phenomenal business and industrial expansion and increase in State revenue. During this time it became more than apparent that a thorough readjustment of the tax system was necessary, if the burden of taxation was to be equitably distributed. A thorough investigation was made, and after much forethought and drawing on experiences of the past the present system was evolved. The yearly tax revenue in recent years has been around ¥800,000,000, which is 36 per cent of the total State revenue. The customs tariff, because of its international aspect was harder to arrange and the adoption of a national tariff by Japan instead of a conventional one was only realized after difficult diplomatic negotiations.

Japan has a monopoly system of its own, and though a monopoly differs from a tax in principle it is the same in substance. In Japan proper there is a government monopoly in tobacco, salt and camphor and in the colonies one is enforced in saké, opium, ginseng and other special products. The tobacco monopoly is not different in nature from the excise tax on saké distillation and the revenue accruing from it occupies an important position in government finance.

Bonds form an integral part of the country's finance as well as the State revenue and taxes. Bonds were first issued in Japan in 1870 in the form of foreign loans. The first domestic bonds were issued in 1873 by the Meiji Government for the purpose of raising funds to take over the entire amount of debts of the feudal clans. Subsequent issues of bonds followed the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese wars. The nationalization of the railway caused a further increase in the bond issue and at the end of 1912, the closing year of the Meiji Era, the total debts of the Central Government amounted to ¥2,500,000,000. During and immediately after the Great War, there was great activity in financial circles and the Government made large issues of bonds for the purpose of obtaining funds for starting or subsidizing various new industries. The expenses of the Siberian Expedition and Japan's participation in the World War on the Allies' side were met by bond issues as emergency funds and later, the money necessary for the reconstruction of Tokyo and other Kwanto districts devastated by the great earthquake and fire of 1923 was also raised by means of domestic and foreign bonds. The Government also had to issue a great number of bonds for readjustment of the so-called Earthquake Bills and for special loan accommodation to banks after the banking crisis of 1927. Japan's national debts have thus mounted to more than ¥6,000,000,000. (See "Public Debts" for a fuller statement.)

Local Finance Provincial government finance has moved in line with the Central Government finance. The feudal clans were abolished and replaced by prefectural governments in July, 1871, and the total prefectural finance was only ¥16,000,000 in 1873. The promulga-

1 For a detailed historical account of public finances see The Japan Year Book, 1933, Chapter IX.

tion of the city, town and village administration system in 1888 and that of the prefectural administrative system in 1890 were great events marking the establishment of self-government. Provincial expenditure which amounted to ¥43,000,000 in 1891, had increased to ¥336,000,000 by 1926, the largest increase being in the Taisho Era, when, benefiting from the effects of the war-boom on domestic finance and economy and following the lead and encouragement of the Central Government, the prefectural and other self-governing bodies launched all kinds of enterprises, issuing bonds and increasing local taxes to obtain the necessary funds. In the fiscal year 1927–28 the total revenue of all self-governing bodies amounted to ¥2,247,827,513, although it dwindled in subsequent years, the fiscal year 1932–1933, showing a figure of ¥1,473,451,698. (See "Local Expenditure" for the status of recent years.)

Accounts System

In the second year of Meiji, 1869, Shigenobu Okuma (later Marquis Okuma) submitted to the Government a plan calling for the establishment of an accounts system to prevent a reckless disbursement of administrative expenses. In due course, and as a result of this plan, a Ministry of Finance and a fiscal year starting with October and ending with September were instituted. When Hirobumi Ito (later Prince Ito) came home from his inspecting trip to America in 1873, he offered valuable advice to the Government on a financial system and this caused the Government to announce its estimates of accounts. This marked an important point in the accounts system of Japan as it was the prototype of the Government budget, but because of the lack of system, the budget of each Ministry was subject to change by the administrative chief. The fiscal year was changed to from April to March in 1886, and has been so observed since. The opening of the Imperial Diet in 1890 brought about a great improvement in the accounts system of Japan, for each budget has since been subject to approval, and Government income and expenditure has thus come under supervision. The Board of Audit under direct control of the Emperor was also established and to it is assigned the duty of inspecting the Government accounts. These perfected the constitutional accounts system of the Government and at the same time the Accounts Law was promulgated in 1889 and has been enforced since April 1, 1890. This law laid the foundation of the accounts system of Japan and in 1921 it was revised from the so-called "safe" system to the "deposit" system, i.e. the depositing of Government funds in the Bank of Japan.

Special Accounts

Special accounts for the Government's enterprises existed independently of general accounts, before the promulgation of the Accounts Law in 1889. Railway funds, readjustment loans, enterprise funds, hypothec funds and others were included among the special accounts, which were unified by a law issued in 1889. The number of special accounts for the 1890–91 fiscal year was 33, which increased to 61 in 1908. Mr. Yuko Hamaguchi, Finance Minister of the Kato (Takaaki) Cabinet, made a substantial readjustment of special accounts in 1925 and reduced the number to 31. Subsequently, the health insurance special accounts, the postal annuity special accounts and live-stock reinsurance special accounts were established. In 1934 government steel works was omitted and communication enterprises was put into the list instead. The present number of special accounts is 34 and is as follows: (1) China Cultural Enterprise, (2) Health Insurance, (3) Government Mint, (4) Printing Bureau, (5) Monopoly Bureau, (6) Deposits Bureau, (7) Education Funds, (8) National Loan Readjustment Funds, (9) Public Loans, (10) Indemnity, (11) National Property Readjustment Funds, (12) Education Improvement and Agricultural Village Promotion Funds, (13) Korean Government-General, (14) Korean Railway Stores Funds, (15) Formosan Government-General, (16) Formosan Railway Stores Funds, (17) Kwantung Government, (18) Karafuto Government, (19) South Seas Government, (20) Army Arsenals, (21) Senju Military Cloth Manufactory, (22) Naval Arsenals, (23) Naval Gunpowder Magazines, (24) Naval Fuel Factories, (25) Imperial Universities, (26) Government Colleges, (27) Government Schools and Libraries, (28) Rice Demand and Supply Regulation, (29) Live-Stock Reinsurance, (30) Post Office Life Insurance, (31) Korean Post Office Life Insurance, (32) Postal Annuity Service, (33) Imperial Government Railways, and (34) Communication Enterprises.

Finance of Sino-Japanese War

The Sino-Japanese War imparted a great impetus to Japanese finance. The war started in June, 1894, and ended in March, 1895. The enormous amount of ¥200,000,000 was needed to pay for it.

Japan got 200,000,000 taels of war indemnity from China as the result of the Shimonoseki Peace Treaty and also 35,000,000 taels as recompense for the retrocession of Liaotung Peninsula. This amount made good the war expenses Japan paid, but immediately after it State finance increased tremendously. The Government appropriated ¥190,000,000 into the general budget for the 1896–97 fiscal year, being double that of the year before. The increase was caused through armament expansion, the management of Formosa (which was the territory ceded by China), expansion of traffic and communications and sundry other enterprises necessary for national development. The Government appropriated for 32 kinds of continuation enterprises ¥180,000,000 in 1896 and of this amount ¥48,000,000 was apportioned for that year only. The majority of continuation enterprises were armament expansion such as ¥47,000,000 for warship construction, ¥33,000,000 for naval ordnance, ¥17,000,000 for army expenses, and ¥14,000,000 for naval construction. These enterprises spread over from two to nine years. It is necessary to explain the war indemnity special accounts to know the financial expansion. Converted into the Japanese currency, the indemnity totalled ¥372,599,488. Excluding the maintenance funds for the Weihaiwei guard, the indemnity of ¥364,599,656 was used for the following purposes :

All supplementary funds to extraordinary war funds	¥78,957,164
Army expansion funds	56,798,638
Navy expansion funds	139,259,387
Establishment of Government Steel Works	579,762
Transferred to general accounts for 1897–98 fiscal year	3,214,484
Transferred to general accounts for 1898–99 fiscal year	12,000,000
Transferred to Imperial Household accounts	20,000,000
Warship and torpedo funds	30,000,000
Educational funds	10,000,000
Balance at the end of 1902–3 fiscal year	3,700,218

Russo-Japanese War and Post-War Finance

The Russo-Japanese War began in February of 1904 and ended in September of 1905 with the conclusion of the Portsmouth Treaty. Japan spent ¥1,716,000,000 in war expenses (extraordinary war funds special accounts during the period of one year and four months. In addition, extraordinary expenses spent by various Ministries in connection with the War amounted to ¥238,000,000, thus making an aggregate of ¥1,954,000,000. The war funds were raised by means of taxes to the amount of ¥215,000,000, surplus funds totalling ¥147,000,000, special funds of ¥670,000,000 (an aggregate of ¥430,000,000), and the remainder by floating public loans and obtaining temporary advances totalling ¥1,559,000,000. The Government increased taxes on all the principal items on the tax list and also expanded the spheres of the oil consumption tax and the tobacco monopoly system, thereby raising ¥62,000,000. It also established the textile consumption tax and transit tax and introduced the salt monopoly, thereby realizing an income of ¥74,000,000. During the time the War was in progress, four new Divisions were formed with the approval of the Diet. In the 1906–7 fiscal year two more Divisions were established. In consequence, six Divisions were added to the existing 18 Divisions and these constituted the standing army. In the Navy, two warships, the Nisshin and Kasuga, were purchased during the War, and after the War naval expansion was carried out, resulting in the increase of total warship tonnage from 260,000 tons before the War to 513,000 tons in 1908. The railway nationalization bill was approved in the 22nd session of the Imperial Diet and was enforced in 1907. The Government issued ¥476,000,000 bonds for the purpose of nationalization. A considerable increase was made in State expenditure after the War. The 1904–5 fiscal year's expenditure of the general accounts totalling ¥277,000,000 increased to ¥600,000,000 in 1907 and those of the special accounts made a remarkable increase from ¥130,000,000 to ¥678,000,000 during the same period. In tax revenue, the amount of ¥190,000,000 for 1904 doubled by 1907. Cries for financial retrenchment began to be heard. The Saionji Cabinet and the second Katsura Cabinet tried to retrench but without success.

Finance during the Taisho Era

A financial retrenchment policy was adopted by the Government early in the Taisho Era. Japan's foreign trade

witnessed a marked increase in the excess of imports and its national debts increased heavily. The specie reserve quickly dwindled. How to bring about an equilibrium in the international debit and credit relations formed a source of great concern. A great change was made in Japan's financial and economic conditions by the outbreak of the World War in July,1914. Japan participated in the War on the Allies' side and sent its expeditionary force to Shantung. The Okuma Cabinet was responsible for Japan's participation. Prior to this, a two-Division increase controversy formed the cause of the downfall of the Saionji Cabinet, but the outbreak of the War solved the problem. Two army divisions were established in Korea. The army readjustment plan, the eight-four squadron programme, naval construction and other wartime expenses contributed to a financial expansion. The Government expenditure for the 1918–19 fiscal year totalled more than ¥1,000,000,000, showing a 40 per cent gain over the year before. The continuation expenses commencing with the 1918–19 fiscal year totalled more than ¥1,000,000,000. The Government revised taxes, raised the income tax by 15 per cent, alcholic drink tax by 14 per cent and beer tax by 20 per cent and established a wartime profit tax, the result being an increased revenue of ¥63,000,000.

The World War Japanese economic prosperity attained its high-water mark during the World War. A considerable increase was made in the country's visible and invisible foreign trade. An excess of exports over imports in the visible trade for 1915, 1916, 1917 and 1918 recorded an aggregate of ¥1,400,000,000 and that in the invisible trade reached nearly the same amount. This resulted in a remarkable increase of specie. The amount of specie holdings at the end of 1914 was only ¥340,000,000, but this had increased to as much as ¥2,180,000,000 by the end of 1920. The Hara Cabinet which replaced the Terauchi Cabinet in September, 1918, took advantage of the war-time boom to carry out an inflation policy, funds being specially allotted to armament replenishment and to the perfecting of traffic and communication arrangements. In connection with the completion of the eight-eight battle squadron programme, sponsored by the navy, the continuation expenses of ¥408,000,000 for warship construction were increased by ¥750,000,000. National defence expenses involving the army and navy totalled ¥620,000,000, of which ¥242,000,000 was for the army and the rest for the navy. A new appropriation of ¥225,000,000 was added to the existing appropriation of ¥292,000,000 for the telephone enterprise, to be disbursed over eight years commencing 1920 ; and in the telegraphic enterprises ¥74,000,000 was to be spent in the following seven years. The enormous amount of ¥1,420,000,000 was set aside for railway enterprises, spread over 10 years. The Government expenditure for the 1922–23 fiscal year totalled ¥1,491,000,000. To raise this amount bonds were issued, the sinking fund was suspended and taxes increased. The great financial reaction that overtook Japan in 1920 and the great Kwanto earthquake and fire of 1923 precipitated Japanese finance and economy into a miserable plight. These incidents virtually formed the causes of the difficulties in national finance and economy which now faced the country.

Financial Readjustment The Katō (Tomosaburo) Cabinet carried out a great financial readjustment. The Washington Treaty was ratified in Japan in August, 1922. According to the 1923–24 fiscal year's budget formulated by this Cabinet the basic naval plan was so changed that the Government reduced naval continuation expenses by ¥200,000,000 and was also able to make a cut of ¥70,000,000 in other enterprises. Substantial cuts were made in the income, business, stamp and drug taxes and the oil consumption tax was abolished. The reduction totalled ¥14,000,000. The sinking fund system was restored and ¥42,000,000 was devoted to it. Immediately after the death of Premier Viscount Katō in August, 1923, the great Kwanto earthquake took place. The disbursement of ¥572,000,000 on a six-year programme for earthquake reconstruction work was fixed by the Yamamoto Cabinet that succeeded the Kato Cabinet, and all these expenses were to be raised by bonds. The Yamamoto Cabinet was in existence for only four months and the Kiyoura Cabinet, which succeeded it, had to enforce the plan. The Government raised a £25,000,000 loan in London and a $150,000,000 loan in New York. These foreign loans totalled ¥550,000,000, and of this ¥350,000,000 was devoted to the con-

version of sterling bonds, which matured in February and July, 1925, and the remaining amount was used for earthquake and fire reconstruction. A financial retrenchment policy was adopted by the Coalition Cabinet headed by Premier Count Takaaki Kato of the Kenseikai. The Cabinet was inducted in June, 1924, and a no-loan policy was adopted by the Cabinet and taxation readjustment was also enforced. An independent Kenseikai Cabinet took the place of the Coalition Cabinet in March, 1925. Thoroughgoing revision was introduced into the income, land, business, inheritance, saké, textile consumption and hemp taxes. The transit, soy sauce, and drug taxes were revised and the capital interest and soft drink taxes were created. A reduction of ¥37,000,000 in taxes was realized for the 1926–27 fiscal year.

Finance of the Showa Era

For the first six years of Showa, 1926–32, two Seiyukai and two Minseito (incarnation of Kenseikai) Cabinets came into power in turn. The former stands for a traditional inflation policy, while the latter for deflation policy. Financial retrenchment was carried out by the Minseito Cabinet and the gold embargo was lifted by the Hamaguchi Cabinet (Minseito) on January 11, 1930. Mr. Junnosuké Inouyé, Finance Minister of that Cabinet, adopted a no-loan policy. A noteworthy financial retrenchment was carried out by Mr. Inouyé in the 1930–31 fiscal year's budget and, in spite of a strenuous protest of the army and navy against the retrenchment, he was successful in effecting a saving of ¥35,063,000, of which ¥26,733,000 was the result of reduction of administrative expenses and ¥8,330,000 by the postponement of different enterprises.

The Inukai Cabinet that succeeded the Wakatsuki Cabinet on December 16, 1931, decided to adopt the budget drafted by the preceding Cabinet, due to lack of time to formulate a new one. However, the new Cabinet determined not to abolish the Overseas Ministry and other administrative organizations, which were decided on by the Wakatsuki Cabinet, but decided to carry out administrative readjustment. The sinking fund system was temporarily suspended and the deficient income was to be met by loans.

Expansion of National Budget

The first expansion of Japanese finance had come with the World War when it had passed the ¥1,000,000,000 mark and the next one came with the Manchurian incident, and in 1932 it approached the ¥2,000,000,000 mark. The increase of the national ways and means has continued since and the budget for 1937–38 reaches ¥2,815,000,000, an increase of ¥510,000,000 or 18 per cent as compared with the previous year.

The exchange rate of the yen has greatly fluctuated in these years. But even when the lowered value of the yen is taken into consideration the real increase in the national finance cannot be denied, while the rate of its per capita increase far exceeds that of population.

The per capita national wealth, national revenue and national expenditure has all increased greatly since 1912, the index numbers on the base of that year taken as 100 being 290.2 for national wealth in 1930, 289.7 for national revenue in 1934 and 293.3 for national expenditure in 1936, or the rate of their increase is almost on a par with each other.

Among the resources of national revenue the rate of increase of loans is much more ahead of those of taxes and others. The outstanding national loans which amounted to ¥2,570,000,000 at the end of 1912 increased to ¥9,850,000,000 at the end of 1935, or the per capita debt increased from ¥50 for Japan proper and ¥37 for the Empire in 1912 to ¥145 for Japan proper and ¥102 for the Empire in 1935. The amount of national revenue from taxes increased, but its proportion to the total revenue decreased and the per capita amount of taxes also decreased as compared with 1926 as given in the following table.

As to the finance of local governments its increase is still more rapid than that of the central government, its index number in 1935 being 555.65 against 371.71 for the latter as compared with 1912.

YEARLY COMPARISON OF REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE, NATIONAL LOANS, NATIONAL WEALTH AND NATIONAL INCOME

(Amount in ¥1,000)

	Expenditure, General Account		Revenue, General Account			
	Amount	Revalued according to the current value of the yen (Amount divided by the average index No. of prices)	Total Amount	From Taxes Amount	From Loans Proportion to the Total	From Loans Amount
1912	593,596	449,456	687,392	360,970	52.51	18,327
1913	573,634	433,520	721,975	369,480	51.18	10,895
1914	648,420	513,356	734,648	343,708	46.79	12,689
1915	583,270	456,536	708,616	312,745	44.13	1,705
1916	590,795	382,218	813,309	348,673	42.87	1,577
1917	735,024	377,904	1,084,958	430,604	39.69	16,984
1918	1,017,036	399,198	1,479,116	519,293	35.11	28,355
1919	1,172,328	375,770	1,808,633	672,386	37.18	19,090
1920	1,359,978	396,276	2,000,652	696,257	34.80	53,632
1921	1,489,856	561,955	2,065,711	785,852	38.04	53,033
1922	1,429,690	551,855	2,087,345	896,404	42.94	26,926
1923	1,521,050	577,292	2,045,298	787,203	38.49	35,041
1924	1,625,024	594,811	2,127,391	887,238	41.71	127,970
1925	1,524,989	571,499	2,071,369	894,809	43.20	46,590
1926	1,578,826	667,157	2,056,361	886,999	43.13	34,033
1927	1,765,723	785,988	2,062,755	898,673	43.57	61,094
1928	1,814,855	802,678	2,005,691	915,910	45.67	157,085
1929	1,736,317	789,845	1,826,445	893,505	48.92	99,863
1930	1,557,864	860,793	1,596,972	835,041	52.29	38,000
1931	1,476,875	955,025	1,531,082	735,504	48.04	120,272
1932	1,950,141	1,210,816	2,045,276	695,837	34.02	659,593
1933	2,254,662	1,256,219	2,331,760	748,567	32.10	753,038
1934	2,163,004	1,217,633	2,246,982	843,183	37.53	742,542
1935	2,206,478	1,189,733	2,259,321	926,083	40.99	678,371
1936	2,311,517	1,170,388	2,305,574	965,391	41.87	703,838

	From Others					
	Proportion to the Total	Amount	Proportion to the Total	Loans Outstanding at the end of the year	National Wealth (In ¥1,000,000)	National Income
1912	2.67	308,095	44.82	2,573,219	—	2,944
1913	1.79	339,600	47.04	2,584,123	32,043	3,030
1914	1.45	380,251	51.76	2,506,371	—	3,130
1915	0.24	394,166	55.62	2,489,234	—	3,030
1916	0.19	463,059	56.93	2,467,702	—	3,055
1917	1.59	637,370	58.75	2,698,741	45,696	3,527
1918	1.92	931,468	62.97	3,051,776	—	4,670
1919	1.06	1,117,157	61.77	3,277,873	86,079	6,384
1020	2.68	1,250,763	62.52	3,777,264	—	8,284
1021	2.57	1,226,826	59.39	4,077,116	—	10,855
1022	1.29	1,164,015	55.77	4,341,896	—	13,389
1023	1.71	1,223,054	59.80	4,729,956	—	13,252
1024	6.02	1,112,183	52.28	4,863,013	102,341	12,904
1925	2.25	1,129,970	54.55	4,999,176	—	13,382
1926	1.66	1,135,329	55.21	5,171,766	—	12,503
1927	2.96	1,102,988	53.47	5,397,867	—	11,637
1928	7.83	932,696	46.50	5,831,261	—	11,434
1929	5.47	833,077	45.61	5,959,457	—	11,510
1930	2.38	723,931	45.33	5,955,817	110,188	10,636
1931	7.86	675,306	44.11	6,187,657	—	8,716
1932	32.25	689,846	33.73	7,054,196	—	8,539
1933	32.29	830,155	35.60	8,139,038	—	9,719
1934	33.05	661,257	29.43	9,090,454	—	11,247
1935	30.03	654,867	28.99	9,854,301	—	—
1936	30.53	636,345	27.60	—	—	—

Note:—Figures for revenue and expenditure in 1912-1934 represent settled accounts in 1935 current accounts, and in 1936 budget.

YEARLY COMPARISON OF PER CAPITA NATIONAL EXPENDITURE, TAXES, LOANS, WEALTH AND INCOME

(In Yen)

	Expenditure, General, Account	Taxes	Loans Outstanding The Empire	Loans Outstanding Japan Proper	National Wealth	National Income
1912	11.47	7.13	37.52	50.88	—	58
1913	10.95	7.20	36.82	50.37	600	59
1914	12.08	6.60	34.99	48.16	—	60
1915	10.71	5.92	34.15	47.19	—	57
1916	10.70	6.51	33.33	46.13	—	57
1917	13.12	7.95	35.93	49.85	815	65
1918	17.51	9.48	40.09	55.75	—	85
1919	20.84	12.21	42.81	59.56	1,530	116
1920	24.52	12.55	48.94	68.09	—	149
1921	26.56	14.01	52.20	72.69	—	194
1922	25.19	15.79	54.93	76.50	—	236
1923	26.47	13.70	59.09	82.30	—	231
1924	27.93	15.25	59.91	83.59	1,759	222
1925	25.88	15.19	60.81	84.85	—	227
1926	26.43	14.85	61.15	86.57	—	209
1927	29.08	14.80	63.22	88.89	—	192
1928	29.47	14.87	67.46	94.70	—	186
1929	27.79	14.30	68.05	95.38	—	184
1930	24.61	13.19	67.14	94.10	1,741	168
1931	22.99	11.45	67.57	96.34	—	136
1932	29.99	10.70	76.91	108.50	—	131
1933	34.14	11.34	87.27	123.25	—	147
1934	32.33	12.60	96.15	135.87	—	168
1935	32.60	13.68	102.74	145.58	—	—
1936	33.64	14.05	—	—	—	—

Note:—Figures for expenditure and taxes in 1912-1934 represent settled accounts, in 1935 current accounts and in 1936 budget.

YEARLY COMPARISON OF REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENTS

(In ¥1,000)

	Expenditure		Revenue		Expenditure		Revenue
	Amount	Revalued according to the current value of the yen			Amount	Revalued according to the current value of the yen	
1912	330,467	250,221	387,215	1924	1,306,100	478,075	1,613,590
1913	320,595	242,288	367,924	1925	1,409,196	528,105	1,712,791
1914	320,433	253,688	366,224	1926	1,593,997	673,567	1,912,002
1915	311,636	243,923	359,474	1927	1,969,307	876,611	2,247,828
1916	328,558	212,563	379,376	1928	1,893,809	837,598	2,156,918
1917	378,569	194,637	472,927	1929	1,714,647	779,988	1,956,528
1918	495,041	194,309	588,912	1930	1,752,737	968,470	1,993,262
1919	652,387	209,112	809,664	1931	1,625,969	1,062,447	1,826,211
1920	949,166	276,572	1,153,424	1932	1,898,928	1,179,019	2,097,910
1921	1,078,450	406,778	1,337,528	1933	1,534,905	1,412,361	2,761,632
1922	1,288,896	497,509	1,567,242	1934	1,792,632	1,009,137	1,793,126
1923	1,253,754	475,844	1,541,055	1935	1,836,237	990,099	1,837,117

Note:—Figures for 1912-1933 represent settled accounts, for 1934 and 1935 budget.

STATE REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE FOR THE YEAR ENDING MARCH, 31ST, 1937, COMPARED WITH THE BUDGET FOR 1935-36

Sources of Revenue	1936-37 Working Budget	1935-36 Budget	Comparison Increase	Comparison Decrease
		(In yen)		
Ordinary:				
Taxes:	923,302,673	828,741,889	94,560,784	—
Income tax	231,459,194	195,888,036	35,568,155	—
Land tax	58,508,243	57,922,397	585,846	—
Business profits tax	61,850,319	50,499,989	11,350,330	—
Capital interest tax	15,639,040	14,903,819	735,221	—
Succession tax	32,607,153	28,983,738	3,623,415	—
Mining tax	4,278,171	3,903,194	374,977	—
Tax on liquors	209,520,291	212,562,395	—	3,042,068
Table water tax	3,710,490	3,587,498	122,992	—
Sugar excise	87,295,039	78,029,335	9,265,704	—
Textiles consumption tax	42,750,357	33,467,822	9,282,535	—
Tax on bourses	14,842,084	16,526,126	—	1,684,042
Customs duties	158,012,255	129,955,969	28,056,286	—
Tonnage dues	2,833,040	2,511,607	321,433	—
Stamp receipts	79,610,398	82,205,016	—	2,594,618
Receipts from Government undertakings and properties	292,404,703	276,410,031	15,994,672	—
Forests	46,407,469	41,074,606	5,332,863	—
Profits of monopoly	201,896,234	195,711,493	6,184,741	—
Dividend receipts	29,304,397	26,540,116	2,764,281	—
Prisons receipts	9,851,257	8,848,710	1,002,547	—
Other receipts from Government undertakings and properties	4,945,346	4,235,106	710,240	—
Receipts from the Special Account for postal, telegraph and telephone services	81,000,000	78,000,000	3,000,000	—
Payments to the Government by the Bank of Japan	20,760,435	25,364,568	—	4,604,133
Miscellaneous receipts	46,332,391	38,587,591	7,744,800	—
Transfers from Special Account of funds for educational improvement and agricultural village development	6,648,436	6,231,819	416,617	—
Total	1,450,059,036	1,335,540,914	114,518,122	—
Extraordinary:				
Proceeds of sale of state property	16,643,798	10,646,816	5,996,982	—
Miscellaneous receipts	16,550,117	22,075,561	—	5,525,444
Receipts from the issue of public loans	703,837,561	771,651,200	—	67,813,639
Local payment to expenses incurred by the State for the benefit of certain prefectures	7,407,516	5,262,557	2,144,959	—
Local contributions to expenses incurred by the State for the benefit of certain prefectures	10,640,710	8,496,892	2,143,818	—
Subsidies for scientific research	33,000	30,000	3,000	—
Transfers from Special Accounts	11,997,769	10,124,282	1,873,487	—
Receipts from the Special Profits Tax	42,087,900	30,395,799	11,692,101	—
Balances of the Special Account for imperial iron works transferred	—	—	—	—
Transfer of the surplus from the preceding year	—	7,000,000	—	7,000,000
Receipts from certain Special Accounts	17,500,000	—	17,500,000	—
Other receipts	28,816,788	14,189,788	14,627,000	—
Total	855,515,159	897,872,895	—	24,357,736
Total revenue	2,305,574,195	2,215,413,809	90,160,386	—

Note:—For comparison with the Budget for 1936-37, certain adjustments have been made in the figures of the Budget for 1935-36.

Branches of Expenditure	1936-37 Working Budget	1935-36 Budget	Comparison Increase	Comparison Decrease
		(In yen)		
Ordinary:				
Imperial Household	4,500,000	4,500,000	—	—
Foreign Affairs	17,283,854	16,830,011	453,843	—
Department proper	3,389,412	3,243,410	146,002	—
Embassies, legations and consulates abroad	12,537,064	12,236,142	300,922	—
Other expenses	1,357,378	1,350,459	6,919	—
Home Affairs:	57,975,262	50,746,316	7,228,946	—
Shinto shrines	1,001,360	1,001,360	—	—
Department proper	907,190	853,792	53,398	—
Bureau of Social Affairs	453,891	418,035	35,856	—
Prefectures (Dō, Fu and Ken)	10,606,609	10,429,601	177,008	—
Police	26,689,198	22,675,825	4,013,373	—
Other expenses	18,317,014	15,367,703	2,949,311	—
Finance:	462,408,473	460,505,573	1,902,900	—
Department proper	972,615	965,775	6,840	—
Cabinet and Privy Council	1,695,377	1,562,612	132,765	—
House of Peers and House of Representatives	4,326,293	3,142,378	1,183,915	—
Court of Administrative Litigation and Board of Auditors	602,561	585,676	16,885	—
Custom-houses	5,020,995	4,653,720	367,275	—
Expenses for the collection of inland taxes	16,795,067	16,309,852	485,215	—
Taxes returned and exchange loss compensation, etc.	19,212,984	11,739,588	7,473,396	—
Transferred to National Debt Consolidation Fund	383,111,139	389,526,551	—	6,415,412
Funds in reserve	29,000,000	29,000,000	—	—
Other expenses	1,671,442	3,019,421	—	1,347,979
Army:	190,908,022	179,803,775	11,104,247	—
Department proper	612,591	612,591	—	—
Expenses for military affairs	189,337,005	178,177,285	11,159,720	—
Other expenses	958,426	1,013,899	—	55,473
Navy:	236,752,210	215,917,830	20,834,380	—
Department proper	485,575	485,575	—	—
Expenses for military affairs	235,113,726	214,158,625	20,955,101	—
Other expenses	1,152,909	1,273,630	—	120,721
Justice:	36,672,958	35,912,725	760,233	—
Department proper	529,678	521,464	8,214	—
Judicial courts and office consignment	19,141,425	19,097,243	44,182	—
Prisons	16,944,247	16,232,944	711,303	—
Other expenses	57,608	61,074	—	3,466
Education:	131,277,079	130,486,020	791,059	—
Department proper	2,453,685	2,400,257	53,428	—
Educational grants	95,987,471	95,654,286	333,185	—
Government educational institutions and library	31,571,884	31,332,316	239,568	—
Other expenses	1,264,039	1,099,161	164,878	—
Agriculture and Forestry	34,112,040	31,241,529	2,870,511	—
Department proper	1,452,212	1,517,862	—	65,650
Forestry expenses	23,731,647	21,474,773	2,256,874	—
Other expenses	8,928,181	8,248,894	679,287	—
Commerce and Industry:	5,693,827	5,488,264	205,563	—
Department proper	1,651,799	1,597,215	54,584	—
Patent Bureau and Mining Inspection Office	1,374,032	1,352,265	21,767	—
Other expenses	2,667,996	2,538,784	129,212	—
Communications	181,513,792	176,897,106	4,616,686	—

Branches of Expenditure	1936–37 Working Budget	1935–36 Budget	Comparison Increase	Comparison Decrease
		(In yen)		
Department proper	1,178,219	1,055,874	122,345	—
Communication expenses	1,259,349	1,250,404	8,935	—
Pensions and annuities	177,373,499	173,027,702	4,345,797	—
Other expenses	1,702,725	1,563,126	139,599	—
Overseas Affairs:	2,192,652	1,973,379	219,273	—
Department proper	728,027	715,129	12,898	—
Other expenses	1,464,625	1,258,250	206,375	—
Total	1,361,290,169	1,310,302,528	50,987,641	—
Extraordinary:				
Foreign Affairs	14,617,758	12,848,582	1,769,176	—
Home Affairs	151,038,286	112,858,662	38,179,624	—
Finance	28,999,105	28,655,311	343,794	—
Army	317,408,678	313,155,204	4,253,474	—
Navy	315,079,205	313,865,604	1,213,601	—
Justice	2,720,588	2,482,682	237,906	—
Education	11,528,453	19,338,856	—	7,810,403
Agriculture and Forestry	63,309,199	62,232,553	1,076,646	—
Commerce and Industry	13,253,023	7,975,500	5,277,523	—
Communications	15,025,074	13,066,265	1,958,809	—
Overseas Affairs	17,247,749	18,632,062	—	1,384,313
Total	950,227,118	905,111,281	45,115,837	—
Total expenditure	2,311,517,287	2,215,413,809	96,103,478	—

Budget for the Fiscal Year 1936–37

General Features The Budget for the General Account for the fiscal year 1936–37, as compiled by the Okada Government, was submitted to the Diet in the 68th Session (December 1935 to January 1936), but failed to pass on account of the dissolution of the House of Representatives in January, 1936. Whereupon, the Government, pursuant to Article 71 of the Imperial Constitution, was to adopt the Budget of the preceding fiscal year and to compile a Working Budget. Before the compilation of such Working Budget, however, there was so sudden a change of Government that the Hirota Government which, on coming into power, had no time to embody its new policies in the Budget, decided to compile a Working Budget generally on the basis of the principles on which the Budget that failed to pass the Diet was compiled. The Working Budget was thus compiled within the limits of the Formal Budget (Budget of the preceding fiscal year) with its provisions for ¥2,215,413,809 of revenue and ¥2,045,010,641 of expenditure, and

(1) with respect to the items not covered by the appropriations made in the Formal Budget, requirements were made in the first, second and third Supplementary Budgets approved by the Diet in the 69th Session, specially held;

(2) with regard to the amounts made available, only upon the passing of the Supplementary Budget, within the limits of the Formal Budget, such were added to the Working Budget.

Following the sequence of the Working Budget and the Supplementary Budgets, we find that,

1. The Working Budget, as first compiled within the limits of the Formal Budget, was as follows:

Revenue	¥
Ordinary	1,427,539,814
Extraordinary	126,249,091
Normal revenue	115,836,263
Receipts from the issue of public loans	10,412,828
Total	1,553,788,905
Expenditure	
Ordinary	1,290,513,044
Extraordinary	513,647,441
Total	1,804,160,485

2. The first Supplementary Budget was as follows:

Revenue	¥
Ordinary	22,254,075
Extraordinary	340,088,187
Normal revenue	33,691,291
Receipts from the issue of public loans	306,396,896
Total	362,342,262
Expenditure	
Ordinary	61,519,108
Extraordinary	300,823,154
Total	362,342,262

3. Amounts added, upon the passing of the first Supplementary Budget, to the Working Budget within the limits of the Formal Budget were as follows :

Revenue	¥
Ordinary	265,147
Extraordinary	386,923,572
Normal revenue	1,162,044
Receipts from the issue of public loans	385,761,528
Total	387,188,719
Expenditure	
Ordinary	8,712,872
Extraordinary	128,104,267
Total	136,817,139

4. The second Supplementary Budget was as follows :

Revenue	¥
Ordinary	0
Extraordinary	1,266,309
Normal revenue	0
Receipts from the issue of public loans	1,266,309
Total	1,266,309
Expenditure	
Ordinary	515,039
Extraordinary	2,584,467
Total	3,099,506

5. Amounts added, upon the passing of the second Supplementary Budget, to the Working Budget within the limits of the Formal Budget were as follows :

Revenue	¥
Ordinary	0
Extraordinary	0
Total	0
Expenditure	
Ordinary	30,106
Extraordinary	4,079,789
Total	4,109,895

6. The third Supplementary Budget was as follows :

Revenue	¥
Ordinary	0
Extraordinary	988,000
Normal revenue	988,000
Receipts from the issue of public loans	0
Total	988,000
Expenditure	
Ordinary	0
Extraordinary	988,000
Total	988,000

Including these amounts, the total figures of the Working Budget for the fiscal year 1936–37 were as follows :

Revenue	
Ordinary	1,450,059,036
Extraordinary	855,515,159
Normal revenue	151,677,598
Receipts from the issue of public loans	703,837,561
Total	2,305,574,195
Expenditure	¥
Ordinary	1,361,290,169
Extraordinary	950,227,118
Total	2,311,517,287
Excess of expenditure	5,943,092

Note:—The above excess of expenditure will be defrayed out of the revenue excess to be realised in the operation of the Budget by a reduction in the appropriations for interest payments of the national debt resulting from its conversion.

An examination of the expenditure for new undertakings as appropriated in the above Working Budget reveals the following figures as branches of the newly increased expenditure :

	Ordinary	Extraordinary (In yen)	Total
Expenditure defrayed out of special sources	10,500	17,255,001	17,265,501
Expenditure to be defrayed out of the first Treasury funds in reserve	17,839,049	783,887	18,622,936
Expenditure for interest payments of national loans	11,494,921	0	11,494,921
Expenditure for armaments improvement	16,264,820	194,427,046	210,691,866
Expenditure in connection with the Manchurian incident	0	198,415,475	198,415,475
Expenditure for compensation payments resulting from the decline in the yen exchange	66,683,415	6,642,654	73,326,069
Expenditure for repair works following disasters	0	33,399,346	33,399,346
Expenditure for the development of the north-eastern districts of Japan proper	69,155	8,873,667	8,942,822
Increase in Treasury funds in reserve	15,000,000	—	15,000,000
Other expenditure	24,365,676	110,369,763	134,735,439
Total	151,727,536	570,166,839	721,894,375

When dividing this newly increased amount of ¥721,894,375 into the Working Budget as first compiled, amounts added, upon the passing of the Supplementary Budgets, to the Working Budget within the limits of the Formal Budget, and the Supplementary Budget, the following figures will be given :

	¥
Working Budget as first compiled and amounts added, upon the passing of the Supplementary Budgets, to the Working Budget within the limits of the Formal Budget	370,086,464
Supplementary Budgets	351,807,911
First	347,720,405
Second	3,099,506
Third	988,000

Comparison of the Budget for 1936-37 with the Budget for 1935-36

General Account The following are the comparisons of the Working Budget for 1936-37 with the Budget for 1935-36 :

	Working Budget 1936-37	Budget 1935-36 (In yen)	Increase(+) or Decrease(−) compared with 1935-36
Reveuue			
Ordinary	1,450,059,036	1,335,540,914	(+) 114,518,122
Extraordinary	855,515,159	879,872,895	(−) 24,357,736
Normal revenue	151,677,598	101,221,695	(+) 50,455,903
Receipts from the issue of public loans	703,837,561	771,651,200	(−) 67,813,639
Transfer of surplus from the preceding year	—	7,000,000	(−) 7,000,000
Total	2,305,574,195	2,215,413,809	(+) 90,160,386
Expenditure			
Ordinary	1,361,290,169	1,310,302,528	(+) 50,987,641
Extraordinary	950,227,118	905,111,281	(+) 45,115,837
Total	2,311,517,287	2,215,413,809	(+) 96,103,478

Note:—For comparison with the Working Budget for 1936-37, certain adjustments were made in the figures of the Budget for 1935-36.

Special Accounts The working Budget for the most important Special Accounts for 1936-37, and comparison with the Budget for 1936-36 are as follows :

(a) Imperial Government Railways' Special Account.

	1936-37	1935-36 (In yen)	Increase (+) or Decrease (−) compared with 1935-36
Capital Account			
Revenue	148,828,097	144,787,532	(+) 4,040,565
Expenditure	163,631,550	164,611,532	(−) 979,982
Stores Account			
Revenue	209,680,551	204,723,000	(+) 4,957,551
Expenditure	209,680,551	204,723,000	(+) 4,957,551
Profit and Loss Account			
Revenue	778,995,190	749,159,887	(+) 29,835,303
Expenditure	669,667,093	647,872,355	(+) 21,794,738

(b) Special Account for Postal, Telegraph and Telephone Services.

Capital Account			
Revenue	53,971,594	51,368,320	(+) 2,603,274
Expenditure	60,657,605	51,368,320	(+) 9,289,285
Stores Account			
Revenue	47,204,154	43,033,007	(+) 4,171,147
Expenditure	47,204,154	43,033,007	(+) 4,171,147

	1936–37	1935–36	Increase (+) or Decrease (−) compared with 1935–36
		(In yen)	
Working Account			
Revenue	319,498,159	296,010,162	(+) 23,487,997
Expenditure	293,746,639	274,599,780	(+) 19,146,859
(c) Special Accounts for Special Regions.			
(1) Chōsen (Korea)			
Revenue	329,003,042	290,267,414	(+) 38,735,628
Expenditure	329,003,042	290,267,414	(+) 38,735,628
(2) Taiwan (Formosa)			
Revenue	133,536,344	120,136,081	(+) 13,400,263
Expenditure	133,536,344	120,136,081	(+) 13,400,263
(3) Kwantung			
Revenue	28,789,983	24,830,053	(+) 3,959,740
Expenditure	28,789,793	24,830,053	(+) 3,859,740
(4) Karafuto (Japanese Saghalien)			
Revenue	33,333,586	28,703,053	(+) 4,630,533
Expenditure	33,333,586	28,703,053	(+) 4,630,533
(5) Nanyō (Mandated Territory in the Pacific)			
Revenue	7,388,058	5,977,696	(+) 1,410,362
Expenditure	7,388,058	5,977,696	(+) 1,410,362

Public Loan Programme

The issue of public loans for financing expenditure for the General Account and Special Accounts amounts during the current year to ¥787,457,561, representing a decline of ¥64,193,639 as compared with that in the Budget for 1935–36. The public loan programme for the fiscal year 1936–37 and comparisons with that of the preceding year are as follows :

GENERAL ACCOUNT

Items	1936–37	1935–36	Increase (+) or Decrease (−) compared with 1935–36
		(In yen)	
Loans for reconstruction works necessitated by the earthquake of 1923	7,006,996	7,454,339	(−) 447,343
Loans for the improvement of roads	9,990,438	5,574,943	(+) 4,415,495
Loans for expenditure in connection with the Manchurian incident	173,905,475	170,754,797	(+) 3,150,678
Loans for the covering of revenue deficits	512,934,652	587,867,121	(−) 74,932,469
Total	703,837,561	771,651,200	(−) 67,813,639

SPECIAL ACCOUNTS

Loans for postal, telegraph and telephone services and for reconstruction works necessitated by the earthquake of 1923	14,000,000	14,500,000	(−) 500,000
Loans for the construction and improvement of Government railways	38,000,000	41,500,000	(−) 3,500,000
Loans for public undertakings in Chōsen	31,620,000	24,000,000	(+) 7,620,000
Total	83,620,000	80,000,000	(+) 3,620,900
Grand Total	787,457,561	851,651,200	(−) 64,193,639

ANNUAL STATE REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE

Financial Year	Revenue			Expenditure
	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total	Ordinary
		(In yen)		
1919–20	1,063,120,910	745,512,294	1,808,633,204	502,785,949
1920–21	1,174,677,313	825,975 008	2,000,652,321	709,313,940
1921–22	1,283,812,503	781,898,683	2,065,711,186	841,749,861
1922–23	1,428,206,040	659,139,395	2,087,345,435	891,257,440
1923–24	1,303,832,042	741,166,225	2,045,298,267	960,593,700
1924–25	1,238,640,171	688,751,153	2,127,391,324	1,051,010,011
1925–26	1,443,234,938	628,134,374	2,071,369,313	1,016,289,096
1926–27	1,452,409,833	603,951,528	2,056,361,361	1,081,993,470
1927–28	1,484,779,896	577,975,441	2,062,755,337	1,171,777,282
1928–29	1,505,012,997	500,678,107	2,005,691,104	1,184,241,592
1929–30	1,481,143,304	345,301,447	1,826,444,751	1,212,726,860
1930–31	1,422,059,449	174,912,618	1,596,972,168	1,202,152,685
1931–32	1,314,911,859	216,170,183	1,531,082,042	1,111,824,193
1932–33	1,287,038,893	758,236,675	2,045,275,568	1,182,862,616
1933–34	1,391,418,998	940,340,595	2,331,759,594	1,313,017,990
1934–35	1,342,930,935	904,050,670	2,246,981,605	1,224,782,544
1935–36*	1,405,426,797	853,894,509	2,259,321,306	1,268,992,250
1936–37ᵍ	1,450,059,036	855,515,159	2,305,574,195	1,361,290,169

Financial Year	Expenditure		Surplus	
	Extraordinary	Total	Gross	Net
		(In yen)		
1919–20	669,542,356	1,172,328,305	636,304,899	349,700,439
1920–21	650,664,313	1,359,978,253	640,674,068	223,009,699
1921–22	648,105,752	1,489,855,613	575,855,573	117,741,946
1922–23	538,432,182	1,429,689,622	657,655,813	272,824,121
1923–24	560,456,605	1,521,050,305	524,247,962	141,519,583
1924–25	574,014,062	1,625 024,073	502,367,251	224,099,454
1925–26	508,699,494	1,524,988,590	546,380,723	178,046,963
1926–27	496,832,955	1,578,826,425	477,534,936	102,923,106
1927–28	593,945,798	1,765,723,080	297,032,257	52,512,693
1928–29	630,613,419	1,814,855,011	190,836,093	42,665,325
1929–30	523,590,194	1,736,317,055	90,127,696	—
1930–31	355,711,046	1,557,863,732	39,108,436	5,991,200
1931–32	365,051,071	1,476,875,265	54,206,777	19,193,075
1932–33	767,278,007	1,950,140,623	95,134,944	29,373,981
1933–34	941,644,246	4,254,662,236	77,097,358	13,653,358
1934–35	938,221,361	4,163,003,905	83,977,700	4,403,493
1935–36*	937,485,683	4,206,477,933	52,843,373	1,950,750
1936–37ᵍ	950,227,118	4,311,517,287	—	—

Note:—(1) The financial year begins on April 1st and ends on March 31st.

(2) The figures for 1934-35 and the years preceding it represent the settled accounts.

(3) * Represent the actual account on July 31st, 1936.

(4) ᵍ Represent the budget.

(5) The Gross Surplus indicates the balance of revenue over expenditure for each financial year. Under the Budget and Account Act the surplus actually created in each financial year is transferred to the Budget of the succeeding year, and this Gross Surplus includes not only the accumulation brought forward from preceding financial years, but the Net Surplus actually created in that year. Accordingly, the balance of the Gross and the Net Surplus represents a part or a total of the surplus created in the preceding year. Part of the Gross Surplus is applied to disbursements and deferred expenditures during the succeeding year and the balance is carried forward as a surplus to be used in succeeding financial years.

The National Loan Redemption Act as amended in 1915 required redemption of the national debt up to 1.16% of the amount outstanding at the commencement of the preceding financial year. The same Act was further amended in 1927 to require an additional appropriation for the same purpose of not less than 25% of the surplus actually created in the year before the preceding one. The same Act as amended in 1932, however, provides that the amount to be applied to redemption of the national debt shall, for the time being, be over one-third of 1.16% of the total debts outstanding at the commencement of the preceding financial year, and that the additional appropriation for the same purpose of not less than 25% of the surplus actually created in the year before the preceding one may be suspended.

(6) As fractions not exceeding 1 yen are omitted, the totals of the figures and the grand total do not correspond. This explanation is applicable to the following tables.

STATE REVENUE

Sources of Revenue	1925–26	1926–27	1927–28	1928–29
Ordinary:		(In yen)		
Taxes:	894,808,857	886,999,191	898,673,117	915,909,581
Land tax	74,614,207	68,728,175	67,576,505	67,821,482
Income tax	234,971,716	209,577,913	215,070,034	206,741,542
Business tax	65,791,144	62,146,344	400,026	194,469
Business profits tax	—	7,489	48,049,946	57,870,949
Capital interest tax	—	12,279,429	14,426,717	16,204,288
Succession tax	17,134,298	18,409,682	21,081,970	29,224,287
Travelling tax	12,565,321	1,369,057	1,126	396
Mining tax	5,465,075	5,243,902	5,560,033	5,591,442
Tax on the issue of bank notes	5,137,112	3,285,929	8,764,303	5,649,970
Tax on liquors	212,638,931	216,583,406	242,037,185	235,749,951
Tax on soy	6,930,874	1,039,191	105	35
Table water tax	—	2,954,808	4,126,812	4,224,091
Sugar excise	76,726,376	82,439,852	79,285,589	83,216,198
Textiles consumption tax	56,093,098	35,925,951	37,491,752	40,266,856
Tax on bourses	14,148,697	14,857,378	11,670,987	10,609,911
Customs duties	111,160,746	150,612,398	140,600,585	150,944,017
Tonnage dues	1,431,087	1,538,272	1,529,421	1,599,582
Other taxes	174	15	23	109
Stamp receipts	91,530,120	82,327,944	81,434,152	86,579,080
Receipts from Government undertakings and properties:	427,613,079	451,414,256	471,492,461	474,194,010
Postal, telegraph and telephone services	209,618,805	223,172,356	246,628,059	233,412,966
Forests	42,972,139	38,470,326	41,513,950	42,874,818
Profits of monopoly	153,029,009	167,403,383	193,257,925	177,201,523
Other receipts from Government undertakings and properties	21,993,120	22,368,190	20,092,527	20,704,702
Receipts from the Special Account for postal, telegraph and telephone services	—	—	—	—
Payment to the Government by the Bank of Japan	—	—	—	—
Transferred from Special Account for deposits	—	—	—	—
Transferred from Special Account for Deposits Bureau, Dept. of Finance	3,000,000	3,300,000	3,323,785	3,323,785
Transferred from Special Account of funds for educational improvement and agricultural village development	5,529,300	7,718,620	7,750,000	6,767,432
Other miscellaneous receipts	20,753,586	20,649,822	22,106,381	13,239,106
Total	1,443,234,938	1,452,409,833	1,484,779,896	1,505,012,997
Extraordinary:				
Proceeds of sale of state property	6,665,852	4,497,865	3,680,166	5,299,344
Miscellaneous receipts	3,809,320	2,384,163	2,211,827	10,080,644
Local payment to expenses incurred by the State for the benefit of certain prefectures	2,957,688	1,910,107	3,943,587	2,927,500
Local contributions to expenses incurred by the State for the benefit of certain prefectures	10,108,167	10,504,517	11,466,655	7,933,985
Fund belonging to Special Accounts transferred	2,202,807	2,707,047	15,377,971	16,722,375
Receipts from the issue of public loans	46,589,716	34,033,478	61,094,109	157,085,000

Sources of Revenue.	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
		(In yen)		
Repayment from the insurance companies	1,025,954	1,280,461	1,746,988	3,510,540
War-profits tax	86,569	20,949	16,659	27,223
Special profits tax	—	—	—	—
Transfer of the surplus from the preceding year	502,348,541	546,380,723	477,534,936	297,032,256
Receipts under the export credits guarantee system	—	—	—	—
Other miscellaneous receipts	52,339,761	232,218	902,543	59,238
Total	628,134,374	603,951,528	577,975,441	500,678,107
Total revenue	2,071,369,313	2,056,361,361	2,062,755,337	2,005,691,104

Sources of Revenue	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33
Ordinary:	¥	¥	¥	¥
Taxes	893,505,240	835,041,051	735,504,074	695,837,069
Land tax	67,484,884	68,035,367	63,915,946	58,348,487
Income tax	199,851,509	200,616,410	144,501,197	136,131,821
Business tax	82,703	56,772	27,604	9,416
Business profits tax	56,048,736	54,286,406	37,904,278	35,282,349
Capital interest tax	16,157,939	15,651,646	14,770,665	14,253,351
Succession tax	29,721,438	32,904,624	30,169,882	30,216,086
Travelling tax	—	—	—	—
Mining tax	5,417,746	4,997,553	3,751,774	3,054,349
Tax on the issue of bank notes	5,615,217	7,439,873	8,998,010	13,831,136
Tax on liquors	242,562,673	218,854,670	188,798,530	177,395,300
Tax on soy	—	—	215	—
Table water tax	4,427,745	3,639,910	3,266,374	3,030,649
Sugar excise	82,244,208	77,889,447	77,386,223	72,654,205
Textiles consumption tax	36,791,524	33,884,188	33,748,169	29,149,519
Tax on bourses	8,647,866	9,123,622	11,755,934	14,958,443
Customs duties	136,096,940	105,379,643	114,274,206	105,375,066
Tonnage dues	2,354,105	2,280,912	2,235,059	2,146,885
Other taxes	—	—	—	—
Stamp receipts	79,257,765	69,704,464	65,433,562	66,633,502
Receipts from Government undertakings and properties:	479,964,244	487,860,048	472,706,101	466,741,279
Postal, telegraph and telephone services	239,463,646	229,263,789	229,139,387	243,019,626
Forests	39,728,242	38,810,223	35,143,501	31,157,804
Profits of monopoly	177,803,169	198,339,282	190,461,252	177,906,626
Other receipts from Government undertakings and properties	22,969,186	21,446,753	17,961,960	14,657,221
Receipts from the Special Account for postal, telegraph and telephone services	—	—	—	—
Payment to the Government by the Bank of Japan	—	—	—	—
Transferred from Special Account for deposits	—	—	—	—
Transferred from Special Account for Deposits Bureau, Dept. of Finance	5,300,000	6,000,000	8,700,000	8,700,000
Transferred from Special Account of funds for educational improvement and agricultural village development	6,901,037	7,095,797	7,491,954	7,726,458
Other miscellaneous receipts	16,215,015	16,358,187	25,076,167	41,400,583
Total	1,481,143,304	1,422,059,549	1,314,911,859	1,287,038,893
Extraordinary:				
Proceeds of sale of state property	4,208,860	4,400,640	3,645,716	4,446,878

Sources of Revenue	1929–30	1930–31	1931–32	1932–33
		(In yen)		
Miscellaneous receipts	15,288,310	17,229,505	14,390,285	11,327,967
Local payment to expenses incurred by the State for the benefit of certain prefectures	2,904,574	2,696,149	2,725,883	5,670,880
Local contributions to expenses incurred by the State for the benefit of certain prefectures	5,093,244	4,619,110	8,736,650	11,940,383
Fund belonging to Special Accounts transferred	23,503,912	14,235,796	6,870,023	7,234,501
Receipts from the issue of public loans	99,862,579	38,000,329	120,272,407	659,592,654
Repayment from the insurance companies	3,529,209	3,390,317	3,595,110	3,438,472
War-profits tax	72	215	8,180	234
Special profits tax	—	—	—	—
Transfer of the surplus from the preceding year	190,836,093	90,127,696	39,108,436	54,206,777
Receipts under the export credits guarantee system	—	14,912	93,259	133,675
Other miscellaneous receipts	74,589	197,946	16,724,229	244,252
Total	345,301,447	174,912,618	216,170,183	758,236,675
Total revenue	1,826,444,751	1,596,972,168	1,531,082,042	2,045,275,568

Sources of Revenue	1933–34	1934–35	1935–36 (Budget)	1936–37 (Working Budget)
Ordinary:		(In yen)		
Taxes:	748,566,745	843,183,495	828,741,889	923,302,673
Land tax	58,137,433	57,646,105	57,922,397	58,508,243
Income tax	159,706,682	196,381,568	195,888,036	231,456,191
Business tax	10,351	2,142	—	—
Business profits tax	40,386,690	48,647,690	50,499,989	61,850,319
Capital interest tax	14,634,010	14,872,771	14,903,819	15,639,040
Succession tax	25,594,910	27,172,694	28,983,738	32,607,153
Travelling tax	—	—	—	—
Mining tax	3,557,298	4,246,980	3,903,194	4,278,171
Tax on the issue of bank notes	—	—	—	—
Tax on liquors	208,865,232	218,434,779	212,562,359	209,520,291
Tax on soy	—	—	—	—
Table water tax	3,208,299	3,484,196	3,587,498	3,710,490
Sugar excise	72,522,273	74,967,309	78,029,335	87,295,039
Textiles consumption tax	29,440,821	35,696,415	33,467,822	42,750,357
Tax on bourses	16,240,841	14,547,878	16,526,126	14,842,084
Customs duties	113,962,804	144,433,229	129,955,969	158,012,255
Tonnage dues	2,299,574	2,649,734	2,511,607	2,833,040
Other taxes	—	—	—	—
Stamp receipts	73,750,059	78,026,779	82,205,016	79,610,398
Receipts from Government undertakings and properties:	495,246,777	265,496,879	276,410,031	292,404,703
Postal, telegraph and telephone services	261,715,227	—	—	—
Forests	33,315,780	37,956,679	41,074,606	46,407,469
Profits of monopoly	179,266,814	192,571,013	195,711,493	201,896,234
Other receipts from Government undertakings and properties	20,948,953	34,969,187	39,623,932	44,101,000
Receipts from the Special Account for postal, telegraph and telephone services	—	78,000,000	78,000,000	81,000,000
Payment to the Government by the Bank of Japan	27,073,132	33,016,109	25,364,568	20,760,435

Sources of Revenue	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36 (Budget)	1936-37 (Working Budget)
		(In yen)		
Transferred from Special Account for deposits	—	—	—	—
Transferred from Special Account for Deposits Bureau, Dept. of Finance	8,700,000	—	—	—
Transferred from Special Account of funds for educational improvement and agricultural village development	8,665,595	8,142,082	6,231,819	6,648,436
Other miscellaneous receipts	29,416,688	37,065,588	38,587,591	46,332,391
Total	1,391,418,998	1,342,930,935	1,335,540,914	1,450,059,036
Extraordinary:				
Proceeds of sale of state property	6,142,077	8,849,442	10,646,816	16,643,798
Miscellaneous receipts	20,747,094	31,354,009	22,075,561	16,550,117
Local payment to expenses incurred by the State for the benefit of certain prefectures	8,886,358	7,070,106	5,262,557	7,407,516
Local contributions to expenses incurred by the State for the benefit of certain prefectures	14,049,319	10,016,167	8,496,892	10,640,710
Fund belonging to Special Accounts transferred	8,613,034	9,880,336	10,124,282	11,997,769
Receipts from the issue of public Loans	753,037,896	742,542,445	771,651,200	703,837,561
Repayment from the insurance companies	3,440,931	3,388,278	3,520,788	3,520,788
War-profits tax	41	80	—	—
Special profits tax	—	—	30,395,799	42,087,900
Transfer of the surplus from the preceding year	95,134,944	77,097,358	7,000,000	—
Receipts under the export credits guarantee system	248,453	501,787	796,000	796,000
Other miscellaneous receipts	30,040,442	13,350,657	9,903,000	42,033,000
Total	940,340,595	904,050,669	879,872,895	855,515,159
Total revenue	2,331,759,594	2,246,981,605	2,215,413,809	2,305,574,195

Taxes and Duties

The income tax, our primary direct national tax, is supplemented by other direct taxes, namely, the land tax, the business profits tax and the capital interest tax. There are, in addition, other kinds of taxes such as the succession tax, the tax on liquors (the tax on saké, tax on alcoholic liquors and beer tax), the table water tax, the sugar excise, the textiles consumption tax, the tax on bourses, the registration tax, stamp duties, customs duties, etc.

The receipts from taxes during the fiscal year 1934-35 were as follows :

Items	Receipts	Ratio to total receipts
	¥	%
Income tax	196,381,569	21.32
Land tax	57,646,105	6.26
Business profits tax	48,647,690	5.28
Capital interest tax	14,872,771	1.61
Succession tax	27,172,695	2.95
Mining tax	4,246,981	0.46
Tax on liquors	218,434,780	23.71
Table water tax	3,484,197	0.38
Sugar excise	74,967,309	8.04
Textiles consumption tax	35,696,416	3.87
Tax on bourses	14,547,878	1.58
Customs duties	144,433,229	15.68
Tonnage dues	2,649,734	0.29
Stamp duties	78,026,780	8.47
Miscellaneous	2,142	0.00
Total	921,210,276	100.00

As to the regulation on taxes and duties see the Japan Year Book, 1936, pp. 280-301.

STATE EXPENDITURE

Branches of Expenditure	1925–26	1926–27	1927–28	1928–29
		(In yen)		
Ordinary:				
Imperial Household	4,500,000	4,500,000	4,400,000	4,500,000
Foreign Affairs:	15,373,529	15,558,081	16,169,044	16,464,608
Department proper	3,515,230	3,532,047	3,457,121	3,440,746
Embassies, legations and consulates abroad	11,353,108	11,607,793	12,281,574	12,606,198
Other expenses	505,190	418,241	430,349	417,664
Home Affairs:	42,522,728	44,916,934	47,940,141	49,522,027
Department proper	713,696	801,104	796,679	817,807
Prefectures (Dō, Fu & Ken)	11,969,508	11,854,910	11,835,255	11,833,789
Other expenses	229,839,524	32,226,120	35,308,207	36,870,430
Finance:	71,073,846	286,115,026	329,922,696	332,778,490
Department proper	781,033	882,566	1,036,696	1,052,321
Cabinet and Privy Council	987,753	981,843	1,148,660	1,502,261
House of Peers and House of Representatives	3,283,686	3,429,973	2,641,616	4,143,980
Court of Administrative Litigation and Board of Auditors	555,648	557,758	583,280	582,524
Custom-houses	4,122,835	4,303,076	4,372,220	4,380,397
Expenses for the collection of inland taxes	19,568,694	20,085,470	19,872,223	18,509,170
Transferred to National Debt Consolidation Fund	221,462,028	233,218,820	283,133,544	285,700,539
Other expenses	20,312,169	22,757,520	18,134,451	16,807,292
Army:	170,760,684	167,560,772	174,190,039	167,619,957
Department proper	714,360	759,436	758,455	755,829
Expenses for military affairs	169,219,189	166,186,996	172,631,567	166,067,848
Other expenses	827,135	614,350	800,017	796,279
Navy:	122,241,977	127,428,403	136,544,501	143,025,585
Department proper	572,115	567,753	563,252	561,606
Expenses for military affairs	121,345,768	126,552,816	135,147,956	142,026,938
Other expenses	324,094	307,834	833,293	347,040
Justice:	31,008,975	31,460,934	32,462,751	33,580,839
Department proper	293,794	304,664	349,180	365,164
Judicial courts	16,311,531	16,926,704	17,966,271	18,809,903
Prisons	14,366,366	14,177,496	14,092,469	14,352,871
Other expenses	37,284	52,070	54,831	52,900
Education:	79,198,157	113,570,356	118,785,471	118,135,857
Department proper	2,606,086	3,441,026	3,366,341	3,203,904
Government educational institutions and library	28,749,360	29,267,962	29,312,490	29,426,913
Other expenses	47,842,711	80,861,368	86,106,640	85,505,039
Agriculture and Forestry	21,696,030	24,660,945	26,561,208	26,717,329
Department proper	1,150,238	1,189,615	1,263,956	1,467,666
Forestry expenses	16,496,799	19,341,631	20,215,446	20,198,169
Other expenses	4,048,993	4,129,699	5,081,806	5,051,493
Commerce and Industry:	3,195,934	3,396,579	4,293,953	4,824,634
Department proper	1,134,385	1,184,883	1,274,021	1,322,422
Patent Bureau and Mining Inspection Office	1,308,278	1,276,060	1,432,681	1,423,792
Other expenses	753,271	985,636	1,587,251	2,078,419
Communications:	254,717,235	262,195,440	280,407,478	287,072,261
Department proper	1,155,505	1,187,433	1,282,972	1,405,523
Communication expenses	122,462,201	127,312,594	138,414,724	141,881,450
Pensions and annuities	129,687,678	131,797,646	139,055,803	142,047,064
Other expenses	1,411,852	2,487,767	1,653,979	1,738,223
Overseas Affairs:	—	—	—	—
Department proper	—	—	—	—
Other expenses	—	—	—	—
Total	1,016,289,096	1,081,993,470	1,171,777,282	1,184,241,592

Branches of Expenditure	1925–26	1926–27	1927–28	1928–29
		(In yen)		
Extraordinary:				
Foreign Affairs	4,504,112	3,704,422	6,137,184	4,247,025
Home Affairs	179,982,717	161,646,962	223,331,453	250,965,080
Finance	38,430,820	52,002,253	54,970,044	59,421,284
Army	44,044,333	59,380,443	43,913,615	81,486,230
Navy	106,761,186	109,879,266	136,891,776	125,105,899
Justice	2,462,135	3,091,630	6,020,201	4,168,373
Education	21,190,231	18,194,371	20,365,212	16,765,243
Agriculture and Forestry	22,380,989	19,724,625	24,208,672	27,525,897
Commerce and Industry	7,820,093	9,289,905	7,063,362	7,241,797
Communications	811,122,878	89,919,078	70,944,278	53,686,588
Overseas Affairs	—	—	—	—
Total	508,699,494	496,832,955	593,945,798	630,613,419
Total Expenditure	1,521,988,590	1,578,826,425	1,765,723,080	1,814,855,011

Branches of Expenditure	1929–30	1930–31	1931–32	1932–33
Ordinary:		(In yen)		
Imperial Household	4,500,000	4,500,000	4,500,000	4,500,000
Foreign Affairs:	16,596,022	16,152,205	15,221,321	15,653,651
Department proper	3,539,030	3,230,628	3,127,719	3,184,236
Embassies, legations and consulates abroad	12,641,953	12,552,758	11,747,422	12,010,395
Other expenses	415,037	368,818	346,179	459,019
Home Affairs:	49,280,592	45,718,707	44,546,207	49,823,408
Department proper	877,740	793,009	707,040	669,159
Prefectures (Dō, Fu & Ken)	11,801,480	11,548,550	10,563,654	10,112,656
Other expenses	36,601,371	33,377,147	33,275,511	39,042,592
Finance	325,536,426	313,913,022	251,453,075	326,517,411
Department proper	1,078,287	911,667	890,292	919,052
Cabinet and Privy Council	1,154,962	1,025,200	989,117	1,041,818
House of Peers and House of Representatives	2,610,311	4,015,284	3,208,631	3,705,057
Court of Administrative Litigation and Board of Auditors	596,174	582,410	555,224	545,883
Custom-houses	4,882,312	4,362,604	4,178,130	4,493,043
Expenses for the collection of inland taxes	18,817,372	18,145,401	16,375,551	16,258,269
Transferred to National Debt Consolidation Fund	280,342,787	272,517,093	213,844,134	241,480,375
Other expenses	16,054,217	12,353,360	11,411,992	58,073,909
Army:	178,898,933	174,546,262	163,679,857	148,266,001
Department proper	754,677	690,385	652,677	611,021
Expenses for military affairs	177,252,702	173,034,526	162,029,480	146,499,049
Other expenses	891,553	821,350	997,698	1,155,930
Navy:	147,648,526	146,887,938	138,913,685	140,740,137
Department proper	576,661	557,285	521,834	485,531
Expenses for military affairs	146,605,292	145,620,175	137,705,946	139,554,199
Other expenses	466,572	710,478	685,904	700,406
Justice:	34,862,327	33,848,715	31,764,748	31,840,213
Department proper	390,131	350,891	442,476	418,065
Judicial courts	19,836,675	19,246,651	17,964,764	17,714,021
Prisons	14,583,074	14,202,235	13,301,551	13,651,234
Other expenses	52,447	48,936	55,956	56,892
Education:	121,422,146	131,207,607	129,225,601	128,031,939
Department proper	3,310,998	3,116,096	2,596,711	2,750,269
Government educational institutions and library	31,590,014	31,297,188	30,596,509	29,490,412
Other expenses	86,521,134	96,794,323	96,031,380	95,791,257

Branches of Expenditure	1929–30	1930–31	1931–32	1932–33
		(In yen)		
Agriculture and Forestry	30,469,359	31,777,449	28,133,809	28,085,979
Department proper	1,545,426	1,413,822	1,362,002	1,328,401
Forestry expenses	23,415,968	24,822,431	21,128,380	20,045,972
Other expenses	5,507,964	5,541,195	5,643,426	6,711,605
Commerce and Industry	5,203,869	5,002,153	4,735,517	4,616,857
Department proper	1,496,774	1,439,093	1,377,524	1,370,333
Patent Bureau and Mining Inspection Office	1,409,189	1,374,234	1,257,861	1,241,721
Other expenses	2,297,905	2,188,825	2,100,130	2,004,802
Communications:	296,046,667	296,218,812	297,308,346	302,665,987
Department proper	1,644,874	1,566,810	1,401,217	1,406,936
Communication expenses	147,320,856	143,868,457	140,312,670	139,438,036
Pensions and annuities	145,372,584	149,116,202	153,952,904	160,153,798
Other expenses	1,708,351	1,667,341	1,636,554	1,667,216
Overseas Affairs:	2,261,986	2,379,811	2,343,024	2,121,029
Department proper	777,764	769,872	739,869	707,090
Other expenses	1,484,222	1,582,938	1,603,154	1,413,939
Total	1,212,726,860	1,202,152,685	1,111,824,193	1,182,862,616
Extraordinary:				
Foreign Affairs	6,631,673	3,317,370	8,248,457	20,081,925
Home Affairs	170,860,953	99,369,495	92,383,933	170,043,107
Finance	26,185,913	21,564,107	15,528,098	15,278,609
Army	48,356,073	26,278,021	63,808,368	225,309,400
Navy	120,016,540	95,147,008	88,214,904	172,069,156
Justice	2,570,207	902,824	1,041,345	1,230,969
Education	22,951,690	12,112,394	8,014,654	20,051,303
Agriculture and Forestry	28,563,750	27,077,934	26,897,852	71,348,614
Commerce and Industry	6,271,423	5,921,673	5,656,570	6,651,695
Communications	60,877,340	39,277,095	31,508,725	41,242,255
Overseas Affairs	30,304,627	24,743,120	23,248,161	23,970,968
Total	523,590,194	355,711,046	365,051,071	767,278,007
Total Expenditure	1,736,317,055	1,557,863,732	1,476,875,265	1,950,140,623

Branches of Expenditure	1933–34	1934–35	1935–36 (Budget)	1936–37 (Working Budget)
Ordinary:		(In yen)		
Imperial Household	4,500,000	4,500,000	4,500,000	4,500,000
Foreign Affairs:	16,975,837	17,437,786	16,830,011	17,283,854
Department proper	3,659,493	3,734,299	3,243,410	3,389,412
Embassies, legations and consulates abroad	11,762,532	12,422,088	12,236,142	12,537,064
Other expenses	1,553,810	1,281,397	1,350,459	1,357,378
Home Affairs:	51,345,336	52,493,711	50,746,316	57,975,262
Department proper	725,748	757,696	853,792	907,190
Prefectures (Dō, Fu & Ken)	10,433,849	10,407,765	10,429,601	10,606,609
Other expenses	40,185,738	41,328,250	39,462,923	46,461,463
Finance:	384,370,666	405,752,332	460,505,573	462,408,473
Department proper	983,148	952,117	965,775	972,615
Cabinet and Privy Council	1,087,226	1,155,977	1,562,612	1,695,377
House of Peers and House of Representatives	3,357,084	3,420,805	3,142,378	4,326,293
Court of Administrative Litigation and Board of Auditors	577,579	579,773	585,676	602,561
Custom-houses	4,475,427	4,475,306	4,653,720	5,020,995
Expenses for the collection of inland taxes	15,383,925	16,026,293	16,309,852	16,759,067
Transferred to National Debt Consolidation Fund	334,791,517	361,285,931	389,526,551	383,111,139
Other expenses	23,714,746	17,856,126	43,759,009	49,884,426

Branches of Expenditure	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36 (Budget)	1936-37 (Working Budget)
		(In yen)		
Army:	166,471,447	168,790,412	179,803,775	190,908,022
Department proper	611,033	605,819	612,591	612,591
Expenses for military affairs	164,779,329	167,126,930	178,177,285	189,337,005
Other expenses	1,081,084	1,059,662	1,013,899	958,426
Navy:	179,027,098	199,429,948	215,917,830	236,752,210
Department proper	485,444	485,258	485,575	485,575
Expenses for military affairs	177,427,701	197,900,707	214,158,625	235,113,726
Other expenses	1,113,952	1,043,982	1,273,630	1,152,909
Justice:	35,541,111	36,037,413	35,912,725	36,672,958
Department proper	519,730	516,270	521,464	529,678
Judicial courts	18,730,974	18,877,766	19,097,243	19,141,425
Prisons	16,239,666	16,581,247	16 231,944	16,944,247
Other expenses	50,739	62,128	61,074	57,608
Education:	129,185,377	129,508,091	130,476,020	131,277,079
Department proper	2,496,101	2,438,427	2,400,257	2,453,685
Government educational institutions and library	30,695,256	31,094,196	31,332,316	31,571,884
Other expenses	95,394,019	95,975,466	96,753,447	97,251,510
Agriculture and Forestry:	28,797,708	29,757,539	31,241,529	34,112,040
Department proper	1,389,609	1,490,751	1,517,862	1,452,212
Forestry expenses	20,351,936	20,845,639	21,474,773	23,731,647
Other expenses	7,056,161	7,421,147	8,248,894	8,928,181
Commerce and Industry:	5,005,639	5,353,628	5,488,264	5,693,827
Department proper	1,504,682	1,530,213	1,597,215	1,651,799
Patent Bureau and Mining Inspection Office	1,287,352	1,315,205	1,352,265	1,374,032
Other expenses	2,213,603	2,508,208	2,538,784	2,667,996
Communications:	309,863,816	173,775,350	176,897,106	181,513,792
Department proper	1,482,129	1,030,575	1,055,874	1,178,219
Communication expenses	143,093,918	1,222,323	1,250,404	1,259,349
Pensions and annuities	163,526,359	170,070,880	173,027,702	177,373,499
Other expenses	1,721,409	1,451,571	1,563,126	1,702,725
Overseas Affairs:	1,933,951	1,946,329	1,973,379	2,192,652
Department Proper	704,420	699,794	715,129	728,027
Other expenses	1,229,531	1,246,535	1,258,250	1,464,625
Total	1,313,017,990	1,224,782,543	1,310,302,528	1,361,290,169
Extraordinary:				
Foreign Affairs	13,724,584	15,495,251	12,848,582	14,617,758
Home Affairs	183,647,668	145,412,757	112,855,662	151,038,286
Finance	20,042,134	27,885,859	28,655,311	28,999,105
Army	296,173,468	289,738,545	313,155,204	317,408,679
Navy	230,948,044	283,922,626	313,865,604	315,079,205
Justice	1,703,224	2,415,331	2,482,682	2,720,588
Education	22,920,388	25,224,170	19,338,856	11,528,453
Agriculture and Forestry	93,274,348	100,069,626	62,232,553	63,309,199
Commerce and Industry	7,809,146	8,046,385	7,975,500	13,253,023
Communications	43,307,949	19,431,344	13,066,265	15,025,074
Overseas Affairs	28,091,287	20,579,462	18,632,062	17,247,749
Total	941,644,246	938,221,361	905,111,281	950,227,118
Total Expenditure	2,254,662,236	2,163,003,905	2,215,413,809	3,311,517,287

BUDGET FOR 1937—1938

(In yen)

General Account

Ordinary Revenue

I Taxes	Total	1,250,722,354
Income tax		429,524,381

	Land tax		¥58,760,697
	Business profit tax		73,475,167
	Capital interest tax		29,176,704
	Juridical person capital tax		15,454,980
	Inheritance tax		33,475,676
	Mining tax		5,859,028
	Foreign bond special tax		2,793,739
	Tax on liquors		235,210,774
	Tax on soft drinks		4,139,591
	Sugar excise		98,743,607
	Textile fabrics excise		43,040,849
	Gasoline tax		14,913,855
	Tax on bourses		19,279,858
	Negotiable papers transfer tax		4,624,717
	Customs duties		179,300,612
	Tonnage dues		2,948,119
II	Stamp receipts		86,618,171
III	Receipts from public undertakings and State property	Total	324,623,804
	Forests		45,480,033
	Monopoly Bureau		233,968,819
	Printing Bureau		2,956,911
	Senju Woolen Factory		5,826
	Capital profit of Navy factories		1,240,000
	Navy Fuel Factory		211,293
	Rent of State Property		552,508
	Dividend receipts		28,958,902
	Prisons' receipts		11,249,512
IV	From Special Account for Communications		81,000,000
V	From the Bank of Japan		13,087,561
VI	Miscellaneous receipts	Total	51,148,847
	Certificates and fees		739,553
	Penal fees and confiscated money		2,478,116
	Indemnification and forfeit		433,696
	Custom houses, miscellaneous		1,608,814
	Receipts anent Pension		3,922,160
	Allotments anent Pension		2,046,333
	Charges anent Pension in Special Accounts		26,107,352
	Receipts from privately supported boys in the Military Preparatory School		163,440
	Receipts from Bonin Islands		933
	Interests		159,572
	Receipts from Horse Race Association		8,766,837
	Other miscellaneous receipts		4,722,041
VII	Transferred from Special Account of Funds for Educational Improvement and Agrarian Village Development		7,495,307
	Total of ordinary revenue		1,814,696,044

Extraordinary Revenue

I	Sale of State Property	Total	6,495,669
	Lands		355,458
	Goods		5,895,464
	Live-stock		244,747
II	Miscellaneous receipts	Total	40,992,218
	Building and repairing works in trust		1,408,029
	Investigations in trust		112,185
	Money paid back		548,794
	Share of the sale of seal furs		84,221
	Repayments of advances per the Earthquake Note Settlement Law		397,117

	Reimbursement of advances for the reconstruction works clearance fund		¥49,052
	Repayments of the Earthquake advances		3,577,242
	Contribution to the national loan reimbursement fund		5,000
	Receipts from the S. M. R. Co.		1,475,971
	Receipts from the Nippon Iron Foundry		1,229,327
	Transferred from the Special Fund for Cultural Work for China		1,000,000
	Transferred from the Special Account for Cultural Work for China		25,882,500
	Transferred from the Special Account for Silk Price Control		5,117,780
	Receipts by the redemption of the loss sustained by the loans for small industrialists and merchants		100,000
III	Payments by public bodies for the repairing and construction of harbours		7,122,439
IV	Shares assumed by public bodies for local public works	Total	10,645,966
	River improvement		6,450,655
	Harbour equipments		870,425
	Road improvement		3,324,886
V	Receipts for encouragement of scholarly researches	Total	26,000
	Imperial donation		12,000
	Contributions		14,000
VI	Transfers from Special Accounts	Total	8,875,368
	From		
	State Property Readjustment Fund		4,722,017
	Health Insurance		179,663
	Monopoly Bureau		511,443
	Mint, Fund Section		1,000,000
	Deposits Bureau, Ministry of Finance		150,000
	Printing Bureau		80,000
	Senju Woolen Factory		63,889
	School ane Library, Fund Section		153,090
	Communications works		1,827,216
	Post Office Life Insurance		188,050
VII	Payment by insurance companies		3,162,652
VIII	Receipts under the Export Credits Guarantee System		1,202,000
IX	Receipts from Manchoukuo Government for defence expenditure		19,500,000
X	Special Profits Tax		58,522,658
XI	Export Control Tax		3,983,280
XII	Receipts from Special Accounts for General Accounts	Total	67,890,000
	From		
	Deposits Bureau, Ministry of Finance		6,000,000
	Kwantung Government		1,500,000
	Communications works		12,640,000
	Imperial Railways		30,000,000
	Chosen Government-General		9,450,000
	Taiwan Government-General		5,250,000
	Karafuto Government		1,950,000
	South Seas Government		1,100,000
XIII	Loans	Total	770,823,677
	Earthquake loans and conversions		7,353,733
	Road loans and conversions		10,598,771
	Manchurian Incident loans and conversions		265,468,578
	Revenue deficiency loans and conversions		487,402,595
	Total of extraordinary revenue		999,241,927
	Grand total of revenue		2,813,937,971

Ordinary Expenditure

I	Imperial Household	4,500,000

Department of Foreign Affairs

I	Department proper	Total	¥3,509,574
	Salaries		545,371
	Office expenses		734,957
	Salaries of foreigners		40,000
	Telegrams		350,405
	Entertainments		2,000
	International allotments		34,311
	League of Nations		226,598
	Students abroad		93,472
	Special services		1,482,460
II	Offices abroad	Total	13,440,914
	Salaries		5,639,920
	Office expenses		3,089,595
	Travelling expenses		1,917,242
	Salaries of foreigners		40,849
	Law court and registering expenses		51,710
	Detention expenses		207,940
	Land and house rent		1,249,715
	Telegrams		933,595
	Entertainments		310,348
III	Protection of resident Japanese abroad	Total	870,121
	Salaries		186,972
	Office expenses		683,149
IV	Miscellaneous expenses		114,427
	Sum total		17,935,036

Department of Home Affairs

I	Isé Shrine		230,000
II	Other State shrines		1,021,360
III	Department proper	Total	985,359
	Salaries		417,329
	Office expenses		527,118
	International allotments		9,630
	Special services		31,282
IV	Bureau of Social Affairs		534,662
V	Imperial Office of the International Labour Organization		117,996
VI	National Juvenile Correction School		45,648
VII	Wounded Soldiers' Hospital		113,159
VIII	Police Training Institute		29,878
IX	Hygienic Laboratory		171,696
X	Aliment Research Institute		85,930
XI	Public Sanatorium		15,000
XII	National Tuberculosis Sanatorium		210,196
XIII	National Leper Asylums		669,421
XIV	For qualification examinations for physicians and pharmacists		28,599
XV	Prefectural offices	Total	11,583,369
	Salaries		7,755,032
	Office expenses		3,556,329
	Protection and relief of the Ainu		37,858
	Imperial attendance		76,853
	Bonin Islands		56,034
	Police for the Seven Islands of Izu		19,214
	Special services		82,049
XVI	Conscription expenses		2,013,770
XVII	Military relief		3,846,339
XVIII	Joint payment for police expenses		23,689,198
XIX	Grants to social work	Total	11,289,270
	Prevention of epidemics		2,778,571
	Juvenile protection and correction		147,152
	Insane hospitals		290,602

	Labour exchanges		¥327,779
	Local expenses for social works		2,260,021
	Relief works		4,124,316
	Prevention of parasites		15,988
	Prevention of ill-treatment of children		30,000
	Health consultation rooms		500,000
	National health insurance associations		166,666
	Mother and child protection		648,175
XX	Health insurance		3,816,880
XXI	Miscellaneous expenses		116,150
	Sum total		60,613,880

Department of Finance

I	Department proper	Total	1,348,300
	Salaries		581,602
	Office expenses		739,754
	International allotments		1,062
	Customs duties investigation committee		25,882
II	Cabinet expenses	Total	1,602,169
	Salaries		421,915
	Office expenses		878,586
	Rewards		101,612
	Examinations for high officials		60,750
	Punishment of officials		1,570
	Official service limitation committee		3,186
	Rice Self Control Committee		7,000
	Contribution to International Statistics Association		1,000
	Special services		126,550
III	Privy Council expenses		197,069
IV	House of Peers		1,654,556
V	House of Representatives		2,248,384
VI	Board of Audit		551,203
VII	Court of Administrative Litigation		124,205
VIII	Bureau of Repairing and Property Overseeing		93,679
IX	Custom houses	Total	5,645,251
	Salaries		1,659,296
	Office expenses		2,077,732
	Inspection of diseases		547,413
	Others		1,360,810
X	Tax collection houses and brewery laboratory	Total	21,231,404
	Salaries		7,366,991
	Office expenses		4,985,390
	Committee meetings		214,304
	Disposing expenses		316,320
	Stamps, etc.		66,345
	Aid to local public bodies		7,337,552
	Aid to textile associations		507,350
	Aid to brewers' associations		437,143
XI	Miscellaneous rebates, repayments and compensations		15,992,141
XII	Transferred to the national debt adjustment fund		406,490,174
XIII	Payment to the Deposits Bureau		1,122,000
XIV	Miscellaneous expenses		593,899
XV	State Reserve Fund		23,000,000
	Sum total		481,894,434

Department of War

I	Department proper	Total	647,531
	Salaries		359,605
	Office expenses		287,926
II	Military expenses	Total	216,098,066

	Salaries		¥60,988,050
	Buildings and repairs		7,658,577
	Miscellaneous payments		19,129,244
	Clothes and provisions		37,916,712
	Ordnance and horses		69,153,321
	Manoeuvres		17,297,763
	Medical treatments		1,069,759
	For short-time service soldiers and privately supported students		563,831
	Detention		58,208
	Transportation		1,938,093
	Imperial attendance		54,328
	Special services		270,180
III	Contribution to Yasukuni Shrine		12,000
IV	Miscellaneous expenses		1,046,474
	Sum total		217,804,071

Department of Marine

I	Department proper	Total	537,771
	Salaries		354,460
	Office expenses		183,311
II	Military expenses	Total	272,191,269
	Salaries		59,405,823
	Buildings and repairs		1,437,658
	Miscellaneous payments		5,731,751
	Clothes and provisions		27,737,227
	Construction and repairs of ships		116,547,619
	Manoeuvres		625,633
	Medical treatments		1,416,215
	Naval stations and ports		1,147,183
	Expenses on ships		52,007,046
	Waterways		643,034
	Educational expenses		1,846,131
	Aids to seamen's families		1,019,969
	Grants to the mutual aid society		2,551,733
	Detention		10,947
	Special services		63,300
III	Miscellaneous expenses		1,224,340
	Sum total		273,953,380

Department of Justice

I	Department proper	Total	647,719
	Salaries		245,672
	Office expenses		227,603
	International allotments		4,161
	Aid to protection work for ex-convicts		83,575
	Judicial investigations		43,268
	Aid to the prison Police Training Institute		9,690
	Aid to the Lawyers' Association		33,750
II	Court expenses	Total	20,027,986
	Salaries		11,944,261
	Office expenses		5,349,195
	Judicial and registering expenses		2,267,549
	Adjudication expenses		278,900
	Detention		107,427
	Special services		80,654
III	Prison expenses	Total	18,290,140
	Salaries		603,728
	Office expenses		6,268,384
	Prisoners		11,418,028

IV	Miscellaneous expenses		¥55,424
	Sum total		39,021,269

Department of Education

I	Department proper	Total	2,520,083
	Salaries		446,324
	Office expenses		608,696
	Scientific investigations		370,336
	Investigations on physical culture		135,404
	Protection of national treasures		190,000
	International allotments		29,859
	Students abroad		594,435
	Aeronautic commission		6,443
	Investigation and preservation of important historical places and natural monuments		39,802
	Adult education		98,784
II	Cultural Bureau		340,091
III	Meteorological observatories		1,317,828
IV	Latitude Observatory		45,410
V	Common education	Total	90,440,854
	National share of elementary school teachers' salaries		85,000,000
	Aid to elementary education expenses		1,950,000
	Aid to normal school expenses		2,300,000
	Salaries of elementary school teachers called to defence services		350,824
	Committee for qualification of special municipalities, towns and villages		3,352
	Miscellaneous expenses		336,678
	Encouragemnet of school attendance		500,000
VI	Business education		720,550
VII	Social education		3,905,042
VIII	Thought guidance		131,636
IX	Deaf and dumb education		209,614
X	Aid to additional salaries of public school teachers for long service		1,213,320
XI	Aid to pension fund of private middle schools		129,600
XII	Universities and libraries	Total	32,205,249
	Imperial universities		13,204,722
	Government universities		6,207,676
	Imperial and school libraries		12,792,851
XIII	Miscellaneous expenses		5,615
	Sum total		133,184,892

Department of Agriculture and Forestry

I	Department proper	Total	1,284,325
	Salaries		425,932
	Office expenses		456,209
	International allotments		29,798
	Supervision of fisheries		358,070
	Qualification of breeding oxen		14,316
II	Horse Bureau		448,655
III	Forestry expenses		23,853,150
IV	Experimental stations		1,769,396
V	Raw Silk Conditioning Houses		1,674,239
VI	Studs and pastures		2,290,466
VII	Fisheries institutes		481,265
VIII	Subsidies	Total	7,331,480
	To		
	Agricultural associations		122,744
	Experiments and lectures		26,496

	Creation and maintenance of landed farmers		¥1,826,633
	Fishery associations		20,664
	Prevention of silk-worm diseases		83,283
	Rice self-control		4,947,080
	Local expenses for taking statistics		304,580
IX	Miscellaneous expenses		227,150
	Sum total		39,360,126

Department of Commerce and Industry

I	Department proper	Total	1,574,614
	Salaries		615,428
	Office expenses		671,328
	International allotments		15,376
	Weights and measures		220,163
	Geological investigation		52,319
II	Exportation Bureau		526,705
III	Fuel Bureau		353,596
IV	Patent Bureau		850,011
V	Mine Supervision Bureau		555,109
VI	Experimental stations		1,576,595
VII	Inspection and directory stations		1,061,630
VIII	Subsidy for local expenses for taking statistics		168,715
IX	Miscellaneous expenses		22,926
	Sum total		6,689,901

Department of Communications

I	Department proper	Total	827,600
	Salaries		428,852
	Office expenses		391,866
	Aid to the International Navigation Conference		2,000
	International allotments		4,882
II	Communication expenses		1,289,183
III	Electro-technical Laboratory		590,348
IV	Lighthouse Bureau		1,208,785
V	Aeronautic Bureau		606,572
VI	Annuity and Pension	Total	180,867,457
	Annuities		11,234,883
	Pension		169,632,574
VII	Miscellaneous expenses		96,041
	Sum total		185,485,986

Department of Overseas Affairs

I	Department proper	Total	803,338
	Salaries		331,670
	Office expenses		425,118
	Special services		46,550
II	Transferred to the Special Account of Karafuto Government from the profits of tobacco monopoly		1,460,437
III	Miscellaneous expenses		5,284
	Sum total		2,269,059
	Grand total of Ordinary Expenditure		1,462,712,034

EXTRAORDINARY EXPENDITURE

Department of Foreign Affairs

I	Equipments and repairs	170,428
II	Removal of legations	21,925
III	Establishment of a new legation	133,000

IV	Subsidies to educational bodies abroad	¥1,779,920
V	Protection and overseeing of resident Japanese abroad	1,739,293
VI	Committee meetings of the League of Nations	147,190
VII	Protection and guidance of emigrants	428,910
VIII	Measures for the development of foreign trade	508,802
IX	International cultural enterprises	1,000,000
X	Manchurian Incident	2,970,380
XI	Extraordinary diplomatic work	3,502,251
XII	Japan-Manchoukuo Economic Co-operative Committee meetings	30,000
XIII	Relief expenses	500,000
XIV	In connection with the abolition of extraterritoriality in Manchoukuo	103,774
XV	Special pension	15,100
XVI	Compilation of Japanese police history in Manchoukuo	10,000
XVII	International conferences	69,806
XVIII	Extraordinary increase of salaries	2,506,967
	Sum total	15,637,746

Department of Home Affairs

I	Subsidies to local public bodies for water-works, river improvement, port construction, public works, etc,		11,904,071
II	River improvement works		24,914,613
III	Harbour improvement works		8,992,439
IV	Road improvement works		13,923,657
V	Aid to the improvement of smaller rivers		5,223,100
VI	Aid to the improvement of smaller harbours		1,320,000
VII	Investigations on public works		52,654
VIII	Investigations on water-course control		250,000
IX	Aid to the construction of dikes, etc.		400,000
X	Investigations on city planning		56,393
XI	Aid to the improvement of public roads and city planning works		300,000
XII	Improvements in Hokkaido		28,700,000
XIII	Buildings and repairs		608,727
XIV	Isé Shrine Construction Office		35,184
XV	Investigations on works relating to the Isé Shrine		9,000
XVI	Extraordinary expenses for shrines		1,041,000
XVII	Investigations on shrines and education of Shinto priests		51,436
XVIII	Special institutions for police		1,668,179
XIX	Election of members of prefectural councils		10,000
XX	Prevention of epidemics		1,260,027
XXI	Sanitary works	Total	1,551,105
	Manufacture of medicines		353,413
	Opium		1,080,457
	Others		117,235
XXII	National parks		84,389
XXIII	Medical treatment relief		1,100,000
XXIV	Promotion of public welfare work in Loochoo Islands		914,872
XXV	Promotion of public welfare work in Oshima county, Kagoshima		231,000
XXVI	Fisheries at Bonin Islands and Seven Islands of Izu		31,897
XXVII	Supervision of land cultivation		107,422
XXVIII	Investigations on local institution and finance		51,330
XXIX	Extraordinary aids to local finance		70,296,440
XXX	Promotion of local self governments		100,000
XXXI	Promotion and investigation on social work		238,250
XXXII	Promotion and protection of Tohoku people (people in North-Eastern districts) working in other places		30,000
XXXIII	Protection of Koreans in Japan proper		50,000
XXXIV	Improvement in local districts		1,247,130
XXXV	Prevention of factory disasters and investigation and encouragement of factory and mine hygiene		42,729

XXXVI	Investigation on occupational adaptability	¥8,333
XXXVII	Extraordinary unemployment relief	2,036,866
XXXVIII	Promotion of national self-help movement	30,000
XXXIX	International Labour Conference	109,348
XL	Earthquake rehabilitation work	35,649
XLI	Aid to the buildings in the fire-proof districts	700,000
XLII	Sand bank construction at the rivers damaged by earthquake	105,000
XLIII	Enforcement of the Earthqnake City Districts Building Law	20,470
XLIV	Aid to the prevention of tidal wave damage in Sanriku districts	102,345
XLV	Aid to the rehabilitation of Hakodaté	385,191
XLVI	Extraordinary increase of salaries	30,081
XLVII	Aids to prefectural governments for the works of rehabilitation after natural disasters in 1934	20,542,534
XLVIII	Special disbursement for port construction	34,939
	Sum total	200,437,800

Department of Finance

I	Buildings and repairs	21,700,883
II	Investigations and committee meetings	3,897,389
III	Aid to the Kwanto Bureau	502,000
IV	Preservation of the Cabinet documents	8,205
V	Adjustment of State Property	480,819
VI	Compensation of principal and interest of the 4% Chinese Loan	3,845,616
VII	Extraordinary expenses for the Board of Audit	10,000
VIII	Reconstruction of buildings damaged by earthquakes	2,334,561
IX	Extraordinary examination for lawyers	5,988
X	Remaking of the list of decoration holders	11,397
XI	Compilation of the financial history of the Meiji and Taicho eras	26,477
XII	Aid to advances to shipbuilding works	376,036
XIII	Clerical work concerning reparations	54,519
XIV	Residues of bonds given to lords instead of their feuds	248
XV	Urgent expenses for the unification and utilization of natural resources	178,466
XVI	Special increase of salaries	48,947
XVII	Extraordinary financial and economic investigation and adjustment expenses	359,104
XVIII	Extraordinary supervision of custom houses	31,080
XIX	Rewards in connection with the Manchurian Incident	588,737
XX	Special profits tax correction expenses	707,309
XXI	Control of the exports of cotton fabrics	10,899
XXII	Reconstruction of fire damaged buildings	123,305
XXIII	Clerical expenses for the promotion of Tohoku districts	28,510
XXIV	Office of the 2600th Anniversary	39,771
XXV	Extraordinary clerical expenses anent pension	31,889
XXVI	Establishment of the Pension Chest	20,000
XXVII	Capital for the Pension Chest	1,000,000
XXVIII	Aid to the dividend of the Tohoku Promotion Corporation	361,645
XXIX	Special institution for diplomatic communications	1,512,000
XXX	Furnitures for the Diet Building	49,319
XXXI	Payment to the capital of the South Manchuria Railway Co.	20,000,000
XXXII	Aid to the fund for the relief of the disaster stricken people in Kyoto	7,024
XXXIII	Aid to the celebration of the 2,600th Anniversary	2,650,000
XXXIV	Reserve fund for the expenses anent the Manchurian Incident	2,000,000
	Sum total	63,002,143

Department of War

I	Buildings and repairs		1,139,025
II	Completion of national defence	Total	108,124,501
	Repairs of fortresses		8,753,052
	Armaments		99,371,449

III	Grounds and buildings	¥741,248
IV	Land survey	321,000
V	Reconstructions in the quake-stricken districts	1,990,599
VI	Bridges, ranges, etc.	3,086,446
VII	Use of land and buildings	68,357
VIII	Map printing	423,655
IX	Garrisons in China	231,416
X	Temporary grants	231,765
XI	Subsidies for automobile manufacture	591,752
XII	Aid to the Ex-service Men's Association	300,000
XIII	Prevention of anaemia of horses	36,000
XIV	Manchurian Incident	269,613,347
XV	Improvement of Air Corps	83,982,139
XVI	Improvements in armies	34,968,306
XVII	Contribution to the special ceremony at Yasukuni Shrine	60,000
XVIII	Special increase of salaries	481,213
XIX	Rewards anent the Manchurian Incident	807,060
XX	Reconstruction of snow damaged buildings	300,000
XXI	Reinstallation of damaged war-machines	1,600,000
XXII	Relief of old militia men	950,000
XXIII	Compensation for the establishment of the special area for the army air port	100,000
XXIV	Furnitures in military offices	13,440
	Sum total	510,161,269

Department of Marine

I	Construction of ships	218,195,826
II	Equipments in ports, schools, hospitals and factories	59,567,600
III	Equipments of air forces	26,876,724
IV	Equipments of ships	54,714,903
V	Armaments	18,922,750
VI	Buildings and repairs	819,062
VII	Entrusted repairs	1,408,029
VIII	Drawings and books	92,766
IX	Technical and chemical studies	6,963,331
X	Temporary grants	212,077
XI	Allotment of the International Hydrographic Bureau	5,575
XII	Reinstallation of quake-damaged war-machines	1,000,000
XIII	Despatch of ships	500,000
XIV	Manchurian Incident	10,389,851
XV	Manoeuvres	6,000,000
XVI	Drawing weather charts, etc.	211,518
XVII	Special increase of salaries	638,508
XVIII	Educational armaments	800,000
XIX	Books	31,716
XX	Capital of the Naval Fuel Depot	350,000
	Sum total	407,700,236

Department of Justice

I	Investigations on laws	28,010
II	Buildings and repairs	788,974
III	Prevention of thought crimes	503,299
IV	Officiating debt arbitration cases	798,058
V	Extraordinary prison expenses	643,215
VI	Judicial system investigation committee	15,000
VII	Improvement of judicial police	255,957
VIII	Enforcement of the revised Commercial Law	5,000
IX	Special grants for retiring officials	50,000
	Sum total	3,087,510

Department of Education

I	Buildings and repairs	¥1,167,469
II	Compilation of a history of the Imperial House system	10,000
III	Compilation of historical materials of the Meiji Restoration	81,580
IV	Extraordinary training of teachers for secondary education	8,374
V	Training of meteorologists	19,044
VI	Extraordinary investigations	329,498
VII	Extraordinary lectures	235,000
VIII	Travelling expenses of delegates to international conferences	42,600
IX	Subsidies to various educational and cultural bodies	1,757,450
X	Earthquake rehabilitation work	1,992,197
XI	Extraordinary disbursement for universities and libraries	2,948,255
XII	Social education	160,000
XIII	Extraordinary expenses for the preservation of national treasures	225,041
XIV	Extraordinary expenses for historical places	56,595
XV	Investigation and protection of important art productions	19,200
XVI	Extraordinary expenses for encouragement of school attendance	440,000
XVII	Extraordinary expenses for the training of young men	300,000
XVIII	Extraordinary expenses for thought guidance	47,000
XIX	Improvement of school education	90,000
XX	Improvement of meteorological stations	300,000
XXI	Extraordinary expenses for health protection of elementary school teachers	175,000
XXII	Aid to the 12th Olympiad	30,000
XXIII	Extraordinary expenses for equipments	100,000
XXIV	Preservation of national treasures in typhoon stricken districts	125 874
XXV	Reconstruction of elementary schools in typhoon stricken districts	166,334
XXVI	Special increase of salaries	472,977
	Sum total	11,299,488

Department of Agriculture and Forestry

I	Subsidies for agricultural and fishery enterprises	28,605,284
II	Promotion of farm-villages	4,063,389
III	Investigations and studies	1,714,324
IV	Buildings and repairs	1,188,756
V	Prevention of live-stock plagues and noxious insects	987,066
VI	Improvement of water-courses in forestry	5,327,347
VII	Public forestry enterprises	2,412,367
VIII	Private forestry enterprises	1,321,511
IX	Superintending of game preserves	22,198
X	Improvement of fishery enterprises	2,000,000
XI	Protection of fur-seals	180,295
XII	Fishery registration	7,000
XIII	Adjustment of coastal fishery grounds	34,662
XIV	Control of fisheries in foreign seas	158,358
XV	Enforcement of the Russo-Japanese Fishery Treaty	49,846
XVI	Inspection of Tsingtao meats	33,000
XVII	Survey for water-course control	100,000
XVIII	Transfer to several Special Accounts	280,803
XIX	Economic recovery of farm-villages	9,515,451
XX	Subsidies to the land cultivation of landed-farmers	311,735
XXI	Subsidies to the rice self-control	1,205,167
XXII	Improvement of mulberry plantations	600,000
XXIII	Irrigation and drainage works	121,100
XXIV	Land cultivation in Tohoku districts	138,787
XXV	Protection forests	850,000
XXVI	Disaster rehabilitation works	13,494,782

XXVII	Aid for industrial recovery in disaster stricken districts	¥6,026
XXVIII	Prevention of tidal-waves in Sanriku districts	122,254
XXIX	Promotion of Okinawa (Loochoo) Prefecture	866,636
XXX	Promotion of Oshima county, Kagoshima	365,385
XXXI	Grants to Tohoku prefectures where State forests are located	212,040
XXXII	Special increase of salaries	28,583
	Sum total	76,324,152

Department of Commerce and Industry

I	Promotion of foreign trade	4,543,426
II	For self-support of liquid fuel	6,736,646
III	Promotion of industrial arts production and improvement of manufactures in smaller factories	418,943
IV	Finance for smaller merchants and industrialists	121,710
V	Promotion of smaller commerce	442,498
VI	Promotion of smaller industries	1,278,948
VII	Promotion of industries	710,442
VIII	Promotion of mining	210,360
IX	Promotion of iron industry	1,963,273
X	Promotion of enterprises in connection with industries	289,181
XI	Investigations and studies	279,178
XII	Buildings and repairs	1,335,636
XIII	Extraordinary readjustment works	53,501
XIV	Enforcement of the new weights and measures law	8,895
XV	Examinations and dispositions at the Patent Bureau	422,471
XVI	Extraordinary examination	25,7000
XVII	Promotion of Okinawa prefecture	25,210
XVIII	Promotion of Oshima county, Kagoshima	26,577
XIX	Foreign trade control	22,042
XX	Temporary Industrial Rationalization Bureau	5,980
XXI	Committee meeting for the valuation of iron foundries	7,000
XXII	Participation in the International Exhibition at Paris	210,000
XXIII	Supervision of the International Exhibition at the 2,600th anniversary to be held at Tokyo in 1940	62,647
XXIV	Aid to the establishment of the International Sample Exhibition Building	200,000
XXV	Capital for the commercial and industrial associations' central chest	700,000
XXVI	Travelling expenses of delegates to international conferences	33,049
	Sum total	20,124,313

Department of Communications

I	Subsidies and encouragements for shipping and air transportation	16,134,113
II	Improvement in the use of electric power in farm-villages	122,987
III	Special studies at the Electro-technical Laboratory	52,154
IV	Investigation on water-course control	250,000
V	Investigation on steel for shipbuilding	36,779
VI	Improvement of ships	47,468
VII	Extraordinary examination of ships	20,610
VIII	Survey on ships	40,000
IX	Subsidies for ocean voyage	1,129,146
X	Subsidies for shipbuilding	444,706
XI	Light houses	400,000
XII	Training of oviators	249,500
XIII	Air ports	2,113,002
XIV	Studies on aviation	339,040
XV	Examination of aeroplanes	24,000
XVI	Preparation for opening international airways	144,063

XVII	Buildings and repairs	¥138,618
XVIII	Machines	245,000
XIX	Travelling expenses of delegates to international conferences	8,767
XX	Re-installation of equipments damaged by the Earthquake in 1923	21,077
	Sum total	21,961,035

Department of Overseas Affairs

I	Training of emigrants	119,127
II	Subsidies for emigrants and overseas enterprises	3,364,365
III	Emigrants to Manchoukuo	4,764,609
IV	Enterprises on cotton and wool	220,000
V	Aid to the Colonial Exhibition Hall	100,000
VI	Aid to Chosen Government-General	12,913,966
VII	Special increase of salaries	8,175
	Sum total	21,490,242
	Total of Extraordinary Expenditure	1,351,225,937
	Grand total of Expenditure	2,813,937,971

SPECIAL ACCOUNTS

(In yen)

Ministry	Special Account	Revenue	Expenditure
Foreign Affairs	Cultural Work for China	50,129,029	3,804,366
Home Affairs	Health Insurance	33,111,050	33,111,050
,,	Labour Accident Legal Insurance	3,551,435	3,551,435
Finance	Mint Bureau	18,630,149	8,952,206
,,	Mint Bureau, Fund Section	14,137,962	18,595,607
,,	Printing Bureau	12,155,221	9,198,310
,,	Monopoly Bureau	441,464,980	207,401,922
,,	Deposits Bureau	182,022,096	138,219,424
,,	Educational Fund	20,439	—
,,	National Debt Readjustment Fund	5,579,866,767	5,579,866,767
,,	National Loans	913,823,677	913,823,677
,,	State Property Readjustment Fund	5,662,017	4,722,017
,,	Educational Improvement and Farm-villages Economic Development Fund	6,716,237	7,495,307
,,	Kwantung Bureau	26,063,681	26,063,681
War	Arsenal	170,365,768	170,365,768
,,	Senju Woollen Factory	7,077,542	7,071,716
Marine	Capital of Naval Dockyards	102,376,070	101,560,125
,,	Naval Explosives Factory	8,023,779	8,023,779
,,	Naval Fuel Depot	34,002,554	33,791,261
Education	Six Imperial Universities	30,300,227	30,300,227
,,	Imperial Universities Endowment Funds	1,482,997	4,569,884
,,	Government colleges	12,907,395	12,907,395
,,	Government Colleges Endowment Funds	750,200	1,300,166
,,	Schools and libraries	17,814,265	17,814,265
,,	Schools and Libraries Endowment Funds	307,395	2,294,118
Agriculture and Forestry	Rice Trade Control	171,665,541	171,665,541
,,	Silk Price Control	7,788,391	7,788,391
,,	Forests Fire Insurance	195,990	195,990
,,	Fishing Boats Re-insurance	150,586	150,586
,,	Live Stock Re-insurance	578,199	578,199
Communications	Communications business, funds	91,930,679	100,265,664
,,	Communications business, necessaries	50,900,253	50,900,253
,,	Communications business operation	351,770,761	315,302,962
,,	P. O. Life Insurance	298,699,786	154,694,345
,,	P. O. Annuity	19,710,479	7,073,726

Railways	State Railways, capital account	¥174,206,973	¥195,708,648
,,	State Railways, necessaries account	220,889,000	220,889,000
,,	State Railways, earnings account	838,770,034	708,063,061
Overseas Affairs	Chosen Government-General	412,368,685	412,368,685
,,	Chosen Railways, necessaries fund	36,735,095	36,735,095
,,	Chosen P. O. Life Insurance	12,140,201	6,370,817
,,	Taiwan Government-General	157,978,287	157,978,287
,,	Taiwan Government Railways necessaries fund	8,000,000	8,000,000
,,	Karafuto Government	36,375,724	36,375,724
,,	South Seas Government	8,682,482	8,682,482
Ministry	Special Account	Revenue	Expenditure

SUPPLEMENTARY BUDGET FOR 1937-38

(In yen)

General Account

Revenue	
Ordinary revenue, miscellaneous	5,840,000
Extraordinary revenue, miscellaneous	730,000
,, ,, loans	51,627,902
Total revenue	58,197,902
Ordinary expenditure	
Ministry of	
Foreign Affairs	85,836
Finance	611,524
Justice	100,000
Education	5,000
Commerce and Industry	49,387
Communications	16,402
Total	868,149
Extraordinary expenditure	
Ministry of	
Foreign Affairs	147,662
Home Affairs	36,622,309
Finance	458,266
Marine	1,455,943
Education	767,000
Agriculture and Forestry	2,535,063
Commerce and Industry	6,183,000
Communications	160,000
Overseas Affairs	9,000,000
Total	57,329,753
Grand total of expenditure	58,197,902

Special Accounts

Ministry of	
Finance,	
National Loan Adjustment Fund	
Revenue	457,682
Expenditure	457,682
Loan money	
Revenue	51,627,902
Expenditure	51,627,902
Kwantung Bureau	
Revenue	125,000
Expenditure	125,000
Education,	
Imperial universities	
Revenue	2,500
Expenditure	2,500

Imperial universities, funds	
Revenue	¥2,500
Expenditure	2,500
Government colleges, funds	
Revenue	700,000
Expenditure	700,000
Overseas Affairs,	
Chosen Government-General	
Revenue	2,107,496
Expenditure	2,107,496

THE THIRD SUPPLEMENTARY BUDGET FOR 1936-37 VOTED AT THE 70TH SESSION OF THE DIET AND PUBLISHED ON MARCH 24, 1937.

(Ordinal numbers correspond to those of the Budget for 1935-36, given in full in the Japan Year Book, 1935, pp. 269-276.)

ORDINARY EXPENDITURE

(In yen)

Department of Foreign Affairs

I	Department proper Telegrams	7,245
II	Offices in foreign countries Telegrams	206,213
	Total	213,458

Department of Home Affairs

XVII	Joint payment for police expenses	2,164,873

Department of Finance

IV	House of Peers Secretarial expenses	10,000
V	House of Representatives Secretarial expenses	10,000
	Total	20,000

Department of Communications

V	Annuity and Pension	1,984,370
	Sum total of ordinary expenditure	4,382,701

EXTRAORDINARY EXPENDITURE

Department of Foreign Affairs

XIX	North China consulates' police expenses	13,325

Department of Home Affairs

LI	Expenses for disasters Travelling expenses of officers	25,000

Department of Marine

XIV	Expenses for the Manchurian Incident	1,786,116
	Sum total of extraordinary expenditure	1,824,441
	Grand total of the Supplementary Budget	6,207,142

National Debts

Internal Loans .Five per cent Loan. This loan was issued mainly for the construction and improvement of the Imperial Railways, the compensation for and purchase of private railways, the colonization of Chōsen, Taiwan, Karafuto and Kwantung Province, the relief of Japanese subjects suffering war losses, rewards for distinguished services during the war in 1914–15, retiring allowances in connection with both the administrative readjustment and the reduction of armaments, compensation payments resulting from the reduction of the Army and Navy, the reconstruction works in Tokyo and Yokohama necessitated by the Earthquake disaster, compensation for loss sustained by the Bank of Japan in discounting Earthquake Bills, compensation for losses sustained in the accommodation extended to banking institutions in Taiwan and other undertakings and various grants. The total issue amounted to ¥2,239,463,575, of which ¥387,872,100 has already been redeemed, and ¥1,851,591,475 was still unredeemed at the end of March, 1936.

Five per cent Loan ("Kō"). This loan was issued during 1908–09 for the purpose of meeting the purchase price of railways owned by seventeen private companies. The total issue amounted to ¥476,318,800, of which part has been redeemed, and ¥396,698,300 left unredeemed. The principal private railways in our country were purchased outright through the proceeds of this loan and were then unified into one State system.

Five per cent Loan (Special). This loan was issued in 1906 to the amount of ¥199,671,600 for the purpose of meeting a part of the supplementary war expenditures of the war of 1904-05 These loan bonds were marked "O." There were also other loan bonds specially issued in the same year in lieu of cash as rewards for distinguished services during that war. These bonds, amounting to ¥110,735,400, were marked "Wa." It should, however, be noted that the outstanding amount of this loan, ¥120,816,750, which had to be redeemed by the end of 1935, was entirely repaid on November 30 by means of conversion into 4 per cent. Exchequer bonds of ¥122,656,000.

Five per cent Loan ("Onshi") This loan, amounting to ¥30,000,000, was created at the time of the annexation of Chōsen by Imperial Ordinance No.327 of 1910, and the bonds were specially granted to the Korean peers and to public corporations of the Peninsula to provide funds for promoting industries and education and for famine relief.

Four per cent Loan (1st and 2nd Series). In order to consolidate the national debt, the Government planned the conversion into low-interest loans of the outstanding five per cent domestic loans issued before 1905, and with this end in view issued in the home market with better results than had been anticipated two series of four per cent loans amounting to ¥100,000,000 each. As all the five per cent loan bonds previously issued were accepted in place of cash in subscriptions for the four per cent loans, such receipts amounted to ¥64,-467,500 in the first issue of the four per cent loans and to ¥86,612,920 in the second. In addition to the total issue of ¥200,000,000 mentioned above, there was a loan of the first issue amounting to ¥76,220,500 which was delivered in place of cash to the bondholders of various five per cent loans.

Four per cent Loan. In accordance with the provisions of Law No. 16 of 1933, the Government issued in December, 1933, a 4 per cent Loan with a total face-value of ¥8,145,550. The object of the Loan was to deliver to the Industrial Bank of Japan those loan bonds to be appropriated for the increase, arising out of the decline in the yen exchange, in the principal and interest charges of the Industrial Bank of Japan 5 per cent Sterling Debentures which were issued in 1908 for the purpose of making advances to the Korean Government for the development of enterprises in that country. Further issues were made to the amount of ¥59,026,150 in 1934 and ¥9,332,100 in 1935 for such purposes as the purchase of raw silk given as security in the case of accommodation of funds made by banks, the purchase of private railways, compensation payments to private railways and tramways, the purchase of private camphor manufacturing factories in Taiwan, and rewards for distinguished services in the Manchurian incident. The total issues from 1933 to 1935 thus amounted to ¥76,-503,800, of which ¥450 was redeemed, and ¥76,503,350 remained outstanding at the end of the fiscal year 1935–36.

Five per cent Exchequer Bonds. These bonds were issued in order to enable the Government to consolidate and redeem foreign loans, meet extraordinary war expenditure, create and expand higher institutions of learning, construct and improve railways, improve roads, encourage various undertakings in Chōsen, Taiwan and Karafuto, consolidate the short-term bonds issued under the

Special Exchequer Notes Law for financing export bills and giving financial assistance to the Allied Powers during 1914–15, finance reconstruction works in districts damaged by the Great Earthquake and to make loans to banks holding Earthquake Bills. The aggregate amount of existing bonds issued from 1916 to March 1933 reached ¥4,842,258,450, of which ¥2,706,145,225 has been redeemed, the balance, ¥2,136,113,-225, remaining unsettled.

Four and a Half per cent Exchequer Bonds. These bonds were issued in order to enable the Government to meet expenditures in connection with the Manchurian incident, the extension of the telegraph and telephone system, improvement of roads, reconstruction works necessitated by the Earthquake of 1923, construction and improvement of railways, various public undertakings in Chōsen, Taiwan, Kwantung Province and Karafuto, and the covering of revenue deficits in the General Account. The total issues from 1932 to March 1933 reached ¥715,000,000.

Four per cent Exchecquer Bonds. These bonds were issued for the first time in 1933 for the same purpose as that of the Four and a Half per cent Exchequer Bonds mentioned above. The total amount of issue reached ¥3,070,-424,000 during the fiscal years 1933–34 to 1935–36.

External Loans Four per cent Sterling Loan of 1899 (1st Series). For the purpose of meeting the expenditures required for the construction of railways, improvement of the existing Government railways, construction of railways in the Hokkaido, steel manufacture, and extension of the telephone system, and in accordance with the provisions of the Railway Construction Law (Law No. 4, 1892), the Public Undertakings Loan Regulations (Law No. 59, 1896), the Hokkaido Railway Construction Law (Law No. 93, 1896), and Law No. 101, 1899, the Government issued in London in June, 1899, a loan of £10,000,000 at an issue-price of £90 per £100 face-value, the principal of which is, after being left unpaid for ten years from January, 1899, to be redeemed at the option of the Government by means of drawings in forty-five years.

Five per cent Sterling Loan of 1907. For the purpose of consolidating and redeeming the six per cent Sterling Loan of £22,000,000 issued in 1904, the Government raised in March, 1907, a five per cent Loan of £23,000,000 in London and Paris in accordance with the provisions of Law No. 1 of 1904, Law No. 12 of 1905, and Imperial Ordinance No. 23 of 1907. Its issue-price was £99 10s. per £100 face-value, and the principal is to be left unpaid until March 11th, 1922 and thereafter to be redeemed at the option of the Government by means of drawings by March 12th, 1947. The proceeds of this loan were applied to the redemption of the six per cent Sterling Loan of £22,000,-000.

Four per cent Franc Loan of 1910. The four per cent Loan was issued in Paris in 1910 with the same object as the four per cent Loan issued at home; a portion of its proceeds was appropriated for use as fund for the redemption of domestic loan bonds which were exported abroad, and another portion for use as fund for the redemption of the five per cent loan bonds in circulation at home. The amount of issue was 450,000,000 francs, the rate of interest four per cent, payable on the 15th of May and of November every year; the issue-price was 95 francs 50 centimes, and the loan to remain unredeemed for ten years, after which it is to be redeemed within fifty years.

Four per cent Sterling Loan of 1910 (3rd Series). The four per cent Sterling Loan of 1910 was raised for the same purpose as the four per cent Loan raised at home and the four per cent Franc Loan of 1910 raised in France, and was employed as fund for the redemption of the indorsed War and five per cent Loans in circulation in London. The amount of issue was £11,000,000, the rate of interest four per cent, payable on the 1st of June and December, the issue-price was £95, and the loan to remain unredeemed for ten years, after which it is to be redeemed within fifty years; and as the object of the loan was the redemption of the indorsed loans above referred to, the latter loan bonds were accepted in place of cash when the former loan was subscribed for.

South Manchuria Railway Sterling Debentures. The South Manchuria Railway Sterling Debentures of 1911 with a total face-value of £6,000,000, the liability for the service of which had been assumed by the Government, fell due on January 1, 1936, and consequently, the greater part of the Debentures was redeemed in cash, while a part was repaid by conversion into domestic loan. The Government has been further authorised by Law No. 34 of 1933 to subscribe to the shares of the Company, and instead of paying cash for the shares, to assume liability for the service of the Sterling Debentures with a total face-value of £4,000,000 issued in

1933 by the Company. Thus, the amount outstanding at the end of March, 1936 was £4,000,000.

Six and a Half per cent Gold Bonds of 1924. Partly, for the purpose of redeeming the outstanding Imperial Japanese Government 4½% Sterling Loan of the first and second series, which fell due January 15, 1925, and July 10, 1925, respectively and, partly for the purpose of purchasing materials and supplies for reconstruction necessitated by the earthquake and fire of September, 1923, loans with a total face value of 150,000,000 dollars were issued in New York in February, 1924, in accordance with Art. 1 of law No. 56, 1923 and Art. V of Law No. 6, 1906. The issue-price was 92½ dollars per 100 dollars face value and the loan is to remain unredeemed for fifteen years, after which it is to be redeemed within fifteen years, namely, by February 1, 1954.

Six per cent Sterling Loan of 1924. Loans with a total face-value of £25,000,000 were issued in London in February, 1924, in accordance with Art. 1 of Law No. 56 promulgated in 1923 and Art. V Law No. 6, in 1906, for the same purpose as the 6½% Loan of 1924 issued in the United States of America. The issue-price was £87½ per £100 face-value and the loan is to remain unredeemed for fifteen years, after which it is to be redeemed within twenty years, namely, by July 10, 1959.

Five and a Half per cent Sterling Loan of 1930. For the conversion of the 4% Sterling Loan of 1905, the Government issued a 5½ per cent Sterling Loan of £12,500,000 in London in May, 1930 in accordance with the provisions of Law No. 6 of 1906. The issue-price was £90 per £100 face-value. The principal is to be left unpaid for ten years, after which it is to be redeemed by May 1, 1965.

Five and a Half per cent Gold Bonds of 1930. For the conversion of the 4% Sterling Loan of 1905, loans with a total face-value of $71,000,000, were issued in New York in May, 1930 in accordance with Law No. 6 of 1906. The issue-price was $90 per $100 face-value. The loan is to remain unredeemed for ten years, after which it is to be redeemd by May 1, 1965.

GENERAL FEATURES OF THE NATIONAL DEBT IN THE FINANCIAL YEAR 1935-36

Kind of Loan	Rate of Interest	Dates of Payment of Interest	Years of Issue
Internal Loans :			
5% Loan (Mark: "Ka" "Ta" "Re" "So" "Tsu" "Ne" "Na" etc. / Mark: "Sa" "Ki" "Yu" "Me" "Mi" "Hi" etc.)	5%	Mar., Sept. (1st Mar., 1st Sept. / 1st June, 1st Dec.)	1906-1935
5% Loan ("Kō")	„	June, Dec.	1908, 1909
5% Loan (Special)	„	„ „	1906
5% Loan ("Onshi")	„	1st Mar., 1st Sept. / 1st June, 1st Dec.	1910 / 1911, 1913
4% Loan (1st Series / 2nd Series)	4%	1st June, 1st Dec. / 1st Mar., 1st Sept.	1910-1912
4% Loan (Mark: "Ho" "He" "To")	„	1st June, 1st Dec.	1933-1935
5% Exchequer Bonds (Mark: "23rd" "26th" "27th" etc.)	5%	1st Mar., 1st Sept. / 1st June. 1st Dec.	1925-1932
4½% Exchequer Bonds (Mark: "I" / Mark: "Ro" "Ha")	4½%	1st June, 1st Dec. / 1st Mar., 1st Sept.	1932-1933
4% Exchequer Bonds (Mark: "I" "Ro" "Ha" "Ni" "Ho" "He" etc.)	4%	1st Mar., 1st Sept. / 1st June, 1st Dec.	1933-1936
Total	—	—	—
External Loans:			
4% Sterling Loan of 1899 (1st Series)	4%	30th June, 31st Dec.	1899
5% Sterling Loan of 1907	5%	12th Mar., 12th Sept.	1907
4% Franc Loan of 1910 (issued in Paris)	4%	15th May, 15th Nov.	1910
4% Sterling Loan of 1910 (3rd Series)	„	1st June, 1st Dec.	„
6½% Gold Bonds of 1924 (issued in New York)	6½%	1st Feb., 1st Aug.	1024
6% Sterling Loan of 1924	6%	10th Jan., 10th July	„
5½% Sterling Loan of 1930	5½%	1st Jan., 1st July	1930
5½% Gold Bonds of 1930 (issued in New York)	„	1st May, 1st Nov.	„
Sterling Debentures of the South Manchuria Railway Company	4½% / 5%	(1st Jan., 1st July) / (15th Jan., 15th July)	1911 / 1923
Total	—	—	—
Grand Total	—	—	—

Kind of Loan	Unredeemable periods	Years of Redemption.	Amounts outstanding at the beginning of the year. ¥
Internal Loans:			
5% Loan (Mark: "Ka" "Ta" "Re" "So" "Tsu" "Ne" "Na" etc. / Mark: "Sa" "Ki" "Yu" "Me" "Mi" "Hi" etc.)	5 Years	1989	1,851,744,325
5% Loan ("Kō")	,,	1936	396,698,300
5% Loan (Special)	,,	1935	120,816,750
5% Loan ("Onshi")	,,	1967	17,406,700
4% Loan (1st Series / 2nd Series)	10 Years	1969	259,359,650
4% Loan (Mark: "Ho" "He" "To")	5 Years	1969	43,817,150
5% Exchequer Bonds (Mark: "23rd" "26th" "27th" etc.)	—	1953	2,230,761,725
4½% Exchequer Bonds (Mark: "I" / Mark: "Ro" "Ha")	—	1946	715,000,000
4% Exchequer Bonds (Mark: "I" "Ro" "Ha" "Ni" "Ho" "He" etc.)	—	1936	2,051,906,150
Total	—	—	7,687,510,750
External Loans:			
4% Sterling Loan of 1899 (1st Series)	10 Years	1953	91,337,746
5% Sterling Loan of 1907	15 Years	1947	222,669,818
4% Franc Loan of 1910 (issued in Paris)	10 Years	1970	160,990,065
4% Sterling Loan of 1910 (3rd Series)	,,	,,	105,428,684
6½% Gold Bonds of 1924 (issued in New York)	15 Years	1954	235,522,454
6% Sterling Loan of 1924	,,	1959	224,901,981
5½% Sterling Loan of 1930	10 Years	1965	122,036,524
5½% Gold Bonds of 1930 (issued in New York)	,,	1965	142,426,000
Sterling Debentures of the South Manchuria Railway Company	,,	1936 / 1948	97,630,000
Total	—	—	1,402,943,272
Grand Total	—	—	9,090,454,022

Kind of Loan	Amounts of Issue during the year	Amounts of Redemption during the year (In yen)	Amount outstanding at the end of the year
Internal Loans:			
5% Loan (Mark: "Ka" "Ta" "Re" "So" "Tsu" "Ne" "Na" etc. / Mark: "Sa" "Ki" "Yu" "Me" "Mi" "Hi" etc.)	9,000	161,850	1,851,591,475
5% Loan (',Kō")	—	—	396,698,300
5% Loan (Special)	—	120,816,750	—
5% Loan ("Onshi")	—	—	17,406,700
4% Loan (1st Series / 2nd Series)	—	656,750	258,702,900
4% Loan (Mark: "Ho" "He" "To")	32,686,650	450	76,503,350
5% Exchequer Bonds (Mark: "23rd" "26th" "27th" etc.)	—	94,648,500	2,136,113,225
4½% Exchequer Bonds (Mark: "I" / Mark: "Ro" "Ha")	—	—	715,000,000
4% Exchequer Bonds (Mark: "I" "Ro" "Ha" "Ni" "Ho" "He" etc.)	1,018,517,850	200	3,070,423,800
Total	1,051,213,500	216,284,500	8,522,439,750
External Loans:			
4% Sterling Loan of 1899 (1st Series)	—	—	91,337,746
5% Sterling Loan of 1907	—	—	222,669,818
4% Franc Loan of 1910 (issued in Paris)	—	1,355	160,988,710
4% Sterling Loan of 1910 (3rd Series)	—	976	105,427,708
6½% Gold Bonds of 1924 (issued in New York	—	6,242,271	229,280,183
6% Sterling Loan of 1924	—	4,206,291	220,695,690
5½% Sterling Loan of 1930	—	926,118	121,110,406

Kind of Loan	Amounts of Issue during the year	Amount of Redemption during the year	Amounts outstanding at the end of the year
		(In yen)	
5½% Gold Bonds of 1930 (issued in New York)	—	1,127,372	141,298,628
Sterling Debentures of the South Manchuria Railway Company	—	58,578,000	39,052,000
Total	—	71,082,383	1,331,860,889
Grand Total	1,051,213,500	287,366,883	9,854,300,639

Note: (1) Besides the national debt there were Rice Purchase Notes amounting to 453,601,627 yen on March 31st, 1936.

(2) For the sake of comparison external loans have been converted into yen at the following rates: 1 pound sterling=9.763 yen; 1 dollar=2.006 yen; 1 French franc=0.387 yen. This explanation is also applicable to external debentures.

AMOUNTS OF THE NATIONAL DEBT RAISED, REDEEMED AND OUTSTANDING

Financial Year	Internal Loans			External Loans.		
	Amount issued	Amount redeemed	Amount outstanding at the End of the Financial Year	Amount issued	Amount redeemed	Amount outstanding at the End of the Financial Year
			(In yen)			
1926-27	537,588,725	346,876,625	3,710,576,325	—	18,122,243	1,461,189,892
1927-28	742,479,325	508,582,175	3,944,473,475	—	7,796,785	1,453,393,107
1928-29	689,146,350	253,649,800	4,379,965,700	—	2,097,749	1,451,295,357
1929-30	558,942,975	426,300,400	4,512,608,275	—	4,446,545	1,446,848,812
1930-31	265,608,800	301,424,775	4,476,792,300	264,463,500	232,287,852	1,479,024,460
1931-32	457,583,700	219,297,800	4,715,078,200	—	6,445,186	1,472,579,274
1932-33	1,096,744,000	148,068,225	5,663,753,975	—	82,137,698	1,390,444,577
1933-34	1,066,062,000	5,375,850	6,724,440,125	39,052,000	14,895,310	1,414,598,267
1934-35	1,063,126,950	100,056,325	7,687,510,750	—	11,654,994	1,402,943,272
1935-36	1,051,213,500	216,284,500	8,522,439,750	—	71,082,383	1,331,860,889
1936-37	—	—	9,257,550,950	—	—	1,316,955,247

Financial Year	Grand Total			Increase (+) or Decrease (—) of Amount outstanding compared with the Preceding Year	Debt per Head	Population
	Amount issued	Amount redeemed	Amount outstanding at the End of the Financial Year			
			(In yen)			
1926-27	537,588,725	364,998,868	5,171,766,216	(+) 172,589,856	58.945	87,738,695
1927-28	742,479,325	516,378,960	5,397,866,581	(+) 226,100,365	60.739	88,868,442
1928-29	689,146,350	255,747,549	5,831,261,057	(+) 433,394,476	64.735	90,078,333
1929-30	558,942,975	430,746,945	5,959,457,087	(+) 128,196,030	65.263	91,313,232
1930-31	530,072,300	533,712,627	5,955,816,760	(—) 3,640,327	63.716	93,473,579
1931-32	457,583,700	225,742,986	6,187,657,474	(+) 231,840,714	65.450	94,540,100
1932-33	1 096,744,000	230,205,923	7,054,195,552	(+) 866,538,078	74.409	96,093,509
1933-34	1 105,114,000	20,261,160	8,139,038,392	(+)1,084,842,840	83.457	97,523,524
1934-35	1 063,126,950	111,711,319	9,090,454,022	(+) 951,415,630	91.818	99,004,572
1935-36	1 051,213,500	287,366,883	9,854,300,639	(+) 763,846,617	98.419	100,125,206
1936-37	—	—	10,574,506,197	—	—	—

AMOUNT OF NATIONAL DEBTS REDEEMED OUT OF THE NATIONAL DEBT CONSOLIDATION FUND AND BY CONVERSION

Financial Year	Amount redeemed by Consolidation Fund			Amount redeemed by Conversion			
	Internal Loans	External Loans	Total	Internal Loans	External Loans	Total	Grand Total
	¥	¥	¥	¥	¥	¥	¥
1926-27	48,461,525	18,122,244	66,583,769	298,415,000	—	298,414,000	364,998,769
1927-28	85,427,215	7,796,785	93,224,000	423,153,960	—	423,153,960	516,377,960

Financial Year	Amount redeemed by Consolidation Fund: Internal Loans	External Loans	Total	Amount redeemed by Conversion: Internal Loans	External Loans	Total	Grand Total
				(In yen)			
1928-29	29,247,236	2,097,749	31,344,985	224,401,914	—	224,401,914	255,746,899
1929-30	97,417,113	4,446,545	101,863,658	229,883,287	—	328,883,287	430,746,945
1930-31	151,431,835	5,415,234	156,847,069	149,989,340	226,872,619	376,862,458	533,709,527
1931-32	49,952,097	6,445,185	56,397,283	269,345,403	—	169,345,403	225,742,686
1932-33	8,956,241	23,559,697	32 515,938	139,111,909	58,578,000	197,689,909	230,205,847
1933-34	5,375,850	14,895,310	20,271,160	—	—	—	20,271,160
1934-35	10,068,941	11,654,994	21,723,935	89,987,384	—	89,987,384	111,711,319
1935-36	1,069,291	49,188,823	51,258,114	215,215,209	21,893,559	237,108,768	287,366,882

AMOUNT OF NATIONAL DEBTS CHARGEABLE TO THE VARIOUS ACCOUNTS

(March 31st)

Accounts	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
		(In yen)			
General Account	3,981,466,829	4,760,489,568	5,592,975,453	6,178,511,615	6,894,857,908
Internal loans	2,622,740,693	3,476,211,827	4,284,541,022	4,895,772,852	5,682,935,459
External loans	1,358,726.136	1,284,277,741	1,308,434,431	1,282,738,763	1,211,922,449
Special Accounts for Government of Chōsen	348,671,350	373,731,176	462,495,657	489,480,524	509,038,362
Internal loans	348,671,350	373,731,176	462,495,657	489,480,524	509,038,362
External loans	—	—	—	—	—
Special Account for Government of Taiwan	113,435,902	118,722,040	126,530,894	129,525,450	128,202,287
Internal loans	95,818,706	101,269,996	109,078,850	112,073,406	110,750,243
External loans	17,617,196	17,452,044	17,452,044	17,452,044	17,452,044
Special Account for Kwantung Government	5,129,856	9,835,739	13,311,706	13,263,537	13,226,379
Internal loans	5,129,856	9,835,739	13,311,706	13,263,537	13,226,379
External loans	—	—	—	—	—
Special Account of Government of Karafuto	30,085,325	32,133,976	37,736,621	37,612,369	37,572,325
Internal loans	30,085.325	32,133,976	37,736,621	37,612,369	37,572,325
External loans	—	—	—	—	—
Special Account for Government of Nanyō	75,157	74,846	74,554	74,264	73,975
Internal loans	75,157	74,846	74,554	74,264	73,975
External loans	—	—	—	—	—
Imperial Railways Special Account	1,683,838,918	1,732,814,366	1,879,614,750	1,921,314,177	1,942,297,215
Internal loans	1,592,211,338	1,648,710,937	1,795,511,321	1,837,210,748	1,585,193,786
External loans	91,627,580	84,103,429	84,103,429	84,103,429	84,103,429
Special Account for Imperial Iron Works	24,954,137	26,393,841	26,298,757	—	—
Internal loans	20,345,774	21,785,478	21,690,394	—	—
External loans	4,608,363	4,603,363	4,608,363	—	—
Special Account for Postal, Telegraph, and Telephone Services	—	—	—	320,672,086	329,032,188
Internal loans	—	—	—	302,023,050	310,649,221
External loans	—	—	—	18,649,036	18,382,967
Grand Total	6,187,657,474	7,054,195,552	8,139,038,392	9,090,454,022	9,854,300,639
Total internal loans	4,715,078,200	5,663,753,975	6,724,440,125	7,687,510,750	8,522,439,750
Total external loans	1,472,579,274	1,390,441,577	1,414,598,267	1,402,943,272	1,331,860,889

OUTSTANDING NATIONAL DEBTS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE OBJECTS FOR WHICH THEY WERE RAISED

(March 31st)

Items	1934	1935	1936
		(In yen)	
Reorganization of public institutions:			
Feudal Pensions capitalized	92,733,612	92,724,405	92,664,804
Economic Undertakings:			
Railway construction	1,947,229,568	1,994,392,705	1,999,978,684
Harbour, drainage, road, steel-works, mining, telephone, etc.	280,424,317	297,175,561	313,795,889
Total	2,227,653,885	2,291,568,266	2,313,774,573
Financial Adjustment:			
Administrative readjustment and limitation of armament	117,035,992	117,035,967	117,026,967
Redemption of paper money	10,016,395	10,015,008	10,008,205
Increase from conversion	378,439,795	377,287,567	395,623,866
Tobacco and salt monopoly	19,964,355	19,962,886	19,941,175
Total	525,456,537	524,301,428	542,600,213
Reconstruction work in districts damaged by the earthquake	668,335,608	679,051,271	686,948,346
Covering of revenue deficits	873,441,200	1,443,544,500	1,943,163,100
Financial accommodation:			
Export bill financing, etc.	395,414,212	387,638,637	387,638,637
Liquidation of the liabilities of three banks with respect to the loan to China	126,649,960	126,649,661	126,649,661
Compensation for loss sustained by the Bank of Japan in discounting earthquake bills and remedial measures, etc.	405,565,910	413,903,885	421,991,694
Total	927,630,082	928,192,183	936,279,992
Military Affairs:			
Completion of armaments	78,850,503	78,847,812	78,825,450
Wars and incidents	2,133,933,501	2,401,918,002	2,597,756,246
Total	2,212,784,004	2,489,765,814	2,676,581,696
Development of New Territories:			
Taiwan	123,457,396	126,905,791	126,891,206
Chōsen	446,398,927	473,253,223	494,249,568
Karafuto	35,738,231	35,738,231	35,738,231
Kwantung Province	5,408,910	5,408,910	5,408,910
Total	611,003,464	641,306,155	662,287,915
Grand Total	8,139,038,392	9,090,454,022	9,854,300,639

AMOUNTS OF VARIOUS NATIONAL DEBTS OUTSTANDING

(March 31st)

Kind of Loan	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931
			(In yen)		
Internal Loans:					
5% Loans	632,322,450	806,341,325	1,105,714,500	1,316,605,700	1,327,160,875
5% Loan ("Kō")	419,547,550	419,535,600	419,401,550	417,389,050	402,929,000
5% Loan(Special)	120,847,000	120,837,600	120,821,650	120,820,600	120,818,100
5% Loan ("Onshi")	25,339,250	22,218,100	22,218,100	22,218,100	20,668,400
4% Loan (1st series)	170,946,600	170,419,850	169,592,100	169,367,900	166,538,950
4% Loan (2nd series)	96,481,150	96,124,000	95,922,550	95,784,350	95,159,350
4% Loan	—	—	—	—	—
5% Exchequer bonds	1,924,806,025	2,069,826,050	2,296,297,175	2,290,423,075	2,253,518,125
4½% Exchequer bonds	—	—	—	—	—
4% Exchequer bonds	—	—	—	—	—
Railway bonds	79,999,500	79,999,500	79,999,500	79,999,500	39,999,500
Special exchequer notes	240,286,800	159,171,450	69,998,575	—	—
Total	3,710,576,325	3,944,473,475	4,379,965,700	4,512,608,275	4,476,792,300

Kind of Loan	1927	1928	1929 (In yen)	1930	1931
External Loans:					
4% Sterling loan of 1899 (1st series)	91,352,391	91,338,723	91,337,747	91,337,746	91,337,746
4% Sterling loan of 1905 (2nd series)	234,823,972	230,558,126	228,909,351	228,906,227	—
5% Sterling loan of 1907	222,821,340	222,723,710	222,672,746	222,672,551	222,672,356
4% Franc loan of 1910 (issued in Paris)	170,354,110	169,573,918	169,367,454	169,321,014	169,070,432
4% Sterling loan of 1910 (3rd series)	105,489,996	105,429,661	105,429,661	105,429,661	105,428,684
6½% Gold bonds of 1924 (issued in New York)	275,117,082	272,537,968	272,347,398	269,447,525	269,447,525
6% Sterling loan of 1924	244,075,000	244,075,000	244,075,000	242,578,088	239,448,217
5½% Sterling loan of 1930	—	—	—	—	122,037,500
5½% Gold bonds of 1930 (issued in New York)	—	—	—	—	142,426,000
Sterling debenture of the South Manchuria Railway Company	117,156,000	117,156,000	117,156,000	117,156,000	117,156,000
Total	1,461,189,891	1,453,393,106	1,451,295,357	1,446,848,812	1,479,024,460
Grand Total	5,171,766,216	5,397,866,581	5,831,261,057	5,959,457,087	5,955,816,760

Kind of Loan	1932	1933	1934 (In yen)	1935	1936
Internal Loans:					
5% Loans	1,587,321,175	1,820,784,675	1,851,738,625	1,851,744,325	1,851,591,475
5% Loan ("Kō")	396,710,150	396,702,750	396,698,350	396,698,300	396,698,300
5% Loan (Special)	120,817,500	120,816,950	120,816,800	120,816,750	—
5% Loan ("Onshi")	17,406,700	17,406,700	17,406,700	17,406,700	17,406,700
4% Loan (1st series)	166,298,950	165,004,500	164,925,750	164,890,800	164,246,350
4% Loan (2nd series)	94,569,700	94,536,500	94,502,150	94,468,850	94,456,550
4% Loan	—	—	8,145,550	43,817,150	76,503,350
5% Exchequer bonds	2,331,954,025	2,333,501,900	2,330,749,150	2,230,761,725	2,136,113,225
4½% Exchequer bonds	—	715,000,000	715,000,000	715,000,000	715,000,000
4% Exchequer bonds	—	—	1,024,457,050	2,051,906,150	3,070,423,800
Railway bonds	—	—	—	—	—
Special exchequer notes	—	—	—	—	—
Total	4,715,078,200	5,663,753,975	6,724,440,125	7,687,510,750	8,522,439,750
External Loans:					
4% Sterilng loan of 1899 (1st series)	91,337,746	91,337,747	91,337,747	91,337,747	91,337,746
4% Sterling loan of 1905 (2nd series)	—	—	—	—	—
5% Sterling loan of 1907	222,672,356	222,670,989	222,670,989	222,669,818	222,669,818
4% Franc loan of 1910 (issued in Paris)	168,997,869	161,036,311	160,996,257	160,990,065	160,988,710
4% Sterling loan of 1910 (3rd series)	105,428,684	105,428,684	105,428,684	105,428,684	105,427,708
6½% Gold bonds of 1924 (issued in New York)	166,395,396	254,322,285	243,205,233	235,522,454	229,280,183
6% Sterling loan of 1924	236,127,723	232,605,037	228,866,833	224,901,981	220,695,690
5½% Sterling loan of 1930	122,037,500	122,036,524	122,036,524	122,036,524	121,110,406
5½% Gold bonds of 1930 (issued in New York)	142,426,000	142,426,000	142,426,000	142,426,000	141,298,628
Sterling debenture of the South Manchuria Railway Company	117,156,000	58,578,000	97,630,000	97,630,000	39,052,000
Total	1,472,579,274	1,390,441,577	1,414,598,267	1,402,943,272	1,331,860,889
Grand Total	6,187,657,474	7,054,195,552	8,139,038,392	9,090,454,022	9,854,300,639

Staté Property

(1) The Legal Definition and Categories of State Property.

State Property mentioned above is defined under Article 1 of the State Property Law, promulgated by Law No. 43 in April, 1921 as follows :

" The State Property under this Law includes all the State-owned real estate and such movable estate and rights belonging to the State as provided in the Imperial Ordinance."

Article 1 of the Imperial Ordinance No. 15 concerning the State Property Law defines, however, State movable estate and rights that are State Property in the following manner :

" The following State-owned movable estate and rights are to be State Property as provided in Article 1 of the State Property Law :

(a) Ships, floats, floating piers and floating docks.

(b) Appendages of real estate or movable estate given in (a).

(c) Machine and important equipment in Government factories such as iron works, shipbuilding yards, arsenals, the mint, tobacco mills and railways.

(d) Surface rights, servitudes, mining rights, alluvial mineral rights and other rights similar to these rights.

(e) Rights relating to stocks and investments.

The scope of the term " factory " under (c) above is to be determined by the respective Ministers after consultation with the Minister of Finance."

State-owned movable estate and rights, such as, cash, deposits, loans, common fixtures and books, for instance, not mentioned in the above provisions are therefore State Property in substance, but do not come under the provisions of this Law.

Article 2 of the State Property Law divides State Property into four classes, namely, Public Property, Official Property, Property used for Forestry Management and Miscellaneous Property. Public Property is that directly used or to be used for public service by the State; Official Property is that used or to be used, by the State, for Shinto Shrines, or for State service and enterprises or for residences of officials and other personnel ; Property used for Forestry Management is that used or to be used, by the State, for the management of forests, while Miscellaneous Property is that not belonging to these three categories.

(2) The Legal Limitation of the Content of the " State Property Account " and its Categories.

Article 26 of the State Property Law requires the Government to make a yearly statement of the increase or decrease in the State Property, and, every fifth year, to issue a comprehensive report covering the entire property for the period ; and both these statements are to undergo examination by the Auditing Board and then are to be presented to the Imperial Diet.

The following are, however, excluded from the statements :—

(a) Movable estate and rights owned by the State ; but not subject to the provisions of the Imperial Ordinance, that is, State Property in reality if not in law (Art. 1, State Property Law ; Art. 1, Imperial Ordinance concerning the State Property Law).

(b) State Property belonging to the Governments of Chōsen, Taiwan, Karafuto, Kwantung, and Nanyo (Mandated Territories in the South Pacific) in which the State Property Law has not yet been put into effect.

(c) Public Property (Art. 28, State Property Law).

(d) The value of lands used for religious purposes by Buddhist temples, the public land of public corporations and of sites of Shinto shrines (Art. 2 and 5, Ordinance No. 14, Department of Finance).

The figures given in the following table are based on these official statements of State Property, and accordingly, the total value of the property owned by the Imperial Japanese Government including State Property mentioned in (a)—(d) above will be much higher than the figures given in this table. With respect to the property mentioned in (b), however, we have stated the value on March 31, 1933 for purposes of reference. Recognizing that it is expedient to apply the State Property Law to these colonies, the Government is now making preparations therefor, and when this law is put into effect, the property in these regions will be included in the statements. Further, as there prevails an opinion that the value and volume of property mentioned in (c) and (d) should be given in the statements, they will in-

cluded therein in the near future.

(3) Administration of State Property.

The administrative service over State Property includes both direct management and general administration, the former under the direction of the respective Departments, the latter under the Minister of Finance. Each Minister administers the State Property of his Department; but the Minister of Finance also undertakes, as the competent Minister, the general management of all the Property and, thus, unifies the direct management by each Minister, keeping one in touch with the other, so as to secure the full use of the Property.

(4) The Increase or Decrease in State Property.

The increase in the total value of State Property is attributed to such factors as the purchase, expropriation and contribution of property, construction of buildings and ships, and the acquisition of rights (acquisition of real estate without owner, acquisition of stocks and of rights due to investment, establishment of surface rights, etc.), while the decrease in property is due to the sale, conveyance without compensation, exchange and collapse of property, and extinction of rights (extinctive prescription, reduction of capital, etc.). Moreover, the re-valuation of property made every fifth year causes an increase or decrease in the total value of State Property.

(5) The Funds from the Adjustment of State Property.

With the exception of receipts coming under other special accounts and those from the disposition of State forests and plains or of uncultivated places in the Hokkaidō, the receipts from the adjustment and disposition of State Property and other miscellaneous receipts constitute the Funds from the Adjustment of State Property and the revenue and expenditure are segregated in a Special Account.

These funds are transferred to the General Account and then, in addition to being used for building and repair and other expenditure necessary for the adjustment of State Property, are, in case of necessity, used for purposes other than those mentioned above in accordance with the Budget Estimates (Articles 1—4, Special Account Law for Funds from the Adjustment of State Property by Law No. 6, 1922; Exceptions in the Special Account Law for Funds from the Adjustment of State Property by Law No. 15, 1927).

The following are the statistics of revenue and expenditure in the Funds from the Adjustment of State Property for the financial years 1926–27 to 1936–37 :—

Financial Years	Revenue	Expenditure
	(In yen)	
1926–27	8,302,504	2,566,297
1927–28	12,904,110	15,228,282
1928–29	11,373,386	15,913,470
1929–30	9,349,573	9,102,751
1930–31	6,439,664	6,237,805
1931–32	4,870,211	5,963,898
1932–33	4,755,566	5,823,635
1933–34	5,973,512	6,198,998
1934–35	7,523,004	6,786,056
1935–36	5,629,495	5,629,267
1936–37	7,777,856	7,777,769

Note :—The figures for the financial years 1926–27 to 1934–35 represent the settled accounts, but those for 1935–36 and 1936–37 the budget estimates.

STATE PROPERTY

General Account

March 31st	Official Property	Property used for Forestry Management	Miscellaneous Property	Total	Inc. (+) or Dec. (—) as compared with preceding year.	Official Property
			(In yen)			
1926	2,345,934,333	1,559,339,958	364,312,137	4,269,586,429	+ 48,581,191	2,294,631,508
1927	2,563,625,800	1,785,919,572	380,276,840	4,729,822,213	+460,235,783	2,522,244,625
1928	2,617,192,682	1,795,825,964	385,461,617	4,798,480,264	+ 68,658,051	2,700,178,085
1929	2,737,794,793	1,784,353,468	392,494,216	4,914,642,478	+116,162,214	2,918,388,591
1930	2,840,813,702	1,793,045,341	383,121,552	5,016,980,596	+102,338,117	3,094,085,905
1931	2,916,676,775	1,782,178,124	384,622,880	5,083,477,781	+ 66,497,185	3,227,373,063
1932	2,974,318,652	1,384,436,336	361,723,578	4,720,478,566	—362,999,214	3,279,832,605

March 31st.	General Account: Official Property	Property used for Forestry Management	Miscellaneous Property	Total	Inc. (+) or Dec. (−) as compared with preceding year	Official Property
			(In yen)			
1933	3,079,326,852	1,375,325,433	384,653,842	4,839,306,128	+118,827,561	3,352,889,831
1934	3,242,826,050	1,374,297,419	696,066,882	5,313,190,353	+473,884,224	3,279,527,024
1935	2,896,185,956	1,371,906,691	703,450,479	4,971,543,127	−341,647,225	4,007,400,131

March 31st	Special Accounts: Miscellaneous Property	Total	Inc. (+) or Dec. (−) as compared with preceding year	Grand Total	Inc. (+) or Dec. (−) as compared with the total of preceding year
		(In yen)			
1926	6,599,063	2,301,230,572	+178,548,668	6,570,817,001	+227,129,859
1927	5,181,884	2,527,426,509	+226,195,937	7,257,248,723	+686,431,721
1928	4,753,346	2,704,931,432	+177,504,922	7,503,411,696	+246,162,973
1929	3,958,885	2,922,347,476	+217,416,044	7,836,989,955	+333,578,258
1930	319,474	3,094,405,380	+172,057,903	8,111,385,976	+274,396,022
1931	690,032	3,228,063,095	+133,657,714	8,311,540,876	+200,154,900
1932	190,171	3,280,022,777	+ 51,959,681	8,000,501,343	−311,039,533
1933	533,856	3,353,423,688	+ 73,400,911	8,192,729,816	+192,228,472
1934	330,052	3,279,857,076	− 73,566,611	8,593,047,429	+400,317,613
1935	378,898	4,007,779,029	+727,921,952	8,979,322,157	+386,274,727

Note:—

(1) The figures for 1926 were computed by adding the increase in the value of State property in each financial year to the appraised value of 1927; those for 1928 to 1931, by adding the increase in each financial year to the appraised value of 1927; and those for 1933 and 1934, by adding the increase in each financial year to the appraised value of 1932.

(2) The following are excluded from this table: (a) State movable estate and rights not provided in the Imperial Ordinance, (b) Public Property, (c) State property belonging to our colonial Governments, (d) lands used for religious purposes by Buddhist temples and sites of Shinto shrines, and (e) public land of public corporations.

Appendix—The value of State Property under the jurisdiction of our colonial Governments on March 31, 1935 is as follows:

	¥
Government of Chōsen	632,353,017
Government of Taiwan	303,091,213
Government of Karafuto	49,886,037
Government of Kwantung	158,677,055
Government of Nanyo (Mandated Territory in the North Pacific)	17,723,189
Total	1,161,730,512

Note:—This table indicates only the value of State-owned real estate and ships and their equipment, but excludes the value of Public Property.

CAPITAL AND EXPENDITURE FOR WAY AND WORKS OF THE IMPERIAL RAILWAYS

Compiled by the Department of Railways

Financial Year	Amount of Capital: Capital originally owned	Borrowed Capital	Total	Cost of Construction
		(In yen)		
1925–26	1,096,740,701	1,403,413,908	2,500,154,609	44,772,191
1926–27	1,220,626,875	1,468,042,741	2,688,669,616	47,953,430
1927–28	1,351,010,424	1,555,993,705	2,907,007,129	49,216,913
1928–29	1,481,689,821	1,627,399,566	3,109,089,387	51,824,496

Financial Year	Capital originally owned	Amount of Capital Borrowed Capital	Total	Cost of Construction
		(In yen)		
1929-30	1,580,497,834	1,704,668,059	3,285,165,893	68,906,647
1930-31	1,639,593,577	1,743,226,538	3,482,822,115	41,755,774
1931-32	1,672,757,628	1,789,564,996	3,462,322,624	37,706,907
1932-33	1,724,882,067	1,838,540,444	3,563,423,511	47,743,369
1933-34	1,802,811,650	1,879,614,749	3,682,426,399	53,130,133
1934-35	1,891,897,268	1,921,314,177	3,813,211,445	47,794,116

Financial Year	Expenditure for Way and Works (During the Year) Maintenance Expenses	Replenishment Expenses	Improvement Expenses	Total
		(In yen)		
1925-26	54,939,401	5,685,453	145,409,079	250,806,124
1926-27	58,073,541	5,442,503	153,274,029	264,743,503
1927-28	58,915,387	5,643,676	156,244,969	270,020,945
1928-29	62,804,064	5,357,227	139,634,863	259,620,650
1929-30	62,053,015	4,337,837	125,199,688	260,497,187
1930-31	56,373,653	3,382,422	66,735,913	168,207,762
1931-32	50,359,631	2,433,856	54,714,747	145,215,141
1932-33	50,053,720	2,420,590	51,991,055	152,208,734
1933-34	54,395,922	2,122,589	56,304,722	165,953,366
1934-35	67,632,642	3,936,208	67,662,895	187,025,861

ANNUAL REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF MUNICIPAL CORPORATIONS

Compiled by the Department of Home Affairs

Financial Year	Prefectures (Dō, Fu & Ken) Rates	Revenue Receipts from Other Sources	Total	Expenditure
		(In yen)		
1926-27	263,156,885	259,817,356	522,974,241	449,299,623
1927-28	248,820,435	296,848,724	545,669,159	492,214,055
1928-29	262,907,747	303,067,833	565,675,580	491,261,230
1929-30	264,801,968	281,123,097	545,925,065	489,489,861
1930-31	246,946,000	293,250,812	540,196,812	478,238,248
1931-32	221,939,715	317,361,600	539,301,315	502,572,907
1932-33	216,238,846	445,301,501	661,540,347	624,808,519
1933-34	228,474,081	540,273,770	768,747,851	717,465,740
1934-35	228,776,332	263,601,764	492,378,096	492,377,997
1935-36	240,106,780	269,751,500	509,858,280	509,858,280

Financial Year	Cities Rates	Revenue Receipts from Other Sources	Total	Expenditure
		(In yen)		
1926-27	111,430,604	706,472,845	817,903,449	644,418,221
1927-28	109,031,256	984,380,468	1,093,411,724	936,314,972
1928-29	115,079,602	854,669,992	969,749,594	841,725,457
1929-30	122,789,419	702,604,925	825,394,344	695,547,423
1930-31	118,842,669	777,745,926	896,588,595	776,350,757
1931-32	107,828,291	638,635,669	746,463,960	634,459,007
1932-33	114,401,486	727,830,121	842,231,607	730,395,466
1933-34	135,339,784	1,262,161,523	1,397,501,307	1,270,379,090
1934-35	144,512,165	695,859,493	840,371,658	840,114,529
1935-36	160,137,406	690,285,112	850,422,518	849,816,739

Financial Year	Towns and Villages Rates	Revenue Recemprits of Other Sources	Total	Expenditure	Grand Total Revenue	Expenditure
			(In yen)			
1926-27	279,233,090	291,891,716	571,124,806	500,279,574	1,912,002,496	1,593,997,417
1927-28	267,255.027	341,491,603	608,746,630	540,777,580	2,247,827,513	1,969,306,607
1928-29	278,728,831	342,463,671	621,192,502	560,821,930	2,156,917,676	1,893,808,617
1929-30	277,877,112	307,330,994	585,208,106	529,609,528	1,956,527,515	1,714,646,812
1930-31	236,613,665	319,862,726	556,476,391	498,147,570	1,993,261,798	1,752,736,575
1931-32	199,883,543	340,561,887	540,445,430	488,937,099	1,826,210,705	1,625,969,013
1932-32	190,413,816	403,724,407	594,138,223	543,723,528	2,097,910,177	1,898,927,513
1933-34	193,562,097	401,820,386	595,382,483	547,059,752	2,761,631,641	2,534,904,582
1934-35	209,169,312	251,206,975	460,376,287	460,139,857	1,793,126,041	1,792,632,383
1935-36	217,711,340	259,124,707	476,836,047	476,561,508	1,837,116,845	1,836,236,527

AMOUNT OF LOCAL LOANS

At the End of March:	Loans of Prefectures	Loans of Cities	Loans of Towns and Villages	Loans of Local Associations	Total
			(In yen)		
1926	282,474,591	839,746,474	115,699,399	30,022,266	1,267,942,730
1927	329,325,969	1,017,514,903	131,269,670	35,136,172	1,513,246,714
1928	379,438,509	1,258,941,727	167,541,244	38,512,710	1,844,434,190
1929	425,795,434	1,371,866,970	212,097,249	40,623,343	2,050,382,996
1930	482,412,880	1,461,953,003	235,736,724	41,600,732	2,221,703,339
1931	534,348,984	1,540,896,965	256,305,035	42,864,840	2,374,415,822
1932	580,128,337	1,596,468,423	312,832,386	45,656,761	2,535,085,907
1933	663,839,451	1,733,761,825	279,060,038	51,588,438	2,728,249,752
1934	777,904,944	1,811,629,352	315,988,269	51,949,772	2,957,472,337
1935	887,155,999	1,902,171,086	243,126,568	54,540,503	3,186,994,156

LOCAL LOANS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE OBJECTS FOR WHICH THEY WERE RAISED

At the End of March:	Education	Sanitation	Industry	Public Works	Electric and Gas Enterprises	Others	Total
				(In yen)			
1926	102,777,415	160,986,478	21,561,857	314,794,811	408,657,040	259,165,129	1,267,942,730
1927	134,658,132	179,972,577	35,254,216	410,821,882	472,695,554	279,844,353	1,513,246,714
1928	169,576,089	214,396,692	45,170,489	466,889,119	549,389,069	399,012,732	1,844,434,190
1929	172,175,166	272,205,502	76,434,895	477,916,392	554,372,027	497,279,014	2,050,382,996
1930	193,103,812	282,336,965	98,511,782	771,016,769	566,021,106	310,712,905	2,221,703,339
1931	190,245,777	303,243,092	150,843,417	608,427,103	573,817,298	547,839,137	2,374,415,824
1932	190,053,844	327,351,349	153,371,058	877,520,496	550,964,975	435,824,185	2,535,085,907
1933	196,998,634	339,401,324	217,526,766	985,904,107	587,528,519	400,890,402	2,728,249,752
1934	184,140,529	308,202,659	224,943,952	1,134,798,040	639,058,204	465,328,953	2,957,472,337
1935	228,588,440	332,840,041	240,469,600	1,013,619,650	671,907,841	699,568,584	3,186,994,156

LOANS OF CITIES ISSUED ABROAD OUTSTANDING MARCH 31, 1935

Cities	Loans	Amount issued	Amount redeemed	Amount outstanding
			(In yen)	
Tōkyō	Loan for Consolidation of Old Debts, Improvement of City, etc.	14,580,000	8,837,230	5,742,770
,,	Loan for Electric Enterprises	89,344,183	30,882,506	58,461,677
,,	Reconstruction Works Loan	99,982,213	8,557,678	91,424,535
Ōsaka	Harbour-works Loan	3,085,000	500,500	2,584,500
,,	Loan for Electric Railways and Water-works	30,220,000	12,308,000	17,912,000
Yokohama	Water-works Loan (2nd Series)	7,000,000	1,111,829	5,888,171
,,	6% Reconstruction Works Loan (Dollar)	39,602,388	5,536,990	34,065,398
Nagoya	Water-works Loan	7,816,000	5,275,800	2,540,200
Total		291,629,784	73,010,533	218,619,251

Deposits Bureau of the Department of Finance

Organization Although the Deposits Bureau of the Department of Finance has been in existence since 1877, it was only after many changes that the present system was established in 1925. The chief of this Bureau is under the control and supervision of the Minister of Finance and he is responsible for its activities and efficiency. Its finances are segregated in a Special Account and the Bureau is given control over the expenditure of its entire revenue. The chief business of the Bureau is not merely confined to the control of deposits, but also includes the investment and management of other funds. The deposits, which are made according to laws and ordinances, consist, for the most part, of postal savings deposits received by the Government; but the funds of the Deposits Bureau also include other deposits, reserves in the Special Account of the Deposits Bureau and surpluses. All business connected with receipt and payment of cash is transacted on behalf of the Bureau by the Bank of Japan in accordance with instructions from the Minister of Finance.

Investment of the Funds It is laid down by law that the funds of the Deposits Bureau are to be invested solely for the benefit of the State and the public in a profitable and safe manner, and that such investments are to be made only after investigation of their purposes and methods in consultation with the Committee on Investments of the Deposits Bureau. The following is an explanation of the nature of the Committee and the methods it employs.

This Committee consists of the following members: The Minister of Finance, as the chairman, the Parliamentary Vice-Minister of Finance, high officials of the Government Offices concerned, one of the Chief Auditors of the Auditing Board, the Governor of the Bank of Japan and other learned and experienced persons. The number of full members is not to exceed fifteen; but in order to meet special needs, temporary members may be appointed. The Committee is placed under the supervision of the Minister of Finance, and its function is to answer the questions of the Minister, after both investigation and study of matters relating to the investment of the funds of the Deposits Bureau. At the beginning of every fiscal year, the Minister of Finance is to draw up the necessary plan to govern the investment of the funds to submit it to this Committee, and the same process is to be undertaken should there be any occasion to supplement or to change this plan. In addition to answering the question of the Minister of Finance the Committee may send him proposals concerning the investment of the funds of the Deposits Bureau. The Minister should present to the Committee, after every fiscal year, a report stating particulars of important matters concerning conditions of investment of the funds of the Deposits Bureau and changes in the funds invested.

As mentioned above, the funds of the Deposits Bureau are to be invested for the benefit of the State and the public welfare in a profitable and safe manner. Consequently, in conformity with this principle, the investment of funds is to be limited to the following items:

(a) The subscription to, underwriting or purchasing of national loans or making of loans to the General or Special Accounts of the Government.

(b) The subscription to, underwriting or purchasing of local loans or health insurance association's loans or making of loans to local public corporations or health insurance associations.

(c) The subscription to, underwriting or purchasing of bonds issued by corporations organized under special laws or making of loans redeemable within a period not exceeding three years to these corporations.

(d) Loans to banks organized under special laws but not authorized to issue debentures.

(e) The subscription to and purchasing of foreign Government bonds.

(f) Deposits with the Bank of Japan to be held abroad for designated purposes.

These items only indicate the method of the investment of the funds and the question whether any particular investment is for the promotion of the benefit of the State or public welfare or whether it is profitable and safe is left to the joint consideration and decision of the Minister of Finance and this Committee.

The investment of the funds of the Deposits Bureau is determined, within the limits mentioned above, at the beginning of every fiscal year. The Deposits Bureau gives, at the end of March, 1936, the following figures of investment, classified according to purposes:

Items	(In thousands, of yen)	%
National loans	1,790,128	41.09
Loans to the General and Special Accounts	88,759	2.04
Local funds invested	1,917,794	44.02
Special advances	213,734	4.91
Funds held abroad	254	0
Cash	202,238	4.64
Others	143,597	3.30
Total	4,356,504	100.00

Local funds representing the funds to be invested for the benefit of local districts to local public corporations, various associations and individuals are advanced from the Deposits Bureau to the borrowers either directly or through special banks and similar institutions. These funds are allotted for the following purposes :—

A. Advances to be generally made every year for :

(a) Public utility undertakings of public corporations such as water supply works, prevention of disasters, sanitary arrangements, improvement of roads, rivers and harbours, road making and construction of bridges, reclamation works, construction of school-houses and teachers' dwelling-houses, electric and gas enterprises, and tramway, local railway and car enterprises.

(b) Social works such as housing reform and the establishment of public markets, public pawnshops, day nurseries and intelligence offices and others.

(c) Enterprises by various associations such as land adjustment associations, industrial associations, forestry associations, fishery associations, live-stock breeding associations, manufacturers' associations and commercial associations and those by federations of these associations.

B. Advances to be made for urgent needs :

Repair works of disasters, reconstruction works necessitated by the earthquake, accommodation to the silk-raising industry, the relief of the unemployed, and accommodation to middle and lower class merchants, manufacturers and farmers.

C. Advances to be made for :

Such institutions as public corporations and various associations in our colonies.

As to the rate of interest paid on the deposits, it is to be noted that the rate was reduced to 3 per cent per annum for the greater part of postal savings. The postal savings amount to about 73 per cent of the total amount of the funds of the Deposits Bureau and details are given in the Balance Sheet of the Deposits Bureau (Table No. 91). Other deposits are divided into two classes, namely, fixed deposits and ordinary deposits. The rate of interest on fixed deposits is in principle 3 per cent per annum, but the rate on deposits of such character that the depositing of cash is confined by laws and ordinances to the Deposits Bureau is 3.5 per cent. The rate on ordinary deposits is in principle 1.5 per cent per annum, while that on deposits of corporations other than public corporations is 1 per cent. These rates have been effective since October 1, 1932. On the other hand, the rate for the greater part of the local funds advanced before October 1, 1932 remains 4 1/5 per cent and that for the new advances made after that time is 3 1/5 per cent ; but when advances are made through banks and similar institutions, these intermediate institutions gain 7/10 per cent and the actual borrowers must pay at the rate of 4 4/5 per cent for the advances made before October 1, 1932 and 3 9/10 per cent for those after that time.

3. Plans approved in 1935.

Plans for the investment of funds to the amount of ¥555,100,000 were made in the fiscal year 1935. Of these, items involving more than 5 million yen each are as follows :

	¥
(a) Loans to public corporations and various associations	65,500,000
(b) Loans for repair works following disasters of 1934 (repair works for which Treasury grants have been made)	51,200,000
(c) Loans for repair works following disasters of 1934 (repair works for which no Treasury grants have been made)	8,000,000
(d) Loans for repair works following disasters of 1935	46,000,000
(e) Loans to public corporations and various associations for the conversion of high-interest loans	17,000,000
(f) Emergency loans for the relief of unemployment	22,000,000
(g) Loans for city planning	7,000,000
(h) Emergency loans for the silk-raising industry	20,000,000
(i) Loans for the purchase of fertilizers	10,000,000
(j) Loans to industrial associations as guaranteed by the Government	25,000,000

	¥
(k) Long-term investments of the funds carried forward, without being advanced, from the preceding years	64,000,000
(l) Loans for reconstruction works in Taiwan necessitated by the earthquake	6,130,000
(m) Emergency loans for the storage of rice in Chōsen	30,000,000
(n) Funds for underwriting national loans to be issued in 1935 and for purchases of loan bonds	150,000,000
(o) Funds for the purchase of national bonds of Manchoukuo	9,600,000

BALANCE SHEET OF THE DEPOSITS BUREAU, THE DEPARTMENT OF FINANCE

(At the end of March)

	1932	1933	1934
LIABILITIES		(In yen)	
Deposits:			
Postal Savings and Postal Transfer System	2,773,458,523	2,768,417,432	2,932,106,094
Proceeds of Reconstruction Savings Certificates	78,595,740	77,796,365	76,998,065
Surplus fund of Certain Special Accounts of the Government	181,584,268	293,257,488	325,559,863
Others	94,744,295	68,310,972	185,742,496
Reserves	284,549,662	279,224,775	348,641,626
Miscellaneous Receipts	166,718,564	243,741,052	204,629,596
Checks payable	319,725	569,687	531,922
Total	3,579,970,777	3,731,317,772	4,074,209,662
ASSETS			
Government Securities	1,019,753,083	1,137,080,988	1,566,497,655
Local Government and Municipal Securities	645,504,831	781,860,024	870,086,594
Debentures of the Hypothec Bank of Japan	407,674,536	418,866,912	396,059,279
Reconstruction Savings Certificates	3,806,682	3,718,225	3,631,918
Debentures of the Industrial Bank of Japan	45,573,500	50,632,416	49,771,950
Debentures of the Hokkaidō Colonization Bank	61,635,299	71,569,847	76,998,250
Debentures of Agricultural and Industrial Banks	90,198,259	110,651,311	142,267,962
Debentures of the South Manchuria Railway Co.	6,479,035	11,503,161	8,112,250
Debentures of the Oriental Development Co.	58,163,974	55,907,774	54,377,274
Debentures of the Chōsen Industrial Bank	75,200,300	85,214,500	93,243,200
Debentures of the Central Chest for Industrial Associations	41,419,000	59,503,000	64,411,000
Debentures of the Chōsen Credit Associations' Federation	—	—	—
8% Conversion Loan Bonds of the Chinese Government	2,245,770	2,245,770	2,245,770
Right to Receive the Chinese Government Bonds	8,820,685	8,820,685	8,820,685
North Manchuria Railway Purchase Bonds of Manchoukuo	—	—	—
Government Liability to Pay for the Principal and Interest of the 4% Chinese Government Bonds	20,947,260	19,266,061	17,584,861
Miscellaneous Advances	685,789,321	592,478,670	437,667,090
British Treasury Bills	6,985,502	2,532,255	5,359,610

	1932	1933 (In yen)	1934
Deposits with the Bank of Japan to be held Abroad for Designated Purposes	129,777,544	2,186,965	1,369,350
Deposits with the Bank of Japan to be held at Home for Designated Purposes	11,000,000	11,000,000	11,000,000
Cash	*101,277,892	170,554,251	143,702,111
Expenditures	157,718,304	135,724,957	121,002,852
Total	3,579,970,777	3,731,317,772	4,074,209,662

LIABILITIES	1935	1936 (In yen)	1937
Deposits:			
Postal Savings and Postal Transfer System	3,073,774,560	3,246,849,402	3,502,696,831
Proceeds of Reconstruction Savings Certificates	76,199,345	75,400,645	74,602,265
Surplus fund of Certain Special Accounts of the Government	359,824,716	333,868,426	—
Others	161,306,548	118,368,394	—
Reserves	392,884,577	460,877,085	548,354,150
Miscellaneous Receipts	212,242,909	235,745,117	246,067,641
Checks payable	470,929	420,080	—
Total	4,276,703,583	4,471,529,149	4,909,291,355

ASSETS			
Government Securities	1,717,600,455	1,790,127,929	2,133,881,314
Local Government and Municipal Securities	914,248,574	981,855,516	1,053,059,404
Debentures of the Hypothec Bank of Japan	358,868,938	318,581,350	280,852,148
Reconstruction Savings Certificates	3,572,327	3,506,787	—
Debentures of the Industrial Bank of Japan	47,375,460	48,546,200	48,747,702
Debentures of the Hokkaidō Colonization Bank	75,236,120	80,168,920	
Debentures of Agricultural and Industrial Banks	141,070,357	137,345,446	
Debentures of the South Manchuria Railway Co.	7,906,375	7,700,500	
Debentures of the Oriental Development Co.	51,687,574	46,102,900	
Debentures of the Chōsen Industrial Bank	95,710,000	59,272,100	502,071,266
Debentures of the Central Chest for Industrial Associations	84,291,000	86,575,072	
Debentures of the Chōsen Credit Associations' Federation	—	3,280,000	
8% Conversion Loan Bonds of the Chinese Government	2,245,770	2,245,770	
Right to Receive the Chinese Government Bonds	8,820,685	8,820,685	
North Manchuria Railway Purchase Bonds of Manchukuo	—	9,600,000	
Government Liability to Pay for the Principal and Interest of the 4% Chinese Government Bonds	15,903,662	14,222,463	12,541,263
Miscellaneous Advances	451,637,531	509,059,633	646,610,238
British Treasury Bills	—	—	—
Deposits with the Bank of Japan to be held Abroad for Designated Purposes	2,465,280	254,434	211,235
Deposits with the Bank of Japan to be held at Home for Designated Purposes	11,000,000	11,000,000	—
Cash	176,426,801	202,238,355	111,727,603
Expenditures	110,636,675	115,025,090	119,589,181
Total	4,276,703,583	4,471,529,149	4,909,291,355

Current deposits with the Bank of Japan.

PROFIT AND LOSS ACCOUNT OF THE DEPOSITS BUREAU, THE DEPARTMENT OF FINANCE

	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36
RECEIPTS			(In yen)		
Interest on securities	117,484,736	123,726,883	137,001,976	155,882,795	162,289,541
Interest on advances	28,768,398	28,115,942	22,395,790	11,477,401	14,477,755
Interest on deposits	4,675,742	5,322,668	468,080	463,436	469,460
Profits from the sale of securities	611,889	2,449,793	1,421,408	183,762	13,684,967
Profits from the redemption of securities	96,298	75,440	101,045	79,424	358,012
Premiums on securities	165,274	172,674	203,176	193,354	184,834
Commission for the sale or Purchase of securities	3,752	2,294	4,284	3,122	3,446
Receipts from the Government for the principal and interest of the 4% Chinese Government bonds	1,499,093	2,164,417	2,164,417	2,164,417	2,164,417
Transferred from General Account	—	1,116,686	3,147,148	2,830,876	1,981,379
Profits from the disposal of the specie held abroad	7,911	43,582,149	214,820	7,544,532	7,101,125
Miscellaneous profits	28	116	114	610	267
Payments by officials under the Pension Law	312	520	1,148	1,604	2,436
Total	153,313,433	206,729,763	167,123,404	180,825,334	203,744,639
PAYMENTS					
Administrative expenses	99,145	255,212	507,920	560,438	645,574
Interest on deposits	117,789,529	127,267,519	112,597,322	102,032,252	105,433,259
Commissions paid for the services rendered by the Bank of Japan	135,938	159,637	144,408	158,843	155,682
Losses in investment	1,651	40	84	99	26
Amount transferred to other Government accounts for Postal Savings Service	9,630,000	9,630,000	9,630,000	10,080,000	10,030,000
Contributions under the Pension Law	177	442	658	523	1,151
Other payments	—	—	—	328	498
Depreciation	30,981,880	63	61	342	1,384
Transfers to or supplements by reserves	* 5,324,887	69,416,851	44,242,951	67,992,508	87,477,065
Total	153,313,433	206,729,763	167,123,404	180,825,334	203,744,639

* In 1931-32, supplemented by reserves.

Japan's National Wealth

The national wealth of Japan proper of for 1930, the most recent date for this kind of investigation, was estimated at ¥110,188,000,000, according to the Cabinet Statistics Bureau. This included the following :

	(Estimates in Thousands of Yen)
Land	41,091,348
Mines	6,499,651
Ports, harbours and canals	343,143
Bridges	483,000
Trees	6,706,815
Live-stock and poultry	346,356
Buildings	22,843,300
Industrial machines and apparatus	1,809,381
Railways and tramways (street cars)	3,598,138
Vehicles and aeroplanes	660,294
Shipping	2,060,236
Electric and gas supply equipment	1,905,044
Telegraph and telephone equipment	196,102

	(Estimates in Thousands of Yen)
Waterworks equipment	352,779
Property in store:	18,847,310
Household property	12,473,201
Manufactures	5,457,466
Coins and gold and silver bullion	916,643
Miscellaneous	2,250,515
Balance of Japan's foreign credit and debt	191,592
Total	110,188,004

The total is classified into Government property 12 per cent, public property 4 per cent and private property 84 per cent. Land, buildings, trees and mines combined make a total of 81 per cent in all. Manufactured goods, railways and tramways, shipping, electric and gas equipment and industrial machines and tools combined make a total of 13 per cent. The remainder is 6 per cent. The national wealth for 1930 per household was ¥8,672 and per capita was ¥1,710. The change of national wealth, investigated by Mr. Hideomi Takahashi, a statistical authority in Japan, follows :

Time of	Year	National wealth (in millions of yen)
Arrival of "Black Ships"	1851	5,085
Sakuradamon Murder Incident	1860	5,769
Meiji Restoration	1868	6,818
Abolition of feudal clans and establishment of prefectural government	1873	7,317
Satsuma Rebellion	1877	8,571
Promulgation of Imperial Constitution	1889	13,043
Sino-Japanese War	1894	16,667
Russo-Japanese War	1904	22,742
First Year of Taisho Era	1912	37,524
	1921	93,026
June,	1924	101,978
March,	1925	105,742

A Survey on the Formation of the 1937–38 National Budget and Local Finance

1937–38 National Budget

Quasi-war Time System The Hirota Cabinet decided and announced seven national policies containing 14 items on August 25, 1936. These included (1) perfection of national defence, (2) renovation and improvement of the educational system, (3) adjustment of the central and local taxation systems, (4) stabilization of national livelihood, (5) promotion of industry and expansion of trade, (6) establishment of major policies toward Manchuria, and (7) adjustment and improvement of the administrative system.

For the stabilization of national livelihood, mention was made of measures to prevent natural calamities, expand public sanitary facilities, effect an economic rehabilitation of the agricultural, mountain and fishing villages and promote medium-size and small-scale industry and commerce. In connection with the promotion of industry and the expansion of trade, six items were enumerated including (a) strengthening of the control of the electricity industry, (b) attainment of self-sufficiency in liquid fuel, iron and steel, (c) securing of fibrous resources, (d) encouragement and control of trade, (e) promotion of air and maritime transportation business, and (f) facilitation of the overseas expansion of Japanese. With reference to the establishment of major policies towards Manchuria, special mention was made of emigration and investments.

Budget Estimates New demands of the various sections of the Government in connection with the budget estimates for the 1937–38 fiscal year were naturally made in line with the aforementioned policies. All the new demands were presented to the Department of Finance by the end of September. They totalled ¥1,570,000,000, including ¥480,000,000 for the Army and ¥340,000,000 for the Navy, besides ¥223,000,000 as grants for adjusting local finances. As the basic budget amounted to ¥1,860,000,000, the total estimates reached upwards of ¥3,400,000,000.

The Department of Finance immediately commenced its task of examining and revising the estimates, first dealing with the demands of the administrative sections of the Government and then with those of the defence services. The attitude taken by the Department was more generous than usual and on November 27 the Cabinet Council approved of the budget estimates as revised by the Finance Department amounting to some ¥3,040,000,000.

As regards receipts, the budget estimates included ¥417,500,000 as increased income available from the execution of the proposed taxation reform, ¥35,200,000 as increased customs revenue available from a tariff revision, ¥8,400,000 as receipts available from the imposition of the proposed trade statistics tax and export control tax, ¥25,400,000 as increased income available from raising the prices of tobacco, ¥61,800,000 as an amount transferable from the Special Accounts, and ¥10,000,000 as an amount transferable from the fund of the Deposits Bureau through lowering the interest rates on postal savings. In addition, it was decided to issue a total amount of ¥800,000,000 worth of deficit-covering public loan bonds.

Policy Followed In Compiling Budget In compiling the budget estimates for the 1937–38 fiscal year, the Government laid stress upon its cognizance of the necessity of making various important establishments in order to promote the national prosperity of the Japanese Empire and to stabilize the living of the people at large, in view of the prevailing conditions both at home and abroad, and with the consummation of the Government's policies as mentioned in paragraph 1 above, as the basis.

The Government further announced that a decision was reached to concentrate the appropriations for the 1937–38 fiscal year as much as possible upon the execution of the various major national policies as enumerated above and at the same time to seek for as many sources of more ordinary revenue as possible, thus consolidating the financial foundation of the nation. Further details of the policy followed in the compilation of the budget estimates were given as follows :

1. To adjust the central and local taxation systems and to raise the prices of tobacco, besides reforming the tariff system.

2. To give greater consideration to adjustment of the mutual relations of the ordinary and special accounts.

3. To calculate expenses urgently needed for the perfection of national defence.

4. To calculate grants for adjustment of local finances.

5. To calculate expenses required for necessary preparations for effecting the proposed extension of the term of compulsory education to 8 years in the 1938–39 fiscal year.

6. To include expenses for the establishment of various facilities aiming at the economic rehabilitation of the agricultural, mountain and fishing villages, besides effecting an improvement of the system concerning liquidation of the debts of the rural community. Among such facilities were mentioned those for improvement of the farm land system, stabilization of prices of silk, storing of ammonium sulphate, fishing boats insurance and forest fire insurance.

7. To include expenses for encouragement of medium-size and small-scale commerce and industry. Diversification of the locations of factories and enlargement of old facilities and establishment of new ones for facilitating the development of medium-size and small-scale industry and commerce were mentioned.

8. To include expenses for river improvement works and other facilities aiming at the prevention of floods.

9. To calculate expenses for the establishment of public health stations, creation of a public health insurance system, establishment of medical facilities in villages hitherto without doctors, enlargement of facilities for the prevention of tuberculosis, spread of relief as provided for in the Relief Law and expansion of military relief facilities.

10. To calculate expenses for extending financial facilities to the mass of the people, as a means of assisting in the stabilization of national livelihood together with the various facilities mentioned in the foregoing four paragraphs.

11. To place the electricity industry under State control, create an Imperial Fuel Industrial Company, exploit oil resources both at home and abroad, encourage the production of synthetic petroleum, encourage the utilization of inferior ores and iron sands, attain self-sufficiency in wool, establish laboratories related to the fibrous and machinery industries, expand the scope of the export compensation system, grant subsidies for compensation for imports, create an aeronautical research institute, encourage shipping services along foreign routes and encourage the construction of superior ships. In addition, a fundamental revision of the system of extending subsidies relative to loans for shipbuilding was mentioned.

12. To calculate expenses for making payments on the South Manchuria Railway Company's shares in the hands of the Government, besides establishment of a definite policy concerning the emigration of Japanese nationals to Manchuria.

Expenses for Execution of National Policies Of the estimates newly calculated in the budget for the 1937–38 fiscal year, a total amount of ¥1,068,091,000 was earmarked for the execution of national policies. Details follow :

For perfection of national defence	¥692,197,000
For renovating educational system	1,453,000
For adjusting central and local taxation systems	237,192,000
For promoting industry and trade	57,745,000
For strengthening control of electricity industry	1,143,000
For attaining self-sufficiency in liquid fuel	23,395,000
For stabilization of national livelihood	54,602,000
For prevention of natural calamities	20,125,000
For expanding public health and relief facilities	10,167,000
For rehabilitating agricultural, mountain and fishing villages and promoting medium-size and small-scale commerce and industry	24,310,000
For establishing important policies toward Manchuria	24,900,000
For encouraging emigration and overseas investments	24,900,000
For attaining self-sufficiency in iron and steel	¥1,003,000
For securing fibrous resources	2,822,000
For encouragement and control of trade as well as revision of tariffs	12,006,000
For promotion of aviation enterprises	9,429,000
For promotion of maritime transportation enterprises	3,973,000
For encouraging overseas expansion of Japanese	4,970,000
Total	1,068,091,000

Note: The figures for the perfection of national defence in the above table are based on the presumption that the newly increased estimates for both the War and Navy Ministries are to be used for perfecting the national defence.

Revenue and Expenditure in General Accounts Details of the general accounts of the budget estimates for the 1937–38 fiscal year are tabulated as follows :

REVENUE

		Increase over Preceding Year
Ordinary items	¥2,014,997,000	¥564,938,000
Extraordinary items	1,023,584,000	168,069,000
Receipts from ordinary sources	221,131,000	69,454,000
Receipts from issue of public loan bonds	802,452,000	98,614,000
Total	3,038,581,000	733,007,000

EXPENDITURE

		Increase over Preceding Year
Ordinary items	¥1,700,910,000	¥340,178,000
Extraordinary items	1,337,671,000	386,886,000
Total	3,038,581,000	727,064,000

ORDINARY ITEMS OF REVENUE

		Increase over Preceding Year
Taxes	¥1,420,077,000	¥496,775,000
Income tax	525,901,000	294,445,000
Land tax	58,398,000	110,000 (dec.)
Business profits tax	71,164,000	9,314,000
Tax on capital interest	31,361,000	16,722,000
Property tax	20,000,000	20,000,000

		Increase over Preceding Year
Inheritance tax	¥33,297,000	¥690,000
Mining tax	6,904,000	2,626,000
Special tax on foreign currency loan bonds	5,352,000	5,352,000
Liquors tax	223,270,000	13,750,000
Tax on table waters	4,139,000	429,000
Sugar excise	121,411,000	34,116,000
Textile excise	49,234,000	6,483,000
Tax on volatile oils	14,913,000	14,913,000
Tax on bourses	20,210,000	5,368,000
Exchange proceeds tax	30,250,000	30,250,000
Customs duties	196,038,000	38,026,000
Tonnage dues	2,948,000	115,000
Trade statistics tax	4,280,000	4,280,000
Stamp revenue	99,061,000	19,451,000
Receipts from public undertakings and Government property	342,796,000	50,391,000
Profits of monopoly bureau	252,141,000	50,245,000
Dividend receipts	28,958,000	345,000 (dec.)
Receipts from forests	45,480,000	927,000 (dec.)
Prisons' receipts	11,249,000	1,398,000
Other miscellaneous receipts	4,966,000	21,000
Receipts from Special Account for Communications	81,000,000	—
Receipts from the Bank of Japan	13,087,000	7,672,000 (dec.)
Miscellaneous receipts	51,478,000	5,146,000
Total	2,007,499,000	544,640,000
Transferred from Special Account of funds for educational improvement and agrarian development	7,495.000	846,000

EXTRAORDINARY ITEMS OF REVENUE

		Increase over Preceding Year
Proceeds of sale of Government property	¥6,495,000	¥10,148,000 (dec.)
Miscellaneous receipts	41,936,000	25,389,000
Receipts from public bodies on public works	7,550,000	142,000
Allotment of public bodies for enterprises	11,396,000	755,000
Receipts for encouragement of scientific researches	26,000	7,000,000
Transferred from Special Accounts	10,816,000	1,181,000 (dec.)
Payments by insurance companies	3,162,000	358,000 (dec.)
Receipts for export compensations	1,202,000	406,000
Contribution by Manchoukuo to national defence funds	19,500,000	5,000,000 (dec.)
Tax on extraordinary profits	43,173,000	1,085,000
Export control tax	3,983,000	3,983,000
Receipts from Special Accounts for ordinary revenue	71,890,000	54,390,000
Total	221,131,000	69,454,000
Receipts from issue of public loan bonds	802,452,000	98,614,000

The following is a table showing the shares of the various Departments in the budget estimates for the 1937–38 fiscal year, the figures being given in units of ¥1,000 :

Departments	Ordinary Expenses 1937–38 Fiscal Year	Ordinary Expenses Compared with Preceding Year's Working Budget	Extraordinary Expenses 1937–38 Fiscal Year	Extraordinary Expenses Compared with Preceding Year's Working Budget
Imperial Household	4,500	—	—	—
Foreign Affairs	18,255	976	18,013	3,390
Home Affairs	283,322	226,310	139,770	12,253(dec.)
Finance	490,782	23,216	79,345	51,003
War	217,804	26,896	510,161	192,752
Navy	273,953	37,201	407,700	92,621
Justice	39,445	2,772	3,561	840
Education	133,421	2,144	13,333	1,804
Agriculture and Forestry	43,792	10,680	81,731	18,422
Commerce and Industry	6,766	825	35,645	22,640
Communications	185,588	4,074	25,709	10,684
Overseas Affairs	2,277	85	22,198	3,958
Total	1,700,910	340,178	1,337,671	386,886

Details of the Manchurian Incident expenses and the exchange losses are tabulated below :

Manchurian Incident Expenditure	¥285,092,000
Share of Foreign Office	3,088,000
Share of Finance Office (appropriated from 1st reserve)	2,000,000
Share of War Office	269,613,000
Share of Navy Office	10,389,000
Exchange Losses	71,258,000
Exchange loss in international payments on principal and interest of national loans	55,583,000
Exchange loss arising from increase in foreign service allowances and in cost of supplies, etc.	11,752,000
Other exchange losses	3,822,000

Adjustment of General and Special Accounts Various special accounts have in recent years been showing more than satisfactory conditions. This, coupled with the decrease in the payments on interest of national bonds brought about by the conversion of bonds bearing high interest into bonds bearing low interest—payments which are made out of special accounts, combines with the anticipated increase in the receipts for the special accounts following the realization of the proposals to raise the postal charges and to reform the taxation system in giving rise to an expectation that there will be surplus funds in the special accounts. Accordingly, the Government decided to adjust the relations between the general and special accounts by assigning a considerable amount of such surplus funds in the special accounts to the sources of revenue for the general accounts and increasing the share of the special accounts in the sinking fund so as to reduce a similar share of the general accounts. Further, the Government decided to transfer an annual amount of ¥10,000,000 from the special account of the Deposits Bureau to the general accounts for establishing facilities for promoting social welfare.

The following is a table showing details of the amounts transferable from the various special accounts to the general accounts, the figures being given in units of ¥1,000 :

Special Accounts	For Increasing Revenue for General Accounts	For Reducing Outlays from General Accounts Contribution to Sinking Fund		Total Amount Transferred
Deposits Bureau	10,000	—	—	10,000
Kwantung Bureau	1,500	102	—	1,602
Communications	12,640	2,544	—	15,184
Railways	30,000	15,020	—	45,020
Chosen	9,450	3,956	—	13,386
Taiwan	5,250	991	—	6,241
Karafuto	1,950	290	1,000	3,240
South Seas	1,100	—	—	1,100
Total	71,890	26,886	1,000	95,776

Substance of Budget

Concern over Digestion of Budget The rapid increase in the budget has been accelerating financial inflation. The increase in the estimates of the defence services to the enormous figure of ¥1,400,000,000 has stimulated the munitions boom, and has given rise to the question as to whether the productive capacity of the nation, as it now stands, will be able to digest the tremendous military budget smoothly or not.

It is generally considered unavoidable that the imports of materials and manufactures related to munitions will increase, thereby aggravating the balance of the nation's foreign trade while the accelerated financial inflation will send the prices of commodities soaring. At the same time, the proposed taxation reform and other projected laws concerning industrial circles, if realized, will cause violent changes in business circles, and accounts for the adverse criticism of the plans form interested quarters.

Under these circumstances, it is feared that a further increase in taxes and the issue of additional public loan bonds will become inevitable in course of time. This fear is so strong that all the interested quarters appeared to put no confidence at all in the statement issued by Finance Minister Eiichi Baba that there would be no further increase in taxes and that the limit of public loan bonds to ¥1,000,000,000 would be strictly observed.

Rapid Increase in Military Budget The estimates for the Department of War for the 1937–38 fiscal year amounted to ¥720,000,000, which represented an increase of ¥210,000,000 over similar figures for the preceding fiscal year.

Details of the estimates for the Department of War for the 1937–38 fiscal year are tabulated below, the figures being given in units of ¥1,000 :

	Ordinary Items	Extraordinary Items	Manchurian Incident Expenses	Total
Amount fixed previously	216,399	119,639	—	336,038
Balance of new items	1,404	120,908	269,613	391,926
Increased amount	18,170	122,111	269,613	409,894
For strengthening military establishments in Manchuria	—	—	234,728	234,728
For perfecting air forces	9,216	58,087	34,885	102,188
For improving military equipment	5,530	19,210	—	24,741
For augmenting war materials	—	40,000	—	40,000
Decreased Amount	16,765	1,202	—	17,968
Due to strengthening of military establishments in Manchuria	16,443	941	—	17,385
Due to averaging actual expenses during preceding three years	25	18	—	44
Due to other factors	296	242	—	538
Total	217,804	240,547	269,613	727,965

The estimates for the Department of the Navy amounted to ¥680,000,000, gaining by ¥130,000,000 over similar figures in the working budget for the preceding 1936–37 fiscal year. Of this amount, ¥430,000,000 formed the basic expenditure of the Department while ¥180,000,000 was the final portion of the continuation expenditure required by the second naval replenishment programme. The remainder included ¥250,000,000 as new demands, of which ¥150,000,000 formed the first portion of the continuation expenditure required by the third naval replenishment programme calling for the construction of capital ships for replacements as well as the contruction of auxiliary vessels and augmentation of naval air forces.

In this connection, it is to be noted that the construction of capital ships is undertaken for the first time since the Washington Conference, to mark the first year of the non-treaty era arising from the expiration of the Washington and London Naval Treaties. The authrities of the Navy Department, however, made it known that in effecting the construction of capital ships, special care will be taken lest this nation should be involved in a naval building race with the United States and Great Britain.

Change to Yuki Policy The Hirota Government resigned en bloc shortly after the resumption of the 70th session of the Imperial Diet following the New Year's recess and was succeeded by the

Hayashi Cabinet on February 2, 1937. This political change also meant a change from the policy of Finance Minister Eiichi Baba to the policy of Mr. Toyotaro Yuki who assumed the Finance portfolio of the new cabinet. The new Finance Minister undertook to revise those points of the Baba policy which aimed at radical changes and withdrew the budget estimates from the Diet. By extending the period of prorogation of the Diet until February 15, the new Government examined the estimates and decided to postpone the appropriation of a certain amount in the estimates because a fundamental revision was technically impossible.

Simultaneously, Finance Minister Yuki liquidated the Baba plan for a reform of the taxation system and instead drafted a proposal to increase certain taxes preliminary to the formulation of a basic reform plan based on his advocacy for a gradual advance. Accordingly, the grants for adjusting local finances, as calculated in the budget estimates compiled by the Hirota Cabinet, were dropped in favour of the inclusion of an extraordinary item of similar nature amounting ¥70,000,000.

The postponement of appropriations, which was decided in the form of an understanding among the Cabinet Ministers, is explained by the following figures :

Items	Original Estimates	Amount Not To Be Appropriated	Balance
Civil List	¥4,500,000	—	¥4,500,000
Foreign Affairs	36,000,000	¥2,600,000	33,400,000
Home Affairs	423,000,000	162,000,000	261,000,000
Finance	570,000,000	25,600,000	544,400,000
War	727,000,000	23,000,000	704,000,000
Navy	681,000,000	23,000,000	658,000,000
Justice	43,000,000	800,000	42,000,000
Education	146,000,000	1,700,000	144,300,000
Agriculture and Forestry	126,000,000	10,800,000	115,200,000
Commerce and Industry	42,000,000	15,500,000	26,500,000
Communications	211,000,000	2,900,000	208,100,000
Overseas Affairs	24,000,000	700,000	23,300,000
Total	3,038,000,000	269,100,000	2,769,400,000

The understanding among the Cabinet Ministers also concerned a reduction of the revenue estimates as follows :

	Original Estimates	Amount of Reduction	Balance
Receipts from Issue of Public Loan Bonds	¥802,400,000	¥77,000,000	¥725,400,000
General Receipts	2,236,100,000	192,100,000	2,044,000,000
Total	3,038,500,000	269,100,000	2,769,400,000

As a result of the revision effected by the new Finance Minister and the understanding reached among the members of the new Cabinet, the budget estimates for the 1937-38 fiscal year were reduced by ¥269,100,000 to ¥2,769,400,000, as shown in the foregoing table. The reduced amount in the expenses included ¥150,000,000 in the grants to local finances and ¥119,000,000 in the various items for all sections of the Government, except the Departments of the Navy and War which agreed to postpone appropriations totalling ¥23,000,000.

In connection with the revenue estimates, the extraordinary taxation increase plan of Finance Minister Yuki provided a total amount of ¥292,000,000, compared with ¥475,000,000 as provided by his predecessor's taxation reform formula, and included ¥230,300,000 as increased taxes, ¥39,200,000 as new taxes and ¥22,500,000 as increased customs duties. At the same time, Minister Yuki changed the percentage of reduction to be effected in the interest rates for postal savings from the original 0.36 to 0.24 per cent, which meant a reduction in the amount of transfer from the Special Accounts of between ¥4,000,000 and ¥6,000,000. The receipts calculated as available from the issue of public loan bonds were also reduced by ¥77,000,000 to ¥726,000,000 or to ¥869,000,000 when the Special Accounts are taken into consideration.

From the standpoint of actuality, the reduction in the Special Accounts total-

led ¥18,000,000 in expenditure, including ¥4,000,000 for Chōsen, ¥2,000,000 for Taiwan, ¥200,000 for the Kwantung Bureau, ¥400,000 for Karafuto, ¥100,000 for the South Seas, ¥3,300,000 for railways and ¥6,800,000 for communications. The reduction in the amount of loan issue for the Special Accounts totalled ¥12,000,000, including ¥5,000,000 for railways and ¥7,000,000 for communications.

Conversion of Loans Immediately following his assumption of the post of Finance Minister, Mr. Eiichi Baba announced that he would abandon the policy of his predecessors, Messrs. Fujii and the late Takahashi, for a gradual reduction of public loan bonds and would adopt a policy for low money rates. This announcement broke the stagnation which had existed in the money market since the last days of the Takahashi policy and the various banks in Tokyo resumed their activities in purchasing public loan bonds in the hands of the Bank of Japan.

On March 19, 1936 the Department of Finance announced the terms for the fiscal-year-end issue of public bonds, raising the issue prices and shortening the terms, and at the same time caused the Bank of Japan to suspend its sale of bonds bearing an interest of 4 per cent. In spite of the suspension of such sale, speculative buying characterized the dealings in newly issued bonds with the result that the Bank of Japan was ordered to discontinue selling newly issued bonds as well. This, of course, is attributable to the anticipation for the conversion of high-interest bonds into low-interest bonds.

Availing himself of the opportunity provided by the new developments, Finance Minister Eiichi Baba on April 17, the same day that the Banks of Japan decided to reduce its discount rates and the various banks resolved to lower their interest rates for deposits, announced his decision to convert the public loan bonds bearing an interest of 5 per cent. The first batch of bonds thus converted amounted to ¥380,000,000. The interest rate for the new bonds was 3.5 per cent, the issue price and term being ¥98 and 12 years respectively.

The following is a table showing details of the conversion of bonds effected by Finance Minister Baba :

Date of Conversion	Amount Converted	Amount Newly Issued	Percentage of Conversion
May 1, 1936	¥373,439,000	¥381,000,000	90
June 1 ,,	407,590,000	413,000,000	91
July 15 ,,	352,251,000	361,000,000	96
August 15 ,,	582,252,000	597,000,000	95
September 15 ,,	422,279,000	400,000,000	100

Note: A total sum of ¥32,000,000 was appropriated out of the sinking fund for the redemption of a portion of the bonds offered to conversion on September 15, 1936.

Thus, the long outstanding question of converting the bonds bearing an interest of 5 per cent was settled with ease by Finance Minister Baba under the favourable influence of the low-interest policy. Through the conversion, the burden of the National Treasury for paying interest on bonds was reduced by ¥29,000,000, as shown in the following table :

	Interest on Old Bonds	Interest on New Bonds	Decrease
General Accounts	¥45,661,000	¥32,666,000	¥12,994,000
Special Accounts	59,486,000	42,673,000	16,812,000
Chosen	10,318,000	7,403,000	2,913,000
Taiwan	2,321,000	1,666,000	655,000
Kwantung Bureau	7,000	5,000	2,000
Karafuto	739,000	531,000	208,000
Railways	36,741,000	26,349,000	10,391,000
Communications	9,356,000	6,716,000	2,640,000
Total	105,147,000	75,340,000	29,806,000

The national loan bonds remaining unredeemed at the end of the 1936–37 fiscal year, totalled ¥10,395,205,000 which represented an increase of ¥814,314,000 over similar figures recorded at the end of the preceding year. The amount of national bonds to be issued for the 1937–38 fiscal year is just below the ¥1,000,000,000 level at ¥961,000,000. In the course of a Cabinet meeting, Finance

Minister Baba was quoted as stating that the Department of Finance expected to follow a policy of limiting the annual amount of loan issues to ¥1,000,000,000 at the most during the following five fiscal years and reducing the amount to the ¥800,000,000 level for the 1942–43 fiscal year and to the ¥700,000,000 level for the 1943–44 fiscal year. The Minister was further quoted as stating that there would be no further increase in taxes following the 1937–38 fiscal year. In spite of the Minister's statement, however, the prevailing conditions were such that there existed a strong fear of further taxation increases and a rapid increase in loan issues.

Details of the loan issues scheduled for the 1937–38 fiscal year are shown in the following table :

GENERAL ACCOUNTS

Reconstruction works loan	¥7,000,000
Roads construction loan	11,000,000
Manchurian Incident loan	265,000,000
Deficit-covering loan	521,000,000
Total	806,000,000

SPECIAL ACCOUNTS

Communications loan	43,000,000
Railways loan	47,000,000
Chosen loan	65,000,000
Total	155,000,000
Grand Total	961,000,000

Settlement of Accounts The accounts for the 1935–36 fiscal year, which were closed at the end of July, 1936, show that the total expenditure amounted to ¥2,206,000,000 and the total revenue to ¥2,259,000,000. In the revenue, receipts in taxes and stamp duties totalled ¥970,000,000 which represented an all-time high in the financial history of the nation, with a particularly remarkable increase being recorded for income tax and customs duties. A decrease was recorded by the liquors tax as compared with similar figures for the preceding fiscal year. Those items of the taxation revenue which failed to reach the estimated figures included liquors tax (short of ¥3,000,000), tax or bourses (short of ¥1,700,000) and excess profits tax (short of ¥4,000,000). The payment by the Bank of Japan also decreased on account of a decrease in the bank's profits from the sale of public loan bonds.

The closed accounts further show that the amount of loans issued was ¥678,000,000 or ¥93,000,000 less than scheduled, which was attributed to an advance of the natural increase in revenue. The net surplus for the 1935–36 fiscal year amounted to ¥1,900,000 as compared with ¥4,400,000 for the preceding year, while the expenditure also fell ¥98,000,000 short of the estimated amount. Detailed figures are tabulated as follows :

	Settled Accounts for 1935–36 Fiscal Year
Revenue	¥2,259,321,000
Ordinary items	1,405,426,000
Extraordinary items	853,894,000
General receipts	91,546,000
Proceeds of public Bonds	678,370,000
Transfer from surplus carried over from preceding year	83,977,000
Expenditure	2,206,477,000
Ordinary items	1,268,992,000
Extraordinary items	937,485,000
Balance	52,843,000

1936–37 Local Finances

Statistics for the local finances during the 1936–37 fiscal year showed a total amount of ¥1,918,269,000 in expenditure and of ¥1,919,000,000 in revenue. The expenditure increased by ¥59,760,000 and the revenue by ¥59,570,000 as compared with the estimates at the beginning of the fiscal year.

The increase in expenditure was particularly notable in the case of public works, the expenses of which were ¥24,590,000 greater than estimated. Next came the educational expenses with an increase of ¥22,240,000 enterprise encouragement expenses with ¥7,650,000 city planning expenses with ¥6,480,000, public office expenses with ¥6,120,000 and electric and gas enterprise expenses with ¥5,130,000. The amount of local bonds issued during the year showed a remarkable decrease by ¥43,480,000 under the influence of the conditions brought about by the conversion of high-interest bonds into low-interest bonds in the preceding year.

The increase in revenue included ¥35,940,000 for taxation receipts and ¥23,620,000 for other incomes. This is generally regarded as reflecting the increased economic activities. Principal items of the increased revenue were the household tax which increased by ¥11,240,000, the business profits surtax by ¥7,340,000, the surtax on income tax by ¥5,790,000, and miscellaneous taxes and their surtaxes by ¥5,740,000. Rents and commissions also increased together with

public donations as well as government grants, etc.

Details of the local finances during the 1936–37 fiscal years are tabulated as follows :

	1936–37	1935–36	Increase
Expenditure	¥1,918,269,000	¥1,858,594,000	¥59,675,000
Revenue	1,919,050,000	1,859,481,000	59,569,000
Taxation receipts	664,918,000	628,972,000	35,946,000
Other incomes	1,254,132,000	1,230,508,000	23,624,000

PRINCIPAL ITEMS OF EXPENDITURE

Education	¥476,093,000	Public bonds	¥342,782,000
Public works	240,830,000	Public health	138,769,000
Electric and gas enterprise	116,537,000	Encouragement enterprises	114,346,000
Policing	91,343,000	City planning	54,673,000
Social enterprises	51,739,000	Accumulating property	22,984,000
Prefectural officials	22,112,000	Defence	11,101,000
Assemblies	7,854,000		

PRINCIPAL ITEMS OF REVENUE

Household tax	¥148,011,000	Income tax and surtax	55,310,000
Miscellaneous taxes and surtaxes	114,021,000	Business tax and surtax	14,462,000
Surtax on business profits tax	59,029,000	Public bonds issued	337,817,000
Surtax on land tax	118,099,000	Government grants	173,691,000
House tax and surtax	108,117,000	Special land tax and surtax	14,334,000
		Rents and commissions	310,309,000

Taxation Reform and Grants 1. Decision on Grants for Adjustment of Local Finances.

Since the tenure of the Saito Cabinet, the Department of Home Affairs had cherished the desire to give grants for adjusting local finances in order to relieve the local bodies of their financial difficulties but could not realize the desire until the assumption of the Finance portfolio by Mr. Eiichi Baba, who decided to reform the central and local taxation systems. His reform plan called for the abolition of the household tax and the transfer of the house tax to the Central Government and instead provided for an annual grant to local finances. The grant was fixed at ¥220,000,000 for the 1937–38 fiscal year and at ¥300,000,000 for a normal year.

At the same time, the Baba plan called for the payment by prefectural governments of the expenses for compulsory education which had been borne by the National Treasury. This measure was intended to ensure the independence of primary school teachers and to strengthen the control of prefectural governments over primary schools. The estimated grants to local finances were to be divided into ¥110,000,000 for prefectures and ¥110,000,000 for cities, towns and villages.

Grants to Prefectures 1. The taxation revenue of the prefectures, hitherto amounting to approximately ¥270,000,000, would be reduced to ¥210,000,000 following the execution of the Baba reform plan which also called upon the prefectures to pay ¥85,000,000, hitherto disbursed out of the National Treasury, as expenses for compulsory education. This would require a new source of income to the amount of ¥145,000,000 and the Baba plan provided for a grant of that amount.

2. For the purpose of giving the aforementioned grant, the Baba plan called for the earmarking of a part of the income tax and the whole of the tax on capital interest.

3. The salaries of primary school teachers, amounting to ¥85,000,000, will be paid out of the grants to the prefectural governments.

Grant to Cities, Towns and Villages 1. The taxation revenue of the cities, towns and villages, hitherto amounting to approximately ¥390,000,000, would be reduced to about ¥150,000,000 following the execution of the Baba reform plan. As the expenses for compulsory education, hitherto borne by the cities, towns and villages, would be paid by the prefectures under the Baba plan, the cities, towns and villages would

require a new source of revenue to the amount of ¥155,000,000 only. A grant of equal amount was provided for in the Baba plan.

2. The aforementioned grant would be obtained from land tax, house tax and business profits tax.

3. Appropriations out of business profits tax would be purely for assisting in the adjustment of local finances while those out of other taxes would be for supplementing the sources of revenue of the cities, towns and villages.

Extraordinary Grants to Cities, Towns and Villages Finance Minister Toyotaro Yuki of the Hirota Cabinet, however, abandoned his predecessor's taxation reform plan and accordingly gave up the proposed grants for adjusting local finances. Instead, he decided to provide a grant to local finances as an extraordinary measure, increasing the amount of grant from ¥20,000,000 for the 1936–37 fiscal year to ¥70,000,000 for the 1937–38 fiscal year. The Yuki plan was severely criticized as being too favourable to the urban districts at the expense of the rural districts, with the result that the grant had to be increased by ¥30,000,000 to ¥100,000,000 to meet the demand presented jointly by the Minseito and the Seiyukai in the course of the 70th session of the Imperial Diet.

Of the grant, ¥30,000,000 was decided to be given to prefectures and ¥70,000,000 to cities, towns and villages. Those cities, towns and villages receiving shares of the grant are required to reduce the household tax and miscellaneous taxes. A special grant amounting to ¥5,000,000 was decided to be given to particularly impoverished towns and villages.

Taxation Reform and Local Finances

1. Opposition to Transfer of House Tax

The financial authorities of local governments were surprised at the news that the Department of Finance intended to reform the central and local taxation systems, realizing a grant for adjusting local finances and transferring the house tax to the Central Government. When the conference of prefectural governors was convened in June, 1936, the local governors expressed various views on the question and following the conclusion of the conference, Governor Tanaka of Nagasaki Prefecture, a recognized authority on local taxation questions, called on Finance Minister Eiichi Baba and representing his colleagues, voiced their opposition to the proposed transfer of the house tax.

2. Opposition to Abolition of Household Tax.

It has long been urged that the household tax should be abolished on the ground that it is attended by the evils of a capitation tax and serves to accelerate the flight of wealth from villages to cities. On the other hand, there has also been a strong opposition to the abolition of the household tax on the ground that the abolition of the household tax, which is the most elastic among all local taxes, would undermine the independence of the self-governing local bodies because a government grant would then have to be relied upon.

3. Taxation Burden of Farmers.

The Baba plan for a reform of the central and local taxation systems was purported to be aimed at a reduction of the taxation burden of farmers. The Imperial Agricultural Association, however, announced that its investigation revealed that the difference between the percentage of reduction for a landowner having an income of about ¥5,000 and that for a tenant earning only about ¥300 would be no more than 5 per cent. Details of the returns of the investigation are tabulated as follows :

BURDEN OF LANDLORDS

	For an Income of about ¥500		For an Income of about ¥5,000	
	Present Rate	Proposed Revised Rate	Present Rate	Proposed Revised Rate
Land tax	¥104.71	¥61.41	¥1,092.54	¥612.58
House tax	11.06	8.86	56.59	45.27
Special land tax	0.07	0.04	11.84	9.47
Miscellaneous taxes	5.34	4.27	—	—
Household tax	41.09	—	446.44	—
Others	3.72	3.72	296.44	296.44
Total	165.99	78.29	1,903.85	963.76
Ratio	100	47	100	51

BURDEN OF INDEPENDENT FARMERS

	For an Income of about ¥300		For an Income of about ¥2,000	
	Present Rate	Proposed Revised Rate	Present Rate	Proposed Revised Rate
Land tax	¥48.42	¥27.74	¥355.72	¥206.22
House tax	7.93	6.34	36.41	29.13
Special land tax	1.00	0.50	—	—
Miscellaneous taxes	6.72	5.38	11.29	9.03
Household tax	19.39	—	181.85	—
Others	1.33	1.33	33.53	33.52
Total	83.79	41.33	618.80	266.91
Ratio	100	49	100	43

BURDEN OF TENANTS

	For an Income of about ¥300			For an Income of about ¥300	
	Present Rate	Proposed Revised Rate		Present Rate	Proposed Revised Rate
Land tax	¥3.85	¥2.51	Household tax	10.43	—
House tax	5.13	4.10	Others	0.23	0.23
Special land tax	1.96	0·96	Total	27.53	12.56
Miscellaneous taxes	5.93	4.74	Ratio	100	46

Local Bonds No considerable change occurred in the conditions of local bonds throughout the year 1936. The total amount of local bonds, which was ¥2,510,000,000 at the beginning of the year, increased by merely ¥30,000,000 to ¥2,540,000,000 by the end of the year. What is to be noted in this connection is that considerable activities were displayed during the year for the conversion of high-interest bonds into low-interest ones under the influence of the low-interest tendency brought about by the Baba policy. Such conversion was made most actively during June, July and August but when the taxation reform plan was announced in September, the loan market suffered a setback and the activities for the issuance of new bonds or conversion of old ones were halted.

The following is a table showing further details of the conditions of local bonds from January until December, 1936; the figures being given in units of ¥1,000:

	Bonds Issued	Converted Bonds	Amount Redeemed	Amount of Outstanding Bonds
January	4,085	1,552	3,373	2,511,863
February	22,530	22,396	21,062	2,513,331
March	25,306	3,513	27,751	2,510,886
April	706	—	5,341	2,506,250
May	36,783	16,938	19,774	2,523,259
June	67,613	62,107	68,203	2,522,669
July	245,199	166,355	125,236	2,642,632
August	84,246	64,149	107,882	2,618,996
September	51,727	19,355	59,447	2,611,276
October	2,587	1,573	9,211	2,604,652
November	2,538	2,538	35,980	2,571,210
December	—	—	30,009	2,541,200
Total	543,323	360,479	513,274	—

CHAPTER IX

BANKING AND THE MONEY MARKET

Development The Japanese National Bank Act was promulgated in November of the 5th year of Meiji (1872) and this formed the cornerstone of the banking business in Japan. The banks established in accordance with this Act were the First National Bank, Tokyo; the Second National Bank, Yokohama; the Fourth National Bank, Niigata; and the Fifth National Bank, Kagoshima. The First National Bank, founded by Eiichi Shibusawa (the late Viscount), was invested in jointly by the Mitsui-Gumi and Ono-Gumi to the amount of ¥2,000,000 out of the total capitalization of ¥3,000,000. The remaining amount of ¥1,000,000 was offered for public subscription. Due to the lack of knowledge of the people regarding the nature of public subscriptions to shares there is little wonder that only ¥448,000 was subscribed. The bank was opened on August 1, 1873. H. E. Shand, a clerk of the Oriental Bank, a British institution in Yokohama, was engaged by the bank to teach Japanese clerks banking business. With the revision of the National Bank Act in 1876, the number of banks in Japan greatly increased. There were, at the end of 1879, 153 banks with a total capitalization of ¥37,000,000 and with authority to issue notes. The National Bank Act provided for conversion of the national bank notes into specie. An amendment was made in the Act in 1883, by which the privilege of issuing notes was taken away from the national banks and granted exclusively to the newly-created central banking institution, the Bank of Japan. Meanwhile, private banks and bank-like business companies, which did not come within the purview of the National Bank Act had increased in number, until their total number reached 954 in 1884, and there were no general provisions to control such banks and companies. To bring them under one efficient control the Ordinary Bank Act and the Savings Bank Act were promulgated in 1890 and put into force three years later. Side by side with the private banks the national banks had acted from the first as financial institutions of general trade, so when the terms of their respective charters expired most of them continued in business as ordinary banks, and by February, 1899 when national banks ceased to exist, there was no longer any difference between the economic functions and legal nature of the former national banks and other ordinary banks, all of which were controlled by general banking law. Ordinary banks were placed under the control of the Minister of Finance, whose licence was required for the establishment of a new bank or the amalgamation of existing banks; he was also empowered to order at any time investigation into the business condition and property of a bank. Every bank was compelled to prepare and present to the Minister of Finance a balance-sheet and other business reports every half-year, the former to be published in newspapers or by some other means. Provisions were also made in the Act regarding business hours and holidays.

Bank Act of 1927 Though a few amendments were made in it from time to time the Bank Act of 1890 became obsolete and inadequate on account of the rapid progress in the financial and economic conditions of the country. On March 29, 1927, therefore, a new Act was promulgated to come into effect on January 1, 1928. This Act can be summarized as follows :—

(1) Banks as defined in the Bank Act are in principle institutions which carry on the operations of giving as well as receiving credits.

(2) Participation in banking business is confined to joint stock companies having at least the minimum capital[1] prescribed by the Act.

(3) The use of the word "Bank" (Ginko) in the trade name is made compulsory for every bank, and the use of the word is prohibited to businesses not being banks.

(4) Banks are strictly prohibited from engaging in business activities other than those prescribed in the Act.

(5) A bank shall, until the full amount

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1 The minimum paid-up capital for a bank in Tokyo and Osaka must be not less than ¥2,000,000; for towns of more than 10,000 population not less than ¥1,000,000; and for smaller communities not less than ¥500,000.

of its capitalization is reached, set aside each time that a dividend is paid on profits 10 per cent of such profits as a reserve fund.

(6) A strict audit system is established.

(7) Managers or managing-directors while actively engaged as such are not permitted to participate in the management of other companies without sanction of the Minister of Finance.

(8) The Court of Justice shall exercise closer supervision over the liquidation of banks.

(9) The Minister of Finance is empowered to make necessary provisions respecting banks with head offices outside the area, desirous of doing banking business within the area in which the Act is in force.

(10) The power of the Minister of Finance respecting the cancellation of business licences and the giving of various sanctions to banks is greatly increased and the penalties for illegal acts by banks shall be made heavier.

Special Banks The Bank of Japan, Yokohama Specie Bank, Hypothec Bank of Japan, Agricultural and Industrial Banks, Industrial Bank of Japan, Hokkaido Colonial Bank, Bank of Taiwan, Bank of Chosen, and the Industrial Bank of Chosen are called special banks because they were established in accordance with ordinances issued especially for their organization. They have their own missions and unique functions, as are mentioned in the following pages, and the Government enforces a strict control over them with a view to the satisfactory fulfilment of their missions. Supervisors are appointed by the Central Government to examine into the conditions of these banks from time to time. In the case, however, of the agricultural and industrial banks and the branches of the Hypothec Bank of Japan in such prefectures as have no Agricultural and Industrial Banks, the supervision is entrusted to the directors of the economic departments of prefectural governments, while the Governor-General of Korea exercises control over the Industrial Bank of Chosen.

Mention must be made of the fact that the Oriental Colonization Company (Toyo Takushoku Kaisha) also accepts fixed deposits. The primary aim of this company is to provide financial facilities for colonization enterprises in Korea and foreign countries. For similar purposes, the Government has given permission for the establishment of the Taiwan Takushoku Kaisha (Colonization Company of Formosa) and the Nanyo Takushoku Kaisha (Colonization Company of the South Sea Islands). The privilege of the former of accepting deposits, however, is limited while the latter two are not expected to be authorized to conduct such business.

The deposits of the aforementioned special banks, not including the Bank of Japan, totalled approximately ¥1,000,000,000, and their advances reached ¥2,600,000,000 at the end of October, 1936.

Ordinary Banks Ordinary banks are institutions which not only provide financial facilities for commerce but also furnish funds for enterprises and make loans on mortgage of immovable property.

The number of ordinary banks in the country once reached more than 1,800, but when the country experienced in 1927, an unprecedented financial panic a new Bank Act was enacted, whereby control over banks was greatly strengthened and amalgamations brought about to fit in with the capital and other requirements of the Act. At present, there are 435 ordinary banks in the country, only one-fourth of the previous figures.

Statistics show that the authorized capital of the ordinary banks, some of which maintain overseas offices, at the end of June, 1936, amounted to ¥1,748,000,000. According to the latest returns, compiled at the end of September, 1936, the deposits of these banks totalled more than ¥10,527,000,000 and their advances exceeded ¥6,749,000,000. The securities in their possession at that time were valued at ¥4,952,000,000, including ¥2,640,000,000 in national bonds.

The principal ordinary banks are the Daiichi, Mitsui, Mitsubishi, Sumitomo, Yasuda, Sanwa and Daihyaku Banks, each having deposits ranging from ¥700,000,000 to ¥1,100,000,000, which, when put together, from more than 60 per cent of the total deposits of all the ordinary banks in the country. Besides the above seven institutions, there are 8 ordinary banks each with deposits totalling more than ¥100,000,000, including the Nomura, Jugo, Aichi, Nagoya, Nihon Chuya, Showa and Chugoku Banks. On the other hand, there are not a few which have less than ¥1,000,000 in deposits.

Hyogo, Fukuoka, Shizuoka and Osaka Prefectures have more than 20 ordinary banks each and the number of those prefectures which have more than 10 institutions of the kind is 21. The Government is encouraging the merger of these banks on the principle of one ordinary bank for each prefecture. Through the promotion of such mergers the Government expects to strengthen

the foundation and rationalize the management of the banks, protect the interests of depositors, and prevent indiscriminate competition.

Savings Banks The most popular and best utilized of the savings organs in the country is the postal savings deposits system, which was established in 1875 for the purpose of encouraging thrift and saving among the people. The service has made such marvellous development that at present the total savings deposits reach the prodigious figure of ¥3,300,000,000, forming 74 per cent of the entire funds of the Deposits Bureau of the Ministry of Finance. The savings deposits are playing an important part in the digestion of public bonds, and as a part of the money is returned to the country districts in the form of local funds, they contribute much toward the improvement of financial conditions in the provinces.

The savings deposits handled by the savings banks throughout the country totalled ¥500,000,000 in 1922; five years later the figures increased to ¥1,000,000,000. At the end of 1931 they further rose to ¥1,600,000,000 and the ¥2,000,000,000 mark was finally passed at the end of 1935. The present number of savings banks in the country is 74, with authorized capitals totalling more than ¥77,000,000, and with reserves exceeding their paid-up capitals. They have 2,000,000 contracts of fixed monthly deposits for ¥1,700,000,000 with the standing amount of savings thereof reaching ¥740,000,000 at the end of 1935.

In view of the importance of the relations between the savings banks and public interests, the Government enforces an especially strict control over the banks. Besides placing the use of the banks' funds under rigid restrictions, the Government orders the banks to deposit national bonds with the Government to the amount of over one-third of their deposits and enforces a law calling upon the directors of the banks to bear joint and unlimited responsibility for the repayment of the deposits.

Of late, pessimism has been expressed by some people over the future of the savings banks on account of the Government's policy for low interest rates, the question regarding taxation and because of the annexation of two savings banks in Tokyo to ordinary banks. The Government, however, is determined to continue its efforts for the development of the business, although, as in the case of ordinary banks, it disapproves an increase in their number.

Banking World in 1936

Increased Bank Loans Banking conditions were extremely complicated in 1936 as a result of the violent changes in the economic conditions of the country. The conversion of the 5 per cent national bonds by Finance Minister Baba of the Hirota Government together with the adoption of the principle of "one prefecture, one bank" were serious events in the banking world.

Deposits during 1936 showed a remarkable increase, those with the ordinary banks increased by ¥709,000,000 compared with ¥520,000,000 for 1935 and ¥620,000,000 for 1934. There were, however, some differences in the constitution of the deposits when compared with the preceding year, the principal difference being that in 1936, the increasing rate of savings deposits, such as fixed deposits slackened, while current accounts increased remarkably. Accordingly, it became difficult for the banks to follow their previous policy toward the utilization of deposits, although the deposits as a whole continued to increase.

Up to 1935 loans made by the various banks throughout the country either decreased or increased but slightly, during 1936, however, there was a sudden change, and a rapid increase was recorded in the amount of such loans, The ordinary banks alone recorded a total increase amounting to ¥475,000,000, the increase being especially noticeable in the latter half of the year, and in the amount of bills discounted.

The increase being due to the increased volume of transactions in general, resulting from the activities of governmental enterprises under the munitions boom, the large rice crops in the provinces and the improved conditions of the prices of cocoons. The increase in foreign trade also played its part.

Disturbances Caused by the Banking Policy of Finance Minister Baba The banking policy of Finance Minister Eiichi Baba of the Hirota Government dealt a great blow to the banking world. National bonds in the hands of the various banks at the end of 1935 amounted to ¥4,000,000,000, and it may not be amiss to suppose that the greater part of these were bonds bearing interest at five per cent when there were converted into bonds bearing interest at 3½ per cent, it is not difficult imagine that the profits of the various banks suffered greatly. Simultaneously with the conversion of the bonds, money rates

had to be lowered.

Reduction of Money Rates Finance Minister Baba announced a reduction of the Bank rate on April 6, 1936, and on the following day the decision to convert the national bonds bearing interest at five per cent was made public. Other banks immediately lowered their interest rates for deposits, that of the A-class banks for fixed deposits being reduced to 3.3 per cent from April 10, other rates being lowered in proportion. The lowering of interest rates reacted on deposits and fixed deposits, by causing a falling off in the rate of increase.

In consonance, the interest rates for loans also declined. Details of the decline in the interest rates for loans made by the member banks of the Tokyo Shukwaisho (Bankers' Club) are shown in the following table, figures being given in units of ¥0.01 on the basis of 1 day :

	1934	1935	1936
January	1.71	1.62	1.58
February	1.73	1.58	1.56
March	1.70	1.59	1.56
April	1.67	1.59	1.54
May	1.67	1.59	1.52
June	1.67	1.58	1.49
July	1.63	1.59	1.47
August	1.61	1.57	1.45
September	1.64	1.59	1.46
October	1.61	1.57	1.45
November	1.61	1.56	1.45
December	1.62	1.56	1.45

In spite of the decline in the interest rates, the interest receipts of the various banks throughout the country did not decrease to any considerable extent because of the demand for industrial capital, while receipts from discounting showed a remarkable rise during the latter half of the year. Further, the leading banks which underwrite securities acquired an increased income as commission for handling public bonds and debentures, the issues of which had received a great impetus under the low-interest policy of the Government after June.

Control of the Banking Business Of the events which occurred in the banking world during 1936, special mention must be made of the policy of Finance Minister Baba for controlling the banking business. First of all, the unification of banking facilities for immovable property was urged in the form of the merger of all agricultural and industrial banks into the Hypothec Bank. The first to be thus merged was the Agricultural and Industrial Bank of Tokyo Prefecture, followed by the merger of the Kagoshima, Awa, Oita, Ehime, Nohi, Miyagi, Miye, Osaka, Hyogo, and Hiroshima agricultural and industrial banks. Only six failed to be merged, those in Fukushima, Kanagawa, Ibaragi, Aichi, Shiga and Okayama.

Furthermore, the Ministry of Finance followed a policy of urging the amalgamation of ordinary banks in conformity with the principle of "one prefecture, one bank." The number of ordinary banks throughout the country was 545 at the end of 1935 including 466 ordinary banks and 79 savings banks, but these were reduced by 50 by amalgamations, so with three new banks coming into existence in the meantime there were 489 ordinary banks at the end of 1936, including 424 ordinary banks and 74 savings banks.

Although known as the principle of "one prefecture, one bank," the policy actually aimed at reducing the number of ordinary banks to one or two in one economic district in conformity with the economic power of the districts. Minister Baba also intended to make a further effort towards bank consolidation through a readjustment of the medium and small-scale banks and to proceed as far as the enforcement of a strong control of the banking business and the adoption of a compulsory system for the possession of public bonds by banks. This intention, however, failed to be realized because the Hirota Government collapsed.

Prospects The changing tendency in the policy of the banks accelerated during 1936 with the continued increase in the amount of deposits with the various banking organs and the upward trend of the amount of loans made by these organs, which during the previous year had replaced the declining movement that had existed for some time. Present conditions are such that further increases in the amount of loans may be expected in view of the plans for increased expenditure on national defence, the increase in taxes, the increasing demand for the investment of Japanese capital in Manchuria and North China, and the scheduled issuance of additional deficit-covering public bonds.

Increasing Deposits New funds in the way of deposits received by the principal organs of the banking world, banks, post offices, trust companies and life insurance companies, amounted to ¥20,442,000,000 at the end of 1936. Detailed figures follow :

	Deposits
Ordinary Banks	¥10,932,000,000
Savings Banks	1,842,000,000
Post Offices	3,352,000,000
Trust Companies	1,840,000,000
Life Insurance Companies	2,475,000,000
Total	20,442,000,000

This amount represents an increase of ¥1,472,000,000 or 7.7 per cent over the figures for the end of the preceding year. Similar increases recorded during the preceding few years amounted to ¥238,000,000 in 1932, ¥1,141,000,000 in 1933, ¥1,233,000,000 in 1934 and ¥1,240,000,000 in 1935. The rate of increase for 1936 is the highest record for all times, being ¥232,000,000 more than the increased amount for 1935 as compared with the figures for 1934. The rates for the various banking organs during 1936 are shown in the following table :

	Increased Amount	%
Ordinary Banks	¥1,059,000,000	10.7
Savings Banks	201,000,000 (decrease)	9.8
Post Offices	240,000,000	7.7
Trust Companies	103,000,000	5.9
Life Insurance Companies	243,000,000	11.0

It is but natural that the rate of such increase for ordinary banks should be higher than the rates for other organs. In this respect, however, mention must be made of the fact that the Dai-Hyaku (Hundredth) Bank annexed the Kawasaki Savings Bank and the Tokyo Savings Bank during the period under review, and this resulted in a total sum of ¥350,000,000 being transferred from the item of 'savings banks' to that of 'ordinary banks'.

The decrease in the amount of deposits with the savings banks during 1936 was thus brought about by the changes in items due to the annexation of the two savings banks by the Hundredth Bank. If the changes had not taken place, the increase for the ordinary banks would have been only ¥709,000,000 or 7.2 per cent, while the share of the savings banks would have shown an increase of ¥149,000,000 or 7.3 per cent. This would have placed the ordinary banks, the savings banks and the post offices on approximately the same level, above the trust companies but below the life insurance companies. Judged from this point of view, deposits in the savings banks were just as satisfactory as in the other branches.

Increasing Trend of Loans. Along with the increase in the amount of deposits with the various banking organs, the amount of loans made by these organs also increased, the total amount at the end of 1936 being ¥9,297,000,000 representing an increase of ¥750,000,000 or 8.8 per cent compared with ¥421,000,000 at the end of the preceding year.

Details of loans made by the life insurance companies still remain to be ascertained though it is presumed that there does not exist any considerable difference when compared with the preceding year. Under this presumption, loans made by the ordinary banks must have been larger than that of the other organs, but this was to be expected because of their increased deposits. The share of the Deposits Bureau in the increased loans also reached a considerable amount.

The loans made by savings banks show a slight decrease even if the changes in items, above mentioned, be taken into account. The loans made by trust companies increased to some extent. All things considered, therefore, it may be said that the general tendency during the year was for increased lending.

As the increase in the amount of deposits is accompanied by an increase in loans, cash-in-hand of the various organs of the banking world was comparatively small as compared with the preceding year. Details are shown in the following table :

BALANCE ON HAND AT YEAR-END

(In units of one million yen)

	Deposits	Loans	Balance
1931	15,118	9,134	5,984
1932	15,356	8,772	6,584
1933	16,497	8,304	8,197
1934	17,730	8,125	9,605
1935	18,970	8,547	10,423
1936	20,442	9,297	11,145

The balance on hand has increased every year but it is to be noted that the increasing tendency was much weaker in 1935 and 1936. This point will be clarified by a glance at the following table of new surplus funds :

NEW SURPLUS FUNDS

(In yen)

1932	600,000,000
1933	1,610,000,000
1934	1,411,000,000
1935	818,000,000
1936	722,000,000

The new surplus funds have decreased since 1933 with the continued increase in loans, but mention must be made of the fact that though the new surplus funds are decreasing, the various organs still have considerable balances on hand are with the result that low-interest rates still continuing.

New Enterprises Plans for new enterprises increased rapidly during 1936, a total amount of ¥2,000,000,000 being involved as compared with ¥1,300,000,000 in 1934 and ¥1,500,000,000 in 1935. Though it cannot be said that all the plans will be carried out, it still remains a fact that the amount involved shows a rapid increase, attributable to the boom in the munitions industry.

Deficit-covering Bonds A total amount of ¥780,000,000 of deficit-covering public bonds was calculated in the budget for the 1936–37 fiscal year and while a part of the amount was still outstanding, the digestion of already issued bonds became difficult. During the early part of 1937, the public bonds in the hands of the Bank of Japan amounted to ¥829,000,000 as compared with ¥689,000,000 recorded one year before. Furthermore, the public bonds absorbed during the early part of 1937 amounted to only ¥263,000,000 as compared with ¥325,000,000 for the corresponding period of the preceding year, a decrease of ¥62,000,000.

Since 1934, there has been a tightness of money in the autumn. In the fall of 1935, it was difficult for the South Manchuria Railway Company to issue its debentures, in 1936 the situation was still worse. The aggravated situation was tided over only after the Government had recourse to the funds of the Deposits Bureau and caused the Industrial Bank to make call loans by borrowing from the funds. It is to be noted in this connection that toward the end of 1935 the 5% public bonds were redeemed as a means of distributing funds.

Interest rates have apparently reached the bottom, but as no scarcity of funds is being felt, there is as yet no reactionary advance. Efforts are being made to encourage saving as one of the major points of the so-called quasi-war time economic system. If savings do not increase nothing but difficulties can be expected for the banking world.

BANKS

In Japan Proper, Kerea and Formosa at the end of each year
(Compiled by the Ministry of Finance)

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Number	Paid-up Capital	Reserves	Deposits	Advances	Net profit	Dividend
1930	913	1,776,936	1,010,399	11,035,127	10,413,884	210,253	126,200
1931	811	1,738,525	980,998	10,594,599	10,257,875	229,639	112,225
1932	663	1,707,970	997,718	10,777,253	9,997,191	233,723	110,017
1933	637	1,681,927	1,001,694	11,509,281	9,585,510	253,476	104,146
1934	597	1,656,628	1,051,309	12,202,707	9,306,476	296,352	104,333
1935	594	1,636,000	1,099,000	12,910,691	9,528,569	306,000	103,000

DEPOSITS AND LOANS OF THE BANKS THROUGHOUT THE COUNTRY

Published by the Department of Finance
(at the end of Dec., 1936. In ¥1,000)

Kinds	Special Banks	Ordinary Banks	Saving Banks	Total
Deposits				
Public money	24,613	—	—	24,613
Current deposits	75,572	1,335,684	—	1,411,256
Special current deposits	161,013	2,093,889	—	2,254,902
Deposits at notice	34,090	659,232	—	693,322
Fixed deposits	665,798	6,301,133	18,895	6,985,826
Other deposits	232,192	251,978	510	484,680
Ordinary and special	—	119,242	1,236,538	1,355,780
Reserves	—	170,959	586,985	757,944
Total	1,193,278	10,932,117	1,842,928	13,968,323
Compared with the previous year	200,850	1,058,432	−201,650	1,057,632

Kinds	Special Banks	Ordinary Banks	Saving Banks	Total
Loans				
Loans on bills	158,370	3,969,528	—	4,127,898
Loans on bonds	1,921,357	844,904	238,718	3,004,979
Overdrafts	41,324	780,648	—	821,972
Discounts	485,425	1,065,095	—	1,550,520
Total	2,606,476	6,660,175	238,718	9,505,369
Compared with the previous year	−23,548	538,999	−91,053	424,398
Call loans	172,725	338,028	—	510,753
Total	2,779,201	6,998,203	238,718	10,016,122
Compared with the previous year	91,108	487,498	−91,053	487,553
Negotiable papers owned				
National bonds	323,118	2,560,719	1,015,693	3,899,530
Prefectural and municipal bonds	20,562	384,787	71,220	476,569
Foreign bills	240,343	108,513	14,212	363,068
Debenture bonds	96,312	1,237,609	297,684	1,631,605
Stocks	39,287	503,929	125,373	668,589
Total	719,622	4,795,557	1,524,182	7,039,361
Compared with the previous year	−34,597	573,123	−63,472	475,054
Cash and deposit on the day				
Cash on hand on the day	21,729	683,272	21,935	726,936
Deposit on hand	76,414	330,541	152,460	559,415
Total	98,143	1,013,813	174,395	1,286,351
Compared with the previous year	−8,890	6,689	−61,051	−63,252

Remarks: The figures do not include accounts of the banks located outside of Japan proper, Taiwan and Karafuto.

Various loans made by savings banks are collectively included in the item of loans on bonds.

The Bank of Japan

(Nippon Ginko)

The Bank of Japan is the central bank of the Empire and has an authorized capital of ¥60,000,000 and various reserves totalling upwards of ¥110,000,000. In point of capital it is far smaller than the Yasuda Bank (¥150,000,000), the Sanwa Bank (¥107,000,000), the Yokohama Specie Bank (¥100,000,000), the Mitsui Bank (¥100,000,000) and the Mitsubishi Bank (¥100,000,000), nevertheless it forms the centre of the nation's banking business on the strength of its privilege of issuing convertible bank notes and its management of Treasury receipts and disbursements as well as the important part it plays in adjusting the money market through the execution of its money rate policies and its conduct of open market operations (See pp. 325–327, Japan Year Book, 1936).

According to the survey of the Banking Bureau of the Ministry of Finance, the convertible bank notes issued by the Bank of Japan by December 8, 1936, amounted to ¥1,395,000,000. Special mention should be made of the bank's increased digestion of public loans as a result of the repeated issue of deficit-covering loans by the Government.

THE BANK OF JAPAN

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend
1925	60,000	657,011	719,839	10,348	4,500	12.0%
1926	60,000	570,922	609,127	10,358	4,500	12.0

Year	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend
1927	60,000	651,636	915,068	10,357	3,750	10.0%
1928	60,000	470,442	870,817	10,366	3,750	10.0
1929	60,000	532,756	701,688	19,815	3,750	10.0
1930	60,000	456,763	779,138	19,865	3,750	10.0
1931	60,000	374,038	939,403	19,761	3,999	10.0
1932	60,000	385,143	819,179	33,256	5,850	13.0
1933	60,000	370,049	880,833	50,379	4,500	10.0
1934	60,000	335,891	946,285	62,811	4,500	10.0
1935	60,000	400,316	994,820	—	4,500	10.0
1936	60,000	349,021	962,894	47,646	4,500	10.0

REPORT OF THE BANK OF JAPAN

Balance Sheet

		1935 Second half		1936 First half
LIABILITIES		¥		¥
Notes issued		1,766,555,295.000		1,490,781,157,500
Redemption fund for Fractional Government Notes		11,040,000.000		11,040,000.000
Goverment deposits	¥		¥	
Current account	103,305,297.693		107,261,479.966	
Other	176,503,630.245	279,808,927.938	137,590,874.348	244,852,354.314
Funds for payment of Mint certificates		870,892.704		870,892.704
Current accounts		112,567,918.960		109,157,574.310
Remittances		7,067,842.580		4,029,809.740
Due to other banks		268,755.680		317,722.320
Suspense receipts		72,880,711.870		71,077,438.220
Reserve for sundry expenditures		16,654,000.000		16,654,000.000
Reserve for settlement of account re Bills discounted. Law No. 55 of 1927		2,902,000.000		3,064,000.000
Capital subscribed		60,000,000.000		60,000,000.000
Reserve fund		114,090,000.000		114,590,000.000
Dividends unpaid		3,301.480		3,721.480
Profit brought forward from last half-year		12,001,413.567		12,343,518.547
Net profit for the current half year		10,055,807.320		15,502,291.305
Total		2,466,766,867.099		2,154,284,480.440
ASSETS				
Advances to Government. Art. 2. Convertible Bank Notes Regulations		¥ 22,000,000.000		¥ 22,000,000.000
Other advances to Government		96,123,584,280		125,058,491.750
Advances on foreign bills		180,860,309.910		122,830,732.870
Advances on current accounts		569,580.860		278,452.700
Bills discounted		162,912,578.350		83,080,438.720
Bills discounted, Law No. 55 of 1927		498,176,143.580		482,539,573.950
Deposits		34,176,632.600		33,764,672.600
Government bonds		729,268,759.900		544,009,076.900
Bullion	¥		¥	
Gold	273,643,537,360		293,681,107.480	
Silver	14,544.300	273,658,081.660	14,544.300	293,695,651.780
Agencies accounts		27,925,332.700		35,813,111.391
Agencies accounts, specified		9,213,397.040		17,845,429.235
Foreign agencies accounts		111,503,753.519		35,176,928.741
Suspense payments		4,281,674.055		4,141,536.680
Bank premises		16,249,637.995		16,137,629.827
Capital unpaid		15,000,000.000		15,000,000.000
Redemption fund for Fractional Government Notes as per contra		11,040,000,000		11,040,000.000
Cash items on Government account		13,611,117.526		14,521,218.812

		1935 Second half		1936 First half
Funds for payment of Mint certificates as per contra		870,892.704		870,892.704
Cash on hand	¥		¥	
Gold coin	230,422,554.000		230,422,904.000	
Others	28,902,831.420	259,325,385.420	66,057,737.780	296,480,641.780
Total		2,466,766,867.099		2,154,284,480.440
PROFIT AND LOSS ACCOUNT				
Cr.		¥		¥
To Expenses, taxes, interest, etc.		27,373,428.774		21,098,908.916
To Balance appropriated:—				
Dividend at the rate of 10 per cent per annum	¥ 2,250,000.000		¥ 2,250,000.000	
Reserve fund	500,000.000		800,000.000	
Payments to the Government	6,561,702.340		11,089,092.140	
Bonus and allowances	240,000.000		240,000.000	
Reserve for settlement of account re Bills discounted, Law No. 55 of 1927	162,000.000		514,000.000	
Balance carried forward	12,343,518.547	22,057,220.887	12,952,717.712	27,845,809.852
Total		49,430,649.661		48,944,718.768
Cr.		¥		¥
By Gross profits for the half-year		37,429,236.094		36,601,200.221
By Balance brought forward from last half-year		12,001,413.567		12,343,518.547
Total		49,430,649.661		48,944,718.768

		1936 Second half		1937 First half
LIABILITIES		¥		¥
Notes issued		1,865,703,384.500		1,640,832,571.500
Redemption fund for Fractional Government Notes		10,990,000.000		10,965,000.000
Government deposits	¥		¥	
Current account	105,220,796.533		162,421,679.281	
Other	110,675,012.875	215,895,809.408	130,757,046.948	293,178,726.229
Funds for payment of Mint certificates		870,892.704		870,892.704
Current accounts		128,779,612.420		93,569,393.040
Remittances		3,475,251.610		3,161,321.740
Due to other banks		214,824.120		171,139.050
Suspense receipts		71,429,425.210		74,155,047.910
Profit borne by the transvaluation of gold bullion		—		91,946,311.580
Taxes unpaid		—		14,342.630
Reserve for sundry expenditures		16,052,000.000		16,052,000.000
Reserve for settlement of account re Bills discounted, Law No. 55 of 1927		3,578,000.000		4,011,000.000
Capital subscribed		60,000,000.000		60,000,000.000
Reserve fund		115,390,000.000		115,690,000.000
Dividends unpaid		3,786.480		3,316.480
Profit brought forward from last half-year		12,952,717.712		12,682,502.623
Net profit for the current half-year		6,847,984.611		7,913,106.329
Total		2,512,183,688.775		2,425,216,671.815
ASSETS				
Advances to Government, Art. 2 Convertible Bank Note Regulations		¥ 22,000,000.000		¥ 22,000,000.000
Other advances to Government		164,442,257.410		210,600,434.000
Advances on foreign bills		159,124,931.570		50,659,625.940
Advances on current accounts		—		347,185.560
Bills discounted		113,148,463.330		81,686,112.150
Bills discounted, Law No. 54 of 1927		472,479,789.550		425,721,449.980

		1936 Second half		1937 First half
		¥		¥
Deposits		31,698,672.600		31,698,672.600
Government bonds		829,073,033380		880.362,733.670
Bullion	¥		¥	
Gold	317,917,262.870		294,082,895.010	
Silver	14,544.300	317,931,807.170	14,544.300	294,097,439.310
Agencies accounts		26,353,835.672		25,685,179.834
Agencies accounts, specified		7,217,932.305		13,014,658.650
Foreign agencies accounts		51,023,421.603		43,619,098.732
Suspense payments		3,624,188.720		4,215,911.765
Bank premises		16,832,919.604		16,729,249.604
Capital unpaid		15,000,000.000		15,000,000.000
Redemption fund for Fractional Governments Notes as per contra		10,990,000.000		10,965,000.000
Cash items on Government account		11,138,030.487		11,308,247.576
Funds for payment of Mint certificates as per contra		870,892.704		870,892.704
Cash on hand	¥		¥	
Gold coin	230,426,169.000		230,426,769.000	
Others	28,807,343.670	259,233,512.670	56,208,010.360	286,634,779.360
Total		2,512,183,688.775		2,425,216,671.815
PROFIT AND LOSS ACCOUNT				
Dr.		¥		¥
To Expenses. taxes, interest. etc.		14,938,969.359		18,854,650.563
To Balance appropriated:—				
Dividend at the rate of 10 per cent. per annum	¥ 2,250,000.000		¥ 2,250,000.000	
Reserve fund	300,000.000		350,000.000	
Payments to the Government	3,895,199.700		4,780,582.130	
Bonus and allowances	240,000.000		240,000.000	
Reserve for settlement of account re Bills discounted, Law No. 55 of 1927	433,000.000		540,000.000	
Balance carried forward	12,682,502.623	19,800,702.323	12,435,026.822	20,595,608.952
Total		34,739,671.682		39,450,259.515
Cr.		¥		¥
By Gross profits for the half-year		21,786,953.970		26,767,756.892
By Balance brought forward from last half-year		12,952,717.712		12,682,502.623
Total		34,739,671.682		39,450,259.515

Yokohama Specie Bank

(Yokohama Shokin Ginko)

The Yokohama Specie Bank is an organ charged with the special task of affording financial facilities for foreign trade through its conduct of the foreign exchange business (See pp. 328, 329, Japan Year Book, 1936). The importance of its functions cannot be over-emphasized in view of the fact that Japan, being rather poor in natural resources, has to import from foreign countries such materials for her major industries as raw cotton, wool, crude oil and iron on the one hand and on the other, export her manufactures such as piece-goods, rayon textiles and raw silk in order to support her rapidly growing population.

The clash over the issue of banknotes between it and the Bank of Chosen, which had been issuing gold notes in Manchuria, was settled on October 1, 1936, through the withdrawal of the Chao-piao in Manchoukuo including the Kwantung Leased Territory.

THE YOKOHAMA SPECIE BANK

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Not Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend
1925	100,000	555,404	312,902	18,388	12,000	12.0%
1926	100,000	489,607	298,942	18,336	12,000	12.0
1927	100,000	508,096	334,895	18,081	12,000	12.0
1928	100,000	492,761	291,162	33,628	10,000	10.0
1929	100,000	646,609	344,700	36,153	10,000	10.0
1930	100,000	654,146	367,527	26,290	13,000	13.0
1931	100,000	547,761	363,185	22,815	10,000	10.0
1932	100,000	644,054	391,925	23,387	10,000	10.0
1933	100,000	558,689	368,864	27,517	10,000	10.0
1934	100,000	551,385	369,274	30,248	10,000	10.0
1935	100,000	622,254	330,942	—	10,000	10.0

ASSETS AND LIABILITIES OF YOKOHAMA SPECIE BANK

Balance Sheet

(In ¥1,000)

	1935 Second half	1936 First half	1936 Second half
LIABILITIES			
Capital subscribed	100,000	100,000	100,000
Reserve fund	124,950	126,650	128,400
Special reserves	2,500	2,500	2,500
Redemption fund for loans	3,724	3,669	3,654
Dividends unpaid	5	6	2
Redemption fund for Government notes	74,377	11,885	11,865
Deposits, fixed	347,292	353,281	352,801
Deposits, current	102,614	97,892	100,253
Deposits at notice	49,291	40,927	39,034
Deposits, special	47,957	31,228	49,356
Loans	183,515	165,008	229,235
Loans, special	59,945	59,948	59,948
Loans, current	7,107	7,705	4,042
Bills, rediscounted	392,250	216,556	281,334
Bills sold	26,971	21,769	22,963
Current accounts	57,324	69,702	44,862
Others	20,199	19,448	31,024
Suspense receipts	30,031	32,784	31,148
Due to other banks	7,702	13,472	23,697
Exchange accounts	4,549	3,516	3,455
Net profit	16,761	17,197	17,459
Total	1,659,064	1,395,143	1,538,033
ASSETS			
Advances to Government	6,915	4,703	2,490
Advances	83,451	81,982	105,262
Advances on bills	119,252	104,860	119,237
Advances unredeemed	3,872	3,776	3,749
Advances on current accounts	65,659	61,692	65,816
Bills discounted	118,532	128,688	115,243
Bills purchased	458,945	385,435	485,060
Exchange current advances	67,719	41,029	88,637
Remittances	57,324	69,702	44,862
Special deposits in other banks	832	95	3,351
Government bonds	3,979	60	65
Deposits, current, in other banks	124,630	42,104	50,164

	1935 Second half	1936 First half	1936 Second half
Suspense payments	1,386	1,204	1,246
Bonds and debentures	494,515	426,228	411,261
Other banks accounts	1,221	3,067	1,568
Land and buildings	20,379	20,428	20,092
Bullion aud foreign money	757	975	3,854
Cash on hand	19,685	19,114	16,010
Total	1,659,064	1,395,143	1,538,033

The Hypothec Bank of Japan

(Nippon Kwangyo Ginko)

With an authorized capital standing at upwards of ¥110,000,000 and advances reaching the neighbourhood of ¥1,000,000,000, the Hypothec Bank of Japan is now, in fact as well as in name, the central organ of the nation in making loans on mortgage of immovable property. Since 1921, when a law governing the amalgamations was promulgated, it has annexed the greater part of the Agricultural and Industrial Banks (Noko Ginko), which were established as prefectural financial institutions for accommodating provincials with loans on security of immovable property.

The tendency toward such mergers was further promoted following the formation of the Hirota Cabinet, the Agricultural and Industrial Bank of Tokyo Prefecture being annexed to the Hypothec Bank. There are at present only 16 Agricultural and Industrial Banks as compared with 46 in 1900. By thus increasing its capital and enlarging its structure, the Hypothec Bank is becoming more and more positive in improving the financial conditions of cities and agricultural districts (See pp. 330–332, Japan Year Book, 1936)

THE HYPOTHEC BANK OF JAPAN

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend	Mortgage Debentures
1925	94,000	59,832	765,692	11,209	6,988	10.0%	654,499
1926	94,000	59,089	781,271	11,359	6,988	10.0	683,435
1927	99,000	82,423	816,102	11,819	6,988	10.0	693,451
1928	99,000	89,143	879,808	18,000	7,488	10.0	732,009
1929	100,000	92,314	935,896	19,028	7,588	10.0	752,105
1930	108,750	130,961	1,086,958	20,146	8,100	10.0	853,692
1931	108,750	123,393	1,109,187	20,721	8,463	10.0	896,715
1932	108,750	149,516	1,167,763	20,327	8,463	10.0	915,683
1933	108,750	145,888	1,094,070	19,961	8,463	10.0	852,806
1934	111,755	136,091	1,046,809	20,345	8,614	10.0	797,481
1935	111,775	141,959	959,781	—	—	10.0	806,538

Agricultural and Industrial Banks

(Noko Ginko)

The Agricultural and Industrial Banks are prefectural financial institutions for accommodating provincials with long-term loans at a low rate of interest on security of immovable property and, being established in every prefecture, are most useful through their connection with their central institution, the Hypothec Bank of Japan. But with a view to affording further financial facilities to local districts, the law concerning the amalgamation of the Hypothec Bank and the Agricultural and Industrial Banks was enacted in 1921. By virtue of this law the former was allowed to take over the business of the latter on condition that it establish its branches in places where head offices and branches of the latter were in existence. The Agricultural and Industrial Banks are joint-stock companies, each having a capital of not less than ¥200,000. Each of these banks has, as a general rule, for its exclusive business district a prefecture. The business of the Agricultural and Industrial Banks is principally the same as that of the Hypothec Bank of Japan. These banks may become agents for the Hypothec Bank or other Agricultural and Industrial Banks.

When acting as agents for loans made by the Hypothec Bank, Agricultural and Industrial Banks may guarantee to the bank the solvency of the debtors. They may take charge of the receipt and disbursement of the funds of prefectures or cities. They are authorized, when at least one-fourth of the nominal capital has been paid up, to issue agricultural and industrial debentures to an amount not exceeding fifteen times the paid-up capital. Such debentures, however, must not exceed the amount remaining after the deduction of the amount of pledges given for money borrowed from the Hypothec Bank from the total amount of outstanding loans redeemable by annual instalments and at a fixed time. The face-value of agricultural and industrial debentures which was originally not less than twenty yen has been reduced to ten yen and upward; and when debentures of not more than twenty yen face value are to be issued, such issue may be effected by sale. For this purpose a term must be fixed for the sale, and the amount sold within that term is taken as the amount of issue. These agricultural and industrial debentures must be redeemed by means of drawings at least twice a year in amounts proportionate to the amount to be redeemed in the same year of the loans redeemable by annual instalments except that part thereof given as security to the Hypothec Bank as mentioned above. There were 16 of these banks in existence throughout the country at the end of 1936.

AGRICULTURAL AND INDUSTRIAL BANKS

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	No. of Banks	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend	Debentures
1925	27	95,400	144,714	488,356	13,208	7,590	9.3%	336,648
1926	27	105,400	149,778	539,113	14,747	8,231	9.2	377,454
1927	25	102,400	149,425	617,438	13,701	7,999	9.2	442,984
1928	25	104,400	176,926	686,953	21,043	8,488	9.5	468,890
1929	19	104,400	165,899	705,997	21,551	8,799	9.4	506,409
1930	19	88,900	148,654	651,752	19,337	8,125	9.4	469,797
1931	19	88,900	146,030	669,906	17,386	7,523	9.4	483,554
1932	19	88,900	154,383	699,170	16,773	7,432	9.2	506,129
1933	19	88,900	162,775	672,893	17,659	7,449	9.2	496,673
1934	17	84,500	166,996	622,049	18,586	7,306	9.2	449,395
1935	17	77,750	167,833	588,472	—	—	9.0	429,542

The Industrial Bank of Japan

(Nippon Kogyo Ginko)

The primary function of the Industrial Bank of Japan is to underwrite national and prefectural bonds and company debentures and make loans on security of foundations created as prescribed by law. Its leadership among the underwriters is attracting a great deal of public attention, particularly because of its efforts to purify the underwriting world and rationalize the terms for underwriting. In addition to its endeavours for promoting financial facilities for medium-sized and small-scale industry, this bank is now being called upon to become more active in the furtherance of the shipbuilding industry along the lines of the national policy on shipping (See pp. 333, 334, Japan Year Book, 1936).

THE INDUSTRIAL BANK OF JAPAN

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Capital Fund in Trust	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend	Debentures
1925	50,000	64,411	283,816	182,598	5,413	4,000	8.0%	286,269
1926	50,000	44,025	282,269	192,003	7,279	4,000	8.0	271,375
1927	50,000	45,891	308,700	174,372	6,195	3,000	6.0	248,498

Year	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Capital Fund in Trust	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend	Debentures
1928	50,000	49,957	325,085	167,014	6,709	3,000	6.0	273,003
1929	50,000	44,988	380,630	163,492	6,765	3,000	6.0	278,575
1930	50,000	46,858	455,336	165,011	6,491	3,000	6.0	333,303
1931	50,000	52,978	486,003	176,992	6,547	3,000	6.0	343,330
1932	50,000	56,047	476,090	199,982	6,638	3,000	6.0	404,041
1933	50,000	59,236	408,177	354,645	7,800	3,000	6.0	323,840
1934	50,000	59,736	369,429	860,085	7,810	3,000	6.0	290,393
1935	50,000	69,035	335,351	—	—	—	6.0	279,658

The Hokkaido Colonial Bank (Hokkaido Takushoku Ginko)

The Hokkaido Colonial Bank was established with the object of supplying capital for enterprises for colonizing and developing Hokkaido and Karafuto (the Japanese half of Saghalien), and especially for the purpose of facilitating the supply of capital by making loans on security of agricultural products and company shares and debentures as well as making long-term loans at low interest rate on immovable property. The bank had at first a capital of ¥3,000,000 but on April 23, 1922 it was increased to ¥20,000,000, of which ¥12,500,000 has been paid up. The business scope is very much similar to that of the Hypothec Bank of Japan and the Agricultural and Industrial Banks. The bank is authorized to issue debentures of not less than ten yen face value to an amount not exceeding 15 times its paid-up capital. Such debentures, however, must not exceed the total amount outstanding of the loans which are redeemable by annal instalments or at a fixed date, and when debentures of not more than twenty yen face value are to be issued by the bank such issue may be effected by sale. These debentures must be redeemed by means of drawings at least twice a year in amounts proportionate to the amount of the said loans to be redeemed in the same year.

THE HOKKAIDO COLONIAL BANK

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend	Debentures
1925	20,000	45,933	167,330	2,373	1,250	10.0	106,474
1926	20,000	49,348	171,572	2,759	1,250	10.0	98,649
1927	20,000	55,054	180,499	3,162	1,125	9.0	115,943
1928	20,000	66,106	178,071	3,318	1,125	9.0	103,238
1929	20,000	73,571	178,779	3,360	1,125	9.0	96,938
1930	20,000	75,056	188,282	3,391	1,125	9.0	102,753
1931	20,000	69,759	187,341	2,932	1,000	8.0	102,716
1932	20,000	79,468	215,705	2,687	938	7.5	124,252
1933	20,000	89,089	217,620	2,411	875	7.0	122,909
1934	20,000	102,828	212,216	2,443	875	7.0	114,491
1935	20,000	100,485	213,559	—	875	7.0	124,862

The Bank of Taiwan (Taiwan Ginko)

The Bank of Taiwan was founded in September, 1889, four years after Japan's occupation of Formosa, as the result of the Sino-Japanese War.

It is a joint-stock company with an authorized capital of ¥15,000,000, of which ¥13,125,000 has been paid up.

The Bank is privileged to issue banknotes of denomination of one yen and upward, which are at any time convertible into gold yen. It is required to hold as conversion reserve gold and silver coins and bullion of the same amount as the notes issued; the amount of notes not covered by this specie reserve is limited to ¥20,000,000; they may be issued on security of Government paper money and securities, notes of the Bank of Japan, and other bonds and commercial bills of a reliable nature. Notes issued beyond this limit are subject to a tax of not less than three per cent, per annum.

The Bank of Taiwan has its head office in Taihoku and has thirty-two branches. Mr. Jiro Yasuda is its president.

THE BANK OF TAIWAN

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend
1925	45,000	134,380	670,859	1,136	986	5.0%
1926	45,000	92,806	666,487	2,401	1,971	5.0
1927	15,000	75,375	540,732	—	—	—
1928	15,000	76,090	285,911	—	—	—
1929	15,000	71,678	282,215	—	—	—
1930	15,000	73,661	273,243	859	—	—
1931	15,000	78,920	261,642	858	—	—
1932	15,000	95,070	245,538	1,065	395	3.0
1933	15,000	101,457	227,944	1,296	395	3.0
1934	15,000	112,610	214,891	1,443	395	3.0
1935	15,000	120,744	186,933	—	—	3.0

The Bank of Chosen (Chosen Ginko)

The Bank of Korea was established in October, 1909, its name being changed to the Bank of Chosen in 1911 by virtue of the Bank of Chosen Act issued by the Government following Korea's annexation to Japan in April, 1910. The bank took over the assets and liabilities of the Bank of Korea, following the transfer of the assets and liabilities of the Dai-Ichi (First) Bank, which had been established in Korea since 1879, and which had received its right of issuing notes in that country in 1901, and which had acted as the central Japanese banking institution since the close of the Russo-Japanese War. The bank is authorized to issue bank notes. In 1917 the bank's notes were given sole right of legal tender in the Kwantung Leased Territory and along the South Manchuria Railway, and the limit of its guaranteed note issue was increased to ¥50,000,000. The bank greatly increased its activities during the World War extending to Japan proper, where it commenced foreign exchange transactions. The financial reaction following the World War caused it to narrow its business activities. It wrote off frozen assets to the amount of ¥36,000,000 for the first half of 1925 and halved its capital to ¥40,000,000. The bank borrowed a large amount of money from the Bank of Japan after 1920 on 10 years' repayment. Through revision of the Bank of Chosen Act in 1924 the right of control of the bank was transferred from the Governor-General of Korea to the Minister of Finance.

THE BANK OF CHOSEN

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend
1925	40,000	132,736	356,674	706	587	2.5%
1926	40,000	135,871	369,776	1,597	1,175	5.0
1927	40,000	197,713	315,915	1,382	940	4.0
1928	40,000	149,919	319,408	1,585	940	4.0
1929	40,000	151,150	314,723	1,865	940	4.0
1930	40,000	98,785	266,554	1,828	940	4.0
1931	40,400	111,462	297,400	1,835	940	4.0
1932	40,000	193,932	337,468	1,849	940	4.0
1933	40,000	215,105	354,508	1,853	940	4·0
1034	40,000	228,193	420,533	1,847	940	4.0
1035	40,000	292,122	412,333	—	—	4.0

Trust Business

In 1935 there were in this country 31 trust companies, the authorized capitals of which total ¥259,000,000. Special mention must be made of the fact that most of the leading institutions of this kind in the country are under the

management of the nation's foremost financiers and are enjoying great confidence as the trustees because of their firm foundations. The assets of the trusts amounted to as much as ¥2,200,000,000 compared with less than ¥600,000,000 recorded at the end of 1926. Of this amount, ¥1,800,000,000 was money in trust. With these funds, the trust companies are contributing a great deal to the industrial development of the country by making loans to the amount of ¥970,000,000 and investing in securities to the amount of ¥1,100,000,000.

A decree of the Ministry of Finance forbids the trust companies to accept in trust less than ¥500 in one sum and to be entrusted with money for a period of less than two years (although there are specified exceptions), thereby defining the spheres of activities of the trust companies and differentiating their work from that of the ordinary banks. The greater part of the money entrusted to the trusts is on comparatively short term contracts while over 60 per cent of the deposits with the ordinary banks are on fixed accounts, but the leading trust companies are now joining in the adoption of a policy of encouraging long term trusts by affording high dividend rates to trusts of longer terms, and are apparently working to clarify the significance of their existence as a service different from that of the ordinary banks.

1936 Trust Business The conditions of the trust business world during 1936 were very different from the past when they were characterized by a remarkable increase in the amount of money held in trust and by a difficulty in profitably utilizing the funds because of lowered rates of interest. In the first place, the amount of money held in trust during 1936 only recorded an increase of slightly over 60 per cent of the increase for the preceding year which was ¥160,000,000 for all the trust companies in the country, and possibilities of operating the funds improved. Though the interest for advances, or public bonds and debentures could not avoid a decline under the low-interest policy of Finance Minister Baba, actual receipts from interest did not fall because of actual business conditions. And not only did receipts from interest increase but the return from trust fees and the profits yielded by the proper accounts also showed profitable advances. The increase in the profits yielded by the proper accounts is attributable to the congestion of the issuance of public bonds and debentures during the five months beginning with June. In view of the improvement in the conditions of the banking world, the business conditions of the trust companies during this year (1937) are expected to continue favourable.

Increase in Trusts The trust estates, which are the principal sources of profit to the trust companies, continued to increase remarkably during 1936 but the rate of increase was much slower than that of the preceding year. To cite trust money alone, which it may be more pertinent to consider than trust estates as a whole, the increase in 1934 amounted to ¥187,000,000 and that in 1935 to ¥164,000,000 while the increase in 1936 was only ¥103,000,000, an increase of only 63 per cent over the figures for the preceding year. Further, it is to be noted that the increase was much slacker during the latter half of the year when the amount was ¥26,000,000 than during the first half when the amount was ¥38,000,000. Details are shown in the following table :

TRUST ESTATES THROUGHOUT THE COUNTRY

(In units of one million yen)

Items	End of 1932	End of 1933	End of 1934	End of 1935	End of 1st Half of 1936	End of 2nd Half of 1936
Money in Trust	1,220	1,387	1,574	1,737	1,815	1,841
Special Trust Money	10	12	8	9	9	7
Securities in Trust	181	187	209	255	293	356
Credits in Trust	11	9	9	6	6	4
Immovable Property in Trust	29	32	32	32	34	35
Total	1,453	1,628	1,834	2,041	2,159	2,245

Changes in Operation Though not conspicuous outwardly, considerable changes have taken place in the operation of the trust estates. In the consideration of this point, let us first examine the following figures which are illustrative of the conditions of the operation of the trust estates as a whole:

OPERATION OF TRUST ESTATES

(In units of one million yen)

Items	End of 1932	End of 1933	End of 1934	End of 1935	End of 1st Half, 1936	End of 2nd Half, 1936
Securities	476	578	805	944	1,071	1,135
Loans	877	928	899	965	969	985
Security Loans	20	23	24	36	21	26
Immovable Property	36	40	40	42	44	44
Life Insurance Credits	1	1	2	2	3	3
Cash Deposits	38	53	58	46	45	47
Others	3	3	3	3	3	2
Total	1,453	1,629	1,831	2,040	2,160	2,245

The security investments increased by ¥191,000,000, which should be considered together with the fact that the securities received in trust during the year reached the ¥100,000,000 mark. The increased investments included ¥82,000,000 in national bonds, ¥47,000,000 in local bonds, ¥37,000,000 in debentures and ¥15,000,000 in stocks. On the other hand, the total increase in loans throughout the year amounted to only ¥20,000,000 or approximately 10 per cent of the increased amount of securities. It is, however, interesting to note that the loans was characterized by a decrease in security investments and a rapid increase in the mortgages of fixed assets, loans on security and advances to public organizations.

Needless to say, the increase in the aforementioned items is to be attributed to the fact that on account of the extremely depressed conditions of the underwriting world during the latter half of 1936, the industrial concerns and local public organizations confronted with financial difficulties had to turn to banks and trust companies for loans. It must be added that the funds used for making the loans were secured from the calling in of previous advances guaranteed by securities, which are much of the nature of loans at call and as such the interest charged on them is at lower rates. It follows that although there was no remarkable change in the total amount of loans made, the changes in the substance of the loans as referred to above would naturally bring about an increase in the profits yielded by the trust accounts. The fact that the total receipts in interest during 1935 and 1936 did not increase was due to the low level of money rates.

Reduced Dividend The dividend to the beneficiaries of the large trust companies as the Mitsui, Mitsubishi, Sumitomo, Yasuda, Kyodo and Kwansai was at the rate of 4.2 per cent. That the dividend rate was kept unaltered during that year was an extraordinary phenomenon in the light of the low-interest tendency which was then prevailing and for this, the circumstances surrounding the increased dividend for the shareholders of the Sumitomo were responsible.

The Sumitomo had been intending to raise the dividend for its shareholders from 5 to 6 per cent and had applied to the Ministry of Finance for the necessary permission. In view of its policy for an improvement in the basis of banks and trust companies, however, the Finance Ministry declined to grant the permit. Nevertheless, on account of the application it had filed with the Finance Ministry, the Sumitomo found it necessary to avoid lowering the dividend on the trust accounts in order to save dividend for 1935 at the sam level as the latter half of 1934. The large profits yielded by the operation of its trust property rendered it easy for the Sumitomo to do so but some of those which were forced to follow suit found it more or less difficult.

The rates of dividend given by the leading trust companies of the country during the past three years are shown in the following table :

RATES OF DIVIDEND FOR BENEFICIARIES

	1st Half of 1934	2nd Half of 1934	1st Half of 1935	2nd Half of 1935	1st Half of 1939	2nd Half of 1932
Mitsui	{4.5 3.2	4.3 4.0	4.2 4.0	4.2 4.0	4.1 3.9	3.9 3.7
Mitsubishi	4.4	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.0	3.8
Sumitomo	4.4	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.0	3.8
Yasuda	4.4	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.0	3.8
Kyodo	4.4	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.0	3.8
Kwansai	4.4	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.0	3.8
Osaka	4.4	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.0	3.8

It is to be noted that the dividend was lowered in the first half of 1936 when the Sumitomo finally secured its long desired permission of the Ministry of Finance to increase the dividend to its shareholders. A further decrease took place in the second half of the year. Apart from the impression created by such action on the part of the Sumitomo that the trust companies were a little too calculating, there were external circumstances which to a large extent necessitated the lowering of the dividend to the beneficiaries of trusts.

Two-term System The previous Minister of Finance, Dr. Eiichi Baba, upon his assumption of the portfolio, began to carry out his policy for low interest rates and at the same time hastened to bring about an improvement in the conditions of banking institutions on the lines of the principle of "One bank for one district." The bankers, being distressed at this prnciple and the low-interest policy, soon started criticising the trust companies for their dividends to beneficiaries. As a result, the Ministry of Finance resolved to revise the Trust Business Law and prolong the term of trust for money from two years.

Under these circumstances, the trust businessmen held a series of meetings among themselves to discuss a spontaneous adjustment of the relations between their dividends to beneficiaries and the interest rates of banks for deposits. During the discussion it was proposed to fix the rates of dividend to beneficiaries according to an agreement among the trust companies and to draw a line between the rate of dividend for long-term trusts (over five years) and that for short-term trusts (less than five years), following the example set in 1931 by the Mitsui Trust Company, reducing the rate of dividend for short-term trusts to come more in line with the interest rates of banks for fixed deposits.

It was decided to enforce the two-term system from December, 1936. While the 3.8 per cent dividend may be left unaltered for long-term trusts, the short-term trusts are expected to declare a dividend of 3.6 per cent against he 3.3 per cent interest for fixed deposits with banks.

Business Conditions The profits of the trust companies throughout the country in 1936 showed an increase over the figures for the preceding year. Even in the absence of an increase in the profits derived from the operation of trust property, the receipts of the trust companies swelled because the dividend for the beneficiaries was lowered.

In addition to the increase in the trust fees, there was an increase in the profits derived from the proper accounts, which was more remarkable in the latter half of the year than in the first half. The principal cause of this increase was to be found in the increased activities in the under-writing world. Under the impetus of the low-interest policy of Finance Minister Baba, the underwriting world, which had long been in a depressed condition, began in June to display considerable activity, which was continued until September. This enabled the trust companies to underwrite more public bonds and debentures and thus get more commission.

To sum up, the business profits of the trust companies as well as the percentage of profits are showing an upward trend.

Details of the business conditions of the leading trust companies of the country during 1936 are shown in the following table with a comparison with the preceding three years: (In units of one thousand yen)

1936	Trust Fees	Yields of Proper Accounts	Total Profits	Total Expenditure	Net Profit	Percentage of Profit	Percentage of Dividend
First half:							
Mitsui	1,223	1,138	2,361	1,276	1,085	2.89	0.70
Mitsubishi	490	658	1,148	515	632	1.68	0.60
Sumitomo	799	919	1,718	1,049	669	2.67	0.60
Yasuda	523	715	1,238	703	536	1.42	0.50
Kawasaki	388	230	618	323	295	1.47	0.60
Total	3,423	3,660	7,083	3,866	3,217	2.03	—
Second half:							
Mitsui	1,238	1,695	2,931	1,778	1,153	3.07	0.70
Mitsubishi	576	1,013	1,589	760	826	2.21	0.60
Sumitomo	832	1,165	1,997	1,289	708	1.83	0.60
Yasuda	515	1,037	1,553	1,008	545	1.45	0.50
Kawasaki	394	286	681	414	267	1.33	0.60
Total	3,555	5,194	8,751	5,249	3,502	2.22	—

	Trust Fees	Yields of Proper Accounts	Total Profits	Total Expenditure	Net Profit	Percentage of Profit	Percentage of Dividend
1935							
First half:	3,271	3,351	6'622	3,554	3,066	1.94	—
Second half:	3,217	3,541	6,757	3,614	3,142	1.99	—
1934							
First half:	3,072	4,533	7,605	4,448	3,156	2.00	—
Second half:	3,160	3,856	7,016	3,905	3,109	1.97	—
1933							
First half:	2,847	3,367	6,214	3,648	2,564	1.62	—
Second half:	2,920	4,547	7,469	4,530	2,938	1.86	—

TRUST COMPANIES

At the End of Nov.	No. of Head Offices	No. of Branch Offices	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital	Reserve Funds	Net Profit	Divdend
1930	37	14	¥293,500,000	¥82,700,000	¥19,654,873	¥14,700,688	¥3,295,581
1931	37	14	288,500,000	81,450,000	23,202,866	14,856,542	3,387,781
1932	37	14	288,500,000	81,450,000	25,849,983	15,464,612	3,428,578
1933	36	16	287,000,000	82,076,075	29,536,346	18,019,865	3,689,200
1934	33	16	282,000,000	78,336,575	34,180,490	10,984,787	3,674,498
1935	32	17	272,000,000	76,308,575	39,615,760	10,190,471	3,639,000
1936	31	15	359,000,000	74,670,000	43,224,000	—	—

ASSETS

(In ¥1,000)

Companies' Own Account

At the end of each year	Unpaid Capital	Advances	Deposits	Securities	Premises	Guarantees	Miscellaneous Assets	Losses	Total
1930	210,800	29,307	8,164	61,917	13,098	10,262	3,572	434	342,742
1931	207,050	30,660	8,519	60,584	13,190	7,767	1,780	745	337,417
1932	207,050	33,658	8,902	59,315	13,757	8,403	3,294	867	342,303
1933	204,924	31,206	9,101	67,935	13,292	8,616	3,471	1,239	346,786
1934	203,663	35,695	8,887	71,988	12,618	7,597	1,871	289	348,849
1935	195,692	32,936	10,307	77,567	11,972	—	9,770	1,274	338,245
1936	284,330	33,483	—	81,368	—	—	—	—	—

Trust Account

	Securities	Advances	Deposits	Movable and Real Estate	Miscellaneous Assets	Cash in Hand	Total
1930	460,232	886,431	43,192	30,307	5,640	3,355	1,577,649
1931	478,479	877,754	50,986	32,469	30,394	4,740	1,642,312
1932	486,303	876,081	50,278	36,226	7,946	3,997	1,628,413
1933	568,901	923,807	47,529	40,565	30,758	4,188	1,765,289
1934	799,418	896,288	54,960	40,648	31,443	3,813	2,058,923
1935	940,644	949,136	50,002	42,669	42,984	3,718	2,029,156
1936	1,135,424	985,090	47,364	44,272	—	3,155	2,245,156

LIABILITIES

Companies' Own Account

	Authorized Capital	Reserve Funds	Guarantees	Miscellaneous Liabilites	Net Profit	Total
1930	293,500	19,655	10,262	8,238	7,272	342,742
1931	288,500	23,203	7,767	7,145	6,930	337,417
1932	288,500	25,850	8,403	5,879	8,180	342,303
1933	287,000	29,536	8,616	7,076	9,538	346,786
1934	282,000	34,180	7,597	9,612	10,557	348,849
1935	272,000	39,616	7,045	14,846	10,190	338,245
1936	359,000	43,224	—	—	—	—

Trust Account

	Money in Trust	Trust Fund other than Money in Trust	Securities in Trust	Claims in Trust	Real Estates in Trust	Superficies in Trust	Total
1930	1,178,749	7,051	198,870	16,589	27,896	2	1.577,649
1931	1,231,851	7,816	189,800	16,087	29,266	2	1,642,312
1932	1,226,005	9,858	183,009	11,794	30,143	2	1,628,413
1933	1,378,375	11,641	183,867	9,314	32,536	15	1,765,289
1934	1,570,191	8,962	205,824	9,013	32,566	14	2,058,923
1935	1,729,992	10,169	250,204	6,052	32,722	14	2,029,156
1936	1,841,563	7,684	356,027	4,528	35,886	15	2,245,156

Mutual Loan Companies (Mujin Kaisha)

In addition to the banking institutions there are mutual loan companies (Mujin Kaisha), which are credit establishments peculiar to Japan and are based on mutual credit among the middle and lower classes of people. Mutual credit societies have existed in Japan since olden times. The Mutual Loan Society Law was promulgated in June, 1915, whereby the mutual loan societies acquired a legal standing. But in order to enable these societies to perform the function of financial institutions for lower classes and to extend their business operations, fundamental amendments were made in the law in 1931. According to the provisions of the Mutual Loan Company Law, put into effect on and after July 1, 1931, the business of the companies is to make the subscribers pay money in instalments during a fixed period and then to distribute it, in lots, among the subscribers, by drawings, biddings or some similar means, the number of such lots and the sum of money to be thus distributed being previously fixed. Each company must have a nominal capital of more than ¥30,000 and a paid-up capital of more than ¥15,000. No company is allowed to carry on this kind of business without permission of the Minister of Finance. Those so engaged are prohibited from carrying on any other business at the same time and are under obligation to present business reports to the Government. Restrictions also are put on the use of business funds.

The total amount handled by these mutual credit societies throughout the country is given as between ¥3,000,000,000 and ¥4,000,000,000 and members of the societies are said to number some 4,000,000 persons. Many prefectural governments have issued decrees controlling the societies with a view to preventing evil practices.

According to the latest figures, there are at present 254 mutual loan companies throughout the country and their authorized capitals total ¥39,000,000. The number of groups of subscriptions to all these companies is given as more than 72,000 divided into 2,170,000 lots. The total contracts amount to ¥1,380,000, and loans to over ¥610,000,000.

MUTUAL LOAN COMPANIES

ASSETS

(In ¥1,000)

Year	No. of Companies	No. of Branches	Unpaid Capital	Money yet to be paid in instalments	Loans	Total, including others
1929	260	134	18,214	47,745	31,789	129,279
1930	264	141	18,580	56,512	36,769	149,162
1931	267	149	18,702	60,912	42,284	163,406
1932	274	158	19,393	71,933	41,728	177,911
1933	276	174	19,744	67,616	44,271	188,071
1934	273	191	19,209	63,002	51,473	201,348
1935	262	—	18,963	56,041	61,723	206,844

LIABILITIES

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized capital	Reserves	Net profit	Total, including others
1929	34,372	6,713	2,154	129,279
1930	36,121	7,868	2,193	149,162

Year	Authorized capital	Reserves	Net profit	Total, including others
1931	36,400	8,827	1,998	163,406
1932	37,655	9,557	1,922	171,911
1933	38,325	9,554	2,051	188,071
1934	38,540	9,927	2,139	201,348
1935	38,030	10,708	—	206,844

Co-operative Credit Associations

Credit Associations acquired a legal standing under a new system as defined by the so-called Co-operative Association Law, promulgated in March, 1900. The business of these associations is to lend money to their members in order to better their economic conditions and to employ their savings. By virtue of the revision of the law in July, 1917, the business of the Credit Associations has been expanded and they may use the savings of the families of their members, public corporations or legal persons who do not aim at profit. Especially, the Credit Associations in cities or city areas designated by the competent Minister of State may, besides the business above described, discount bills for their members and handle savings of persons who are not their members but reside inside the same boundary. Therefore, they may be called the People's Banks in city areas, and are placed under the control of the Minister of Finance and Minister of Agriculture and Forestry. The actual number of these associations was 271 at the end of December, 1935.

Year	Money paid	Loans	Savings	Total B/S
1930	¥63,361,120	¥136,199,660	163,279,668	269,463,423
1931	61,496,440	143,046,052	165,351,942	272,554,757
1932	58,739,865	138,832,405	160,233,203	271,284,152
1933	56,493,820	158,026,038	177,376,486	292,271,078
1934	58,516,000	160,450,000	189,760,000	309,983,000
1935	59,028,000	164,584,000	218,676,000	326,973,000

Central Chest for Co-operative Associations

(Sangyo Kumiai Chuo Kinko)

As an institution for regulating the movement of funds of the Federations of Co-operative Associations and of individual Co-operative Associations and for bringing them into close touch with the central money market, the Central Chest for Co-operative Associations was established by law on April 5, 1923, Its capital at present amounts to ¥30,700,000, of which ¥15,000,000 is invested by the Government and the remainder, ¥15,-700,000, by the Co-operative Associations throughout the country. The Associations that participate in the investment amount to more than 80 per cent of the total number existing. The principal business of the Central Chest for Co-operative Associations is at follows :

(1) To make without security loans redeemable at a fixed time within a period of not more than five years to Federations of Co-operative Associations or Co-operative Associations ;

(2) To make loans without security, redeemable by annual instalments within a period not exceeding thirty years to the Federations of Co-operative Associations or Co-operative Associations, provided that the total amount of such loans does not exceed one-half of the paid-up capital and debentures issued ;

(3) To discount bills for, or allow overdrafts to, Federations of Co-operative Associations or Co-operative Associations ;

(4) To undertake exchange business for Federations of Co-operative Associations or Co-operative Associations ;

(5) To receive money as deposits from Federations of Co-operative Associations, public corporations, or legal persons not engaged in business aiming at profit ;

(6) To take securities for safe custody for Federations of Co-operative Associations or Co-operative Associations ; and

(7) To buy and sell on a consignment basis securities for Federations of Co-operative Associations or Co-operative Associations.

The Central Chest is authorized to issue debentures and is subject to control both of the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry and Minister of Finance. The assets and liabilities of these associations follow :

ASSETS

(In ¥1,000)

March of	Unpaid Investment	Loans made	Deposits in Banks	Securities	Total, including Others
1930	4,459	47,535	31,587	14,018	100,283
1931	2,614	78,774	23,149	13,183	120,880
1932	1,159	93,298	16,908	11,823	127,891
1933	381	127,332	40,145	18,493	192,073
1934	14	150,970	30,532	57,216	245,786
1935	—	141,314	28,247	73,897	248,584
1936	—	147,419	23,499	79,177	256,572

LIABILITEES

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Investment by Government	Investment by Others	Co-operative Debentures	Fixed Deposits	Total, including Others
1930	15,000	15,700	24,210	36,291	100,283
1931	15,000	15,700	41,240	35,661	120,880
1932	15,000	15,700	41,419	32,447	127,891
1933	15,000	15,700	59,503	59,624	192,073
1934	15,000	15,700	64,411	84,454	245,785
1935	15,000	15,700	84,291	86,149	248,584
1936	15,000	15,700	86,575	99,383	256,572

The Big Seven

In the commercial banking world, of non-governmental banks there are seven which stand out from all the others in importance, these are the Mitsui, Mitsubishi, Dai-Ichi, Sumitomo, Yasuda, Daihyaku (the Hundredth Bank) and Sanwa, the last named was created by the amalgamation of three banks, i.e. Konoike, Yamaguchi and the 34th in December, 1933 :

BUSINESS CONDITIONS OF THE BIG SEVEN

(Figures in ¥1,000)

1. Dai-Ichi Bank

	1934		1935		1936	
	1st Term	2nd Term	1st Term	2nd Term	1st Term	2nd Term
Paid-up capital	57,500	57,500	57,500	57,500	57,500	57,500
Total profits	7,410	8,612	6,489	6,561	6,059	8,211
Percentage of profits	27.8	29.9	22.5	22.8	21.0	28.5
Dividend	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	8,0
Percentage of Reserved profits	6.97	7.16	6.26	6.29	5.22	5.82
Total deposits	816,888	852,104	868,455	915,924	940,364	972,083
Total reserves	66,896	68,141	69,133	70,142	71,142	72,142

2. Mitsubishi Bank

	1934		1935		1936	
	1st Term	2nd Term	1st Term	2nd Term	1st Term	2nd Term
Paid-up capital	62,500	62,500	62,500	62,500	62,500	62,500
Total profits	11,499	5,815	6,471	6,136	6,638	—
Percentage of profits	36.7	18.6	20.7	19.6	21.2	—
Dividend	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0
Percentage of Reserved profits	7.60	5.27	5.75	5.51	5.93	—
Total deposits	696,493	722,648	752,217	730,607	805,029	—
Total reserves	42,000	44,000	46,000	48,000	50,000	52,000

3. Yasuda Bank

	1934		1935		1936	
	1st Term	2nd Term	1st Term	2nd Term	1st Term	2nd Term
Paid-up capital	92,750	92,750	92,750	92,750	92,750	92,750
Total profits	6,706	7,040	7,121	7,564	7,445	9,561
Percentage of profits	14.4	15.1	15.3	16.3	16.0	20.6
Dividend	7.0	7.0	7.0	7.0	7.0	7.0
Percentage of Reserved profits	5.04	5.27	5.30	5.57	5.50	8.34
Total deposits	800,894	807,130	818,337	832,562	889,384	928,730
Total reserves	64,600	65,500	66,500	67,500	68,500	69,500

4. Mitsui Bank

	1934		1935		1936	
	1st Term	2nd Term	1st Term	2nd Term	1st Term	2nd Term
Paid-up capital	60,000	60,000	60,000	60,000	60,000	60,000
Total profits	8,327	6,551	6,174	5,966	6,106	—
Percentage of profits	27.7	21.8	20.5	19.8	20.3	—
Dividend	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	0.8
Percentage of Reserved profits	6.78	5.90	5.65	5.50	5.61	—
Total deposits	759,531	748,556	759,522	796,293	828,519	—
Total reserves	55,800	56,800	57,800	58,800	59,800	—

5. Sumitomo Bank

	1934		1935		1936	
	1st Term	2nd Term	1st Term	2nd Term	1st Term	2nd Term
Paid-up capital	50,000	50,000	50,000	50,000	50,000	50,000
Total profits	8,513	6,714	6,446	6,960	5,920	—
Percentage of profits	34.0	26.8	25.7	27.8	23.6	—
Dividend	7.0	7.0	7.0	7.0	7.0	7.0
Percentage of Reserved profits	7.76	7.17	7.05	7.27	6.97	—
Total deposits	827,247	872,527	886,848	952,297	970,009	—
Total reserves	33,000	35,000	36,500	38,000	39,500	—

6. Sanwa Bank

	1934		1935		1936	
	1st Term	2nd Term	1st Term	2nd Term	1st Term	2nd Term
Paid-up capital	72,200	72,200	72,200	72,200	72,200	72,200
Total profits	6,547	5,236	5,448	5,372	5,413	5,679
Percentage of profits	18.1	14.5	15.0	14.8	14.9	15.7
Dividend	7.0	7.0	7.0	7.0	7.0	7.0
Percentage of Reserved profits	5.93	4.90	5.03	5.02	5.06	5.29
Total deposits	1,063,156	1,077,165	1,080,200	1,114,970	1,151,518	1,197,994
Total reserves	23,010	24,260	25,510	26,760	28,010	29,260

7. Dai-Hyaku Bank

	1934		1935		1936	
	1st Term	2nd Term	1st Term	2nd Term	1st Term	2nd Term
Paid-up capital	23,072	23,072	23,072	23,072	23,072	28,072
Total profits	1,642	1,824	1,491	1,523	1,648	7,355
Percentage of profits	14.2	15.8	12.9	13.2	14.2	57.5
Dividend	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0
Percentage of Reserved profits	5.48	5.93	5.02	5.12	5.49	8.76
Total deposits	338,267	351,975	344,428	372,406	384,370	727,260
Total reserves	7,700	8,000	8,300	8,600	8,900	13,900

(Note:—The figures for the second term of 1936 showed a remarkable increase because the Hundredth Bank annexed the Kawasaki Savings Bank and the Tokyo Savings Bank on September 14, 1936.)

FOREIGN BANKS WITH BRANCHES IN JAPAN

Name	Nationality	No. of Branches in Japan	Places of Branches in Japan
Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation	Great Britain	3	Kobé, Yokohama, Tokyo
Chartered Bank of India, Australia & China	„	2	Yokohama, Kobé
National City Bank of New York	U. S. A.	4	Kobé, Yokohama, Tokyo, Okaka
Banque Franco-Japonaise	France	2	Tokyo, Kobé
Nederlandsche Handel-Maatschappij	Holland	1	Kobé
Nederlandsch-Indische Handelsbank	„	2	Kobé, Tokyo
Bank of China	China	1	Osaka

Clearing Houses

The establishment of the first clearing house in Japan took place in Osaka in 1879, preceding by eight years that in Tokyo, where one was established in 1887. Cash transactions marked the commercial society of this country early in the Meiji era and no transactions in bills or cheques were then conducted. Viscount Shibusawa and other business leaders encouraged paper transactions among business men at large and the time soon came when it was necessary for Tokyo to establish a clearing house, one being eventually brought into existence by the Bankers' Association in 1887. The first president of the institution was the late Viscount Shibusawa and the present holder of that office is Mr. Hirozo Mori, Vice-president of Yasuda Bank. At the end of 1936, there were 45 clearing houses in Japan. The total of bills cleared at the clearing-houses throughout the country in the year 1936 reached 42,945,000 bills and ¥69,856,000,000. As compared with the preceding year the number of bills increased by 2,219,000 (5.4%), while the amount gained was ¥5,998,000,000 (9.3%). The amount of clearings in Tokyo and Osaka and All-Japan were as follows :

BILLS CLEARED AT THE CLEARING-HOUSES THROUGHOUT THE COUNTRY

(000's omitted)

Year	Tokyo		Osaka		(All Japan)	
	No. of Bills	Amount	No. of Bills	Amount	No. of Bills	Amount
1923	10,532	¥30,715,120	8,611	¥23,993,188	28,791	¥68,058,429
1924	11,463	30,739,301	9,298	26,830,403	31,499	73,956,977
1925	13,041	37,320,356	9,619	27,577,761	34,274	83,338,305
1926	14,307	39,460,447	10,279	28,386,749	37,622	88,792,553
1927	12,517	27,327,475	9,393	20,130,091	34,387	62,556,120
1928	13,117	31,126,238	10,009	21,684,365	36,944	68,592,995
1929	13,525	25,070,553	10,390	22,374,043	38,338	63,343,632
1930	12,721	21,366,617	9,725	13,889,655	36,146	51,376,234
1931	12,408	21,593,184	9,280	14,432,147	34,631	46,022,042
1932	12,646	26,562,718	9,471	15,624,537	34,387	52,751,946
1933	13,577	31,549,888	10,412	22,175,225	37,296	66,871,808
1934	14,253	25,338,571	9,547	24,438,933	37,739	64,376,620
1935	15,153	25,512,016	10,472	22,688,248	40,725	63,858,341
1936	15,887	27,400,000	11,090	24,979,000	42,945	69,856,000

Postal Savings Deposits

The postal savings deposits system of Japan was adopted from the Post Office Savings Act of Great Britain. It was established by an Imperial Ordinance of August, 1874, and was enfored in May of the following year at 22 post offices in the country. The history of this service in Japan is one of the oldest in the world, older than that of Germany or France and 36 years older than that of America. At first the annual interest rate was 3 per cent, the same as at present, which has been enforced since October 1, 1932. The

maximum amount one could deposit was at first ¥500. In the first year of enforcement the amount totalled ¥51,224 for 1,843 depositors. In 1882 the Mail Act was passed and the deposit business became jointly controlled by the Minister of Finance and the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce. The service was looked after by 4,000 post offices in the country. In 1890 the Postal Savings Deposit Act was issued. In 1920 the Exchange Deposit Bureau was established and was later replaced by the Deposits Bureau in the Ministry of Communications. (See Chapter VIII.)

The number of depositors and amount of savings since 1925 have been as follows :

March 31,	Number	Total Amount
1925	30,386,806	¥1,131,250,271
1926	31,549,989	1,166,998,703
1927	32,410,752	1,253,539,935
1928	34,425,812	1,636,255,042
1929	36,485,875	1,863,703,742
1930	37,968,850	2,201,245,552
1931	38,257,981	2,497,154,253
1932	39,066,040	2,815,868,019
1933	39,838,438	2,772,004,751
1934	41,625,306	2,919,345,286
1935	43,908,510	3,062,750,943
1936	46,568,533	3,232,947,127
1937	49,564,766	3,485,835,081

Currency System

Coinage The present coinage system is based on the Coinage Law issued in 1897, which established the gold monometalic system. Its principal points are summarized as follows :

(1) The coinage unit is 2 fun (0.75 grammes) of pure gold, that is, one-half of the former gold unit, and is to be denominated one yen.

(2) The standard gold coins are of three denominations, namely, five yen, ten yen and twenty yen ; the former gold coins pass for double their nominal value.

(3) The subsidiary silver coins are of two denominations, namely, twenty sen and fifty sen ; the former five-sen, ten-sen, twenty-sen and fifty-sen silver pieces are allowed to circulate.

(4) The other subsidiary coins are the nickel five-sen and ten-sen pieces and the bronze one-sen and five-rin pieces ; the former five-sen nickel as well as two-sen, one-sen, five-rin and one-rin copper pieces are allowed to circulate.

(5) The fineness and weights of the coins prescribed in the Coinage Law are as follows :

(a) Fineness

Gold coin pure gold 900 copper 100
Silver coins
pure silver 720 copper 280
Nickel coins
pure nickel 1000
Bronze coins copper 950 tin 40 zinc 10

(b) Weights

Gold coins:

Denominations	Weights Grammes
20-yen pieces	16.6666
10-yen pieces	8.3333
5-yen pieces	4.1666

Subsidiary coins:

Denominations	Weights Grammes
50-sen silver	4.95
20-sen silver	1.98
10-sen nickel	4.00
5-sen nickel	2.80
1-sen bronze	3.75
5-rin bronze	2.10

Paper Notes of Small Denominations In order to make good the deficiency of subsidiary silver coins caused by the war, paper notes of small denominations, namely, fifty-sen, twenty-sen and ten-sen, were issued as a substitute in accordance with the Imperial Ordinance No. 202 promulgated on October 29, 1917. The issue of these petty notes went on increasing in volume till at the end of February, 1922, it reached 218 million yen, the largest on record. After that time the volume gradually dwindled in consequence of the minting of new subsidiary coins to displace the notes, the latter coming down, by the end of December, 1934, to ¥11,160,000, consisting of ¥5,482,000 50-sen notes, ¥1,111,500 20-sen ntoes and ¥4,566,500 10-sen notes.

Convertible Bank Notes In May, 1884, there was promulgated the Convertible Bank-notes Law providing for the issue by the Bank of Japan of bank-notes which were to be converted into silver, but on the adoption of the gold standard in 1897 these notes became convertible into gold. Certain amendments were made in the law in June, 1932, and put into effect on and after July 1. The principal points may be summarized as follows :

The Bank of Japan is required to hold as a conversion reserve against the issue of notes gold and silver coins and bullion to the same amount as that of the notes issued ; and the total value of silver coins and bullion must not exceed one-fourth of the entire con-

version reserve. The Bank of Japan may, in addition to the notes specified in the preceding paragraph, issue bank-notes to the amount of ¥1,000,000,000 against Government bonds, Treasury notes and other reliable securities or commercial bills. The Bank may also be allowed to issue notes against such securities beyond the maximum mentioned above. In case the issue in excess of this limit lasts more than 15 days the approval of the Minister of Finance is required, and such issues outstanding after a period of 15 days are subject to a tax of at least 3 per cent per annum of the amount so issued. The bank-notes are of 7 denominations, namely, one yen, 5 yen, 10 yen, 20 yen, 50 yen, 100 yen and 200 yen.

Currency System of Formosa and Korea As regards the currency system of Formosa, up to October, 1908, recognition was given to the circulation at the market price in gold of the silver yen, similar to that in circuration in Japan proper until the revision of the Coinage Law in 1897; but the exchange of silver was brought to a conclusion at the end of April, 1909. In April, 1911, the Coinage Law of the Empire was brought into operation in the island, so that the system in Formosa is now absolutely identical with that in force in Japan proper. The Bank of Taiwan issued, at first, bank-notes convertible into silver yen, but these notes were, upon the reform of the currency system, withdrawn from circulation by April, 1909. In June, 1904, the bank was allowed to issue bank-notes convertible into gold coins, holding as conversion reserve gold and silver coins and bullion to the same amount as that of notes issued. It may further issue notes to the amount of ¥20,000,000 on security of reliable securities. Should it be necessary to issue notes over and above the amounts just mentioned, the permission of the Government must be obtained and an issue-tax of not less than five per cent must be paid in respect of the excess issue.

The currency system of Korea had fallen into such a state of disorder and confusion that confidence in legal tender was entirely gone, and consequently commodity prices perpetually fluctuated. In 1905, at the time of the protectorate régime of Japan, a radical reform of the system was started, the coinage regulations were revised and new coins equal in quality and weight to those of Japan were minted. At the same time, the use of the old nickel coins was prohibited on and after December 31, 1909. After the annexation (1910), with the object of unifying the coinage of Korea with that of the Empire, the minting of coins under the Coinage Regulation was suspended and the circulation of Japanese coins was encouraged; the old Korean coins in circulation steadily diminished. The Imperial Coinage Law was put in force in April, 1918 in Korea and the use of the old Korean coins as legal tenders was permitted till the end of 1919 only, the Government undertaking to exchange them during the five subsequent years. The use of "Yo-sen" (bronze pieces), however, was left free for the time being in consideration of economic conditions in Korea. Bank-notes issued by the Bank of Chosen are convertible notes. Besides issuing under the Charter of the Bank of Chosen against the security of gold specie, gold and silver bullion and Bank of Japan's convertible notes, the Bank is authorized to issue notes up to the limit ¥50,000,000 on the security of excheqer bills and other reliable bills or trade bills.

AMOUNT OF BANK-NOTES ISSUED BY THE BANK OF JAPAN

Year	Balance brought over from the preceding year	Notes issued: Amount newly issued	Notes issued: Total	Amount withdrawn	Balance
1925	¥1,662,315,226	¥5,016,400,463	¥6,678,715,689	¥5,046,931,730	¥1,631,783,959
1926	1,631,783,959	5,298,396,428	6,930,180,387	5,360,472,219	1,569,708,168
1927	1,569,708,168	7,406,086,253	8,975,794,421	7,293,403,979	1,682,390,441
1928	1,682,390,441	5,829,380,203	7,511,770,644	5,772,674,342	1,739,096,302
1929	1,739,096,302	5,684,181,253	7,423,277,555	5,781,425,719	1,641,851,836
1930	1,641,851,836	5,459,394,965	7,101,246,801	5,664,951,294	1,436,295,507
1931	1,436,295,507	4,835,679,182	6,271,974,689	4,941,399,373	1,330,575,316
1932	1,330,575,316	5,021,876,744	6,352,452,060	4,926,293,103	1,426,158,957
1933	1,426,158,957	4,526,876,038	5,953,034,995	4,408,237,301	1,544,797,694
1934	1,544,797,694	4,858,410,704	6,403,208,398	4,775,859,229	1,627,349,168
1935	1,627,349,168	—	—	—	1,766,555,295

AMOUNT OF BANK-NOTES ISSUED BY THE BANK OF JAPAN

Year	Specie Reserve: Gold Coin and Bullion	Reserve: Security Reserve: Public Loan Bonds	Reserve: Security Reserve: Other Securities	Reserve: Security Reserve: Total	Total Reserve	Amount of Reserve for Every 100 yen of Notes issued: Specie	Amount of Reserve for Every 100 yen of Notes issued: Security
1925	¥1,056,998,745	¥70,320,000	¥504,465,214	¥574,785,214	¥1,631,783,959	¥64.78	¥35.22
1926	1,058,131,915	156,480,000	355,096,253	511,576,253	1,567,708,168	67.41	32.59
1927	1,062,737,375	138,431,952	481,221,114	619,653,066	1,682,390,441	63.17	36.83
1928	1,061,636,385	97,920,000	579,539,917	677,459,917	1,739,096,302	61.05	38.95
1929	1,072,273,100	161,804,691	407,774,045	569,587,736	1,641,851,836	65.31	34.69
1930	825,998,295	136,862,565	473,434,647	610,297,212	1,436,295,507	57.51	42.49
1931	469,549,450	180,831,861	680,194,005	861,025,866	1,330,575,316	35.29	64.71
1932	425,068,190	539,854,243	461,236,524	1,001,090,767	1,426,158,957	29.81	70.19
1933	425,069,230	597,074,267	522,654,197	1,119,728,464	1,544,797,694	27.52	72.48
1934	466,338,325	631,786,391	529,224,451	1,161,010,843	1,627,349,168	28.66	71.34
1935	504,065,115	738,959,280	523,530,900	1,262,490,180	1,766,555,295	—	—

COINS TURNED OUT BY THE MINT

Year	Gold Coins: 20-yen Pieces	Gold Coins: 10-yen Pieces	Gold Coins: 5-sen Pieces	Gold Coins: Total	Silver Coins: 50-sen Pieces	Silver Coins: 20-sen Pieces	Silver Coins: 10-sen Pieces	Silver Coins: Total
1925	¥ —	¥ —	¥ —	¥ —	¥23,904,000	¥ —	¥ —	¥23,904,000
1926	—	—	—	—	16,286,000	—	—	16,286,000
1927	1,238,860	—	280,000	1,518,860	—	—	—	—
1928	—	—	—	—	19,296,000	—	—	19,296,000
1929	—	—	—	—	6,284,000	—	—	6,284,000
1930	216,600,660	—	4,000,910	220,601,570	220,000	—	—	220,000
1931	152,063,700	—	362,099	152,425,790	1,000,000	—	—	1,000,000
1932	29,836,580	—	—	29,836,580	1,800,000	—	—	1,800,000
1933	—	—	—	—	21,240,000	—	—	21,240,000
1934	—	—	—	—	11,760,000	—	—	11,760,000
1935	—	—	—	—	15,000,000	—	—	15,000,000

Year	Nickel Coins: 10-sen Pieces	Nickel Coins: 5-sen Pieces	Nickel Coins: Total	Bronze	Grand Total
1925	¥5,447,500	¥ —	¥5,447,500	¥ 18,100	¥ 29,369,600
1926	5,867,500	—	5,867,500	—	22,153,500
1927	3,605,000	—	3,605,000	265,000	5,388,860
1928	4,145,000	—	4,145,000	—	23,441,000
1929	1,000,000	—	1,000,000	30,000	7,314,000
1930	—	—	—	50,000	220,871,570
1931	—	—	—	250,000	153,675,790
1932	1,800,000	400,000	2,200,000	340,000	34,176,580
1933	1,457,000	640,000	2,097,000	400,000	23,737,000
1934	3,582,999	1,859,999	5,442,998	1,000,000	18,202,998
1935	—	—	4,389,000	2,000,000	21,389,000

COINS TURNED OUT AND MELTED DOWN BY THE MINT

(In yen)

Year	Turned Out: Turned out in the year	Turned Out: Sum Total since 1871	Melted Down: Melted down in the year	Melted Down: Sum Total since 1878	Balance
1925	29,369,600.000	1,649,511,848.140	13,190,000.000	149,252,069.910	1,500,279,778.230
1926	22,153,500.000	1,671,665,348.140	11,464,393.210	160,716,463.120	1,510,968,885.020
1927	5,388,388.000	1,677,054,208.140	2,590,391.950	163,306,855.070	1,513,767,353.070
1928	23,441,000.000	1,700,495,208.140	9,826,806.000	173,133,661.070	1,527,361,547.070
1929	7,314,000.000	1,707,809,208.140	2,454,750.000	175,588,411.070	1,532,240,797.070
1930	220,871,570.000	1,928,680,778.140	3,034,250.000	178,622,661.070	1,750,078,117.070
1931	153,675,790.000	2,082,356,568.140	7,748,876.000	186,371,537.070	1,895,005,031,070
1932	34,176,580.000	2,116,533,148.140	5,878,027.840	192,249,564.910	1,924,303,583.230
1933	23,737,001.200	2,140,270,149.340	3,149,725.000	195,399,289.910	1,944,890,859.430
1934	18,202,998.800	2,158,473,184.140	8,225,025.000	203,624,314.910	1,954,868,833.230
1935	21,389,000.000	2,179,862,148.140	7,601,725.000	211,226,824.910	1,968,635,323.230

CIRCULATION OF PAPER NOTES AND BANK NOTES

(In ¥1,000)

End of	Petty Government Notes	Bank of Japan Notes	Bank of Chosen Notes	Bank of Taiwan Notes	Total
1912	—	443,837	25,550	20,414	489,802
1917	19,825	796,594	67,364	33,512	917,297
1926	14,493	1,541,645	110,936	48,640	1,715,715
1927	13,189	1,640,663	124,527	53,602	1,831,981
1928	12,487	1,665,897	132,444	55,713	1,866,541
1929	12,085	1,591,400	118,702	49,241	1,771,428
1930	11,680	1,413,891	90,615	39,904	1,556,090
1931	11,480	1,312,055	100,910	44,414	1,468,859
1932	11,380	1,373,619	124,622	52,619	1,562,241
1933	11,260	1,470,468	148,176	48,994	1,678,897
1934	11,160	1,538,188	192,457	62,653	1,804,460
1935	11,040	1,607,870	220,777	70,190	1,909,878
1936	10,900	1,756,400	210,600	79,100	2,057,200

TREND OF EXCHANGE RATES WITH ENGLAND AND THE UNITED STATES

London (Parity 2 s. 0.582 d. per ¥1.00)

Year & Month	Tokyo Open Market High s. d.	Tokyo Open Market Low s. d.	Tokyo Open Market Average s. d.	Yokohama Specie Bank High s. d.	Yokohama Specie Bank Low s. d.	Yokohama Specie Bank Average s. d.
1933	1/−3 1/16	1/−1 15/16	1/−2.534	1/−2 15/16	1/−2	1/−2.409
1934	1/−2 3/8	1/−1 3/4	1/−2.143	1/−2 1/4	1/−2	1/−2.065
1935	1/−2 5/16	1/−1 15/16	1/−2.061	1/−2	1/−2	1/−2
1936	1/−2 1/16	1/−1 3/8	1/−1.911	1/−2	1/−2	1/−2
1936 Jan.	1/−2 1/32	1/−2	1/−2.001	1/−2	1/−2	1/−2
,, Feb.	1/−2	1/−1 7/8	1/−1.986	1/−2	1/−2	1/−2
,, Mar.	1/−2	1/−1 31/32	1/−1.984	1/−2	1/−2	1/−2
,, Apr.	1/−2 1/32	1/−2	1/−2.016	1/−2	1/−2	1/−2
,, May.	1/−2 1/16	1/−2	1/−2.031	1/−2	1/−2	1/−2
,, Jun.	1/−2 1/16	1/−2 1/32	1/−2.047	1/−2	1/−2	1/−2
,, July	1/−2 1/32	1/−2	1/−2.016	1/−2	1/−2	1/−2
,, Aug.	1/−2 1/32	1/−2 1/32	1/−2.031	1/−2	1/−2	1/−2
,, Sep.	1/−2 1/32	1/−2	1/−2.016	1/−2	1/−2	1/−2
,, Oct.	1/−2	1/−1 31/32	1/−1.672	1/−2	1/−2	1/−2
,, Nov.	1/−2	1/−2	1/−2.	1/−2	1/−2	1/−2
,, Dec.	1/−2	1/−1 29/32	1/−1.231	1/−2	1/−2	1/−2
1937 Jan.	1/−2	1/−1 31/32	1/−1.895	1/−2	1/−2	1/−2
,, Feb.	1/−2	1/−1 15/16	1/−1.979	1/−2	1/−2	1/−2

New York (Parity $84.396 per 100.00)

Year & Month	Tokyo Open Market High $	Tokyo Open Market Low $	Tokyo Open Market Average $	Yokohama Specie Bank High $	Yokohama Specie Bank Low $	Yokohama Specie Bank Average $
1933	31 1/2	20 3/16	25.373	31 1/4	20 1/4	25.227
1934	30 3/4	28 3/8	29.640	30 3/8	28 1/2	29.511
1935	29 1/2	27 13/16	28.643	29 1/8	27 3/4	28.570
1936	29 9/16	28 1/4	28.961	29 3/8	28 1/4	28.949
1936 Jan.	29 3/16	28 3/8	29.071	29 1/8	28 5/8	28.896
,, Feb.	29 1/16	28 7/8	28.928	29 1/8	28 7/8	29.011
,, Mar.	29 1/8	28 13/16	28.836	29 1/8	28 7/8	28.944
,, Apr.	28 15/16	28 7/8	29.038	28 7/8	28 3/4	28.813
,, May.	29 1/8	28 7/8	29.320	29 1/8	28 7/8	29.000
,, June	29 7/16	29 3/16	29.361	29 3/8	29 1/8	29.254
,, July	29 3/8	29 1/4	29.406	29 1/4	29 1/4	29.240
,, Aug.	29 5/16	29 3/8	29.395	29 1/4	29 1/4	29.250
,, Sep.	29 9/16	28 3/4	28.591	29 1/2	28 3/4	29.355

Year & Month	New York (Parity $84,396 per 100.00) Tokyo Open Market High	Low	Average	Yokohama Specie Bank High	Low	Average
	$	$	$	$	$	$
„ Oct.	28 3/4	28 1/2	28.531	28 3/4	28 1/2	28.557
„ Nov.	28 11/16	28 1/2	28.551	28 5/8	28 1/2	28.500
„ Dec.	28 9/16	28 1/4	28.498	28 5/8	28 1/2	28.563
1937 Jan.	28 5/8	28 3/16	28.486	28 5/8	28 5/8	28.625
„ Feb.	28 1/2	28 3/16	28.469	28 5/8	28 1/2	28.563

INTEREST RATES ON DEPOSITS

Fixed by the agreement of Tokyo Associated Banks (April 10, 1936)

	"A" class banks	"B" class banks
Fixed deposits	Less than 3.3% p.a.	Less than 3.6% p.a.
Current account	Less than 1 rin per diem	Less than 2 rin per diem
Special current account	Less than 5 rin per diem	Less than 6 rin per diem
Deposits at notice	Less than 6 rin per diem	Less than 7 rin per diem
Other deposits	Less than 6 rin per diem	Less than 7 rin per diem

INTEREST RATES AT THE BANK OF JAPAN

Date of Change	Commercial bills discount	Discount of bills with Government bonds as collaterals	Discount of bills with other collaterals	Overdrafts
Nov. 19, 1919	8.03%	8.03%	8.76%	9.13%
Apr. 19, 1925	7.30	7.30	8.03	8.40
Oct. 4, 1926	6.57	6.57	7.30	7.67
Mar. 9, 1927	5.84	6.21	6.57	7.30
Oct. 10, 1927	5.48	5.84	6.21	6.94
Oct. 7, 1930	5.11	5.48	5.84	6.57
Oct. 6, 1931	5.84	6.21	6.57	7.30
Nov. 5, 1931	6.57	6.94	7.30	8.03
Mar. 12, 1932	5.84	6.21	6.57	7.30
June 8, 1932	5.11	5.48	5.84	6.57
Aug. 18, 1932	4.38	4.75	5.11	5.48
July 3, 1933	3.65	4.02	4.38	5.11
July 3, 1935	3.65	4.01	4.38	5.11
April 7, 1936	3.28	3.65	4.01	4.74

Note: To convert rin per ¥100 per diem into a percentage multiply by .365, and for sen per ¥100 per diem multiply by 3.65.

	Hong-Kong (per 100 dollars) Yen			Shanghai (per 100 yen) Taels		
	Highest	Lowest	Average	Highest	Lowest	Average
1925	152.00	130.50	140.76	57.25	49.00	53.06
1926	136.00	92.50	115.41	87.00	56.25	68.33
1927	110.75	99,00	105.47	81.50	70.50	75.00
1928	114.50	104.50	109.13	75.00	65.50	71.18
1929	111.75	86,00	104.19	93.50	70.00	77.62
1930	85.00	55.50	69.95	142.00	93.50	117.75
1931	60.25	45.50	50.60	176.00	126.00	155.51
1932	116.00	68.00	99.19	110.00	66.00	85.53
				(yen per 100 silver dollar)		
1933	124.25	105.50	116.24	112.50	97.25	105.50
1934	151.00	116.50	132,01	132.50	104.25	116.50
1935	—	—	—	146.00	102.50	124.25

Note: This table shows the rates of exchange at which the bills on demand were bought during the years mentioned above.

The figures up to 1931 represent the quotations of the Yokohama Specie Bank and those for 1936 represent the market rates of telegraphic transfers of the Bank of Japan.

Foreign Exchange Control Law

It was after the coming into operation on July 1, 1932 of the Capital Flight Prevention Law enacted with the object of controlling movements of capital in and out of the country that the flight of capital through purchases and sales of exchange, remittances to foreign countries, or investments in securities in foreign currencies was prevented almost completely. Subsequently, however, the world economic situation developed so adversely that it seemed impossible to protect the economic life of the nation by resorting to control under the Capital Flight Prevention Law only. In view of this fact and in order to enlarge the scope of control over the flight of capital and to prohibit speculative dealings in foreign exchange, the Government submitted to the Diet in the 64th session a bill for the control of foreign exchange. With the coming into operation on May 1, 1933 of the Foreign Exchange Control Law that had thus passed the Diet, the Capital Flight Prevention Law was abrogated.

The Foreign Exchange Control Law, the principal object of which is to prevent completely the flight of capital and speculative dealings in foreign exchange and to check abnormal fluctuations in the yen exchange, vests the Government with the following authority to control, in case of necessity, such transactions or acts as will be mentioned below through the Ordinance of the Department of Finance.

(1) Authority to prohibit or restrict the export of gold and gold manufactures, the purchase and sale of foreign exchange, remittances to foreign countries, the acquisition or disposal of claims and obligations expressed in foreign currencies, the export and import of securities, the export of merchandise unaccompanied by exchange transactions, and other transactions or acts. (The provisions of the Ordinance of the Department of Finance relating to the Gold Embargo, promulgated in December, 1931, are in accord with this Law).

(2) Authority to require reports or to make examinations in respect of the matters relating to the above prohibitions or restrictions.

(3) Authority to limit transactions in foreign exchange to cases in which one of the parties to the transactions is the Bank of Japan or such other person as the Government may designate.

(4) Authority to require persons in possession of gold bullion and assets expressed in foreign currencies to sell them to the Bank of Japan or such other person as the Government may designate.

As in the case of the Capital Flight Prevention Law, the principle of severe punishment has been adopted in applying penal provisions to acts of violation specified in the Ordinance of the Department of Finance issued under such authority. Thus, persons contravening the prohibitions or restrictions of transactions or acts as prescribed in the Ordinance are liable to punishment by penal servitude or imprisonment for a term not exceeding 3 years or to a fine not exceeding 10 thousand yen (or not exceeding three times the value involved in the transaction in question in case three times the value of said transactions exceeds 10 thousand yen), and persons not presenting reports or obstructing the examination of books and other documents are liable to imprisonment for not more than 6 months or a fine of not more than 5 thousand yen.

The Government has newly established the Foreign Exchange Control Bureau in the Department of Finance as an executive organ of the Foreign Exchange Control Law. It has also created two such committees as the Foreign Currency Valuation Committee and the Foreign Exchange Control Committee, the former being authorised to fix the sale price in cases where the Government may, in accordance with the provisions of this Law, require the sale of gold bullion and assets expressed in foreign currencies and the latter acting in consultation with the competent Minister on important matters relating to the enforcement of this Law.

Such authority as has been vested in the Government under the Foreign Exchange Control Law does not operate in all cases. The scope of transactions or acts to be prohibited or restricted and the manner of control are, therefore, provided for in detail in the Ordinance of the Department of Finance issued in accordance with this Law (The Ordinance was put into operation as from May 1, 1933, the date of the coming into operation of the Foreign Exchange Control Law). The contents of the Ordinance may be summarized as follows :—

(A) Matters to be prohibited or restricted.

(1) Permission of the Minister of Finance is required for the export of gold currency, gold bullion, gold alloys, or gold manufactures. The melting down or mutilation of gold coins is prohibited.

(2) Except as necessary for commercial transactions or other actual demand, speculative transactions in foreign currencies or foreign exchange are prohibited.

(3) Except as necessary for foreign trade and other regular transactions, permission of the Minister of Finance is required for the purchase of foreign currencies, foreign exchange, or yen exchange drawn on Kwantung Province and the South Manchuria Railway's leased districts against Japanese currency as counter-value, the sale of foreign exchange against Japanese currency as counter-value to persons other than foreign exchange banks, the purchase and sale of yen exchange against foreign currencies as counter-value, remittances to foreign countries, and payments in Japan by order from a foreign country.

(4) Permission of the Minister of Finance is required for the acquisition of foreign currency securities for value, except in the case of the acquisition of foreign currency securities which were in Japan on July 1, 1932 and those imported subsequently under license or in the case of the acquisition of the securities by foreigners with funds which they hold in foreign countries.

(5) Permission of the Minister of Finance is required for the acquisition of claims expressed in foreign currencies against Japanese currency as counter-value.

(6) Permission of the Minister of Finance is required for the conclusion of contracts of deposits, loans for consumption, trust, and insurance, expressed in foreign currencies.

(7) Permission of the Minister of Finance is required for the issue of company debentures expressed in foreign currencies or the making in foreign countries of loans expressed in foreign currencies on the security of property in Japan.

(8) Permission of the Minister of Finance is required for the acquisition in Japan of letters of credit not relating to the import of merchandise into Japan or Kwantung Province and the South Manchuria Railway's leased districts.

(9) Permission of the Minister of Finance is required in principle for the export and import of securities, whether expressed in Japanese currency or foreign currencies.

(10) For the purpose of controlling the flight of capital in the form of goods, permission of the Minister of Finance is required in principle for the export of merchandise for the value of which drafts have not been sold to foreign exchange banks.

(11) Persons, who have received in foreign countries payments for exported merchandise for the value of which drafts have not been sold to foreign exchange banks, are required to take procedure to have them transferred to Japan within two months.

(12) Persons, who hold in Japan or in foreign countries foreign currency securities of which the date of payment has arrived, are required either to sell them or to obtain payment within three months after the due date. When foreign currency securities held in foreign countries have been sold, or payment has been received, procedure must be taken to have the proceeds transferred to Japan within two months.

(13) Banks which have notified the Government of their intention of carrying on the business of foreign exchange are known as foreign exchange banks, and the freedom of their exchange transactions is, contrary to the case of individuals, allowed in principle.

(B) Reports and examinations in respect of matters to be prohibited or restricted.

Foreign exchange banks, dealers in securities, and other persons are under obligation to submit various reports to the Government in respect of matters to be prohibited or restricted. The Government may, in case of necessity, make examinations of their books and other documents.

(1) Foreign exchange banks are required to submit, not later than the fifteenth day of the following month, detailed statements for each month of purchases and sales of foreign exchange, purchases and sales of yen exchange drawn on Kwantung Province and the South Manchuria Railway's leased districts, exchange collections handled, letters of credit issued, and the like. These banks are also required to report, within three days, the amount of their daily purchases and sales of foreign exchange and the amounts of their positions over-sold or over-bought.

(2) Dealers in securities are required to submit, not later than the fifteenth day of the following month, detailed statements for each month of purchases and sales of foreign currency securities or of their brokerage transactions.

(3) Persons who have done such transactions or acts as the acquisition or disposal of foreign currencies or foreign exchange, remittance to foreign countries, the acquisition or disposal of foreign currency securities, the issue or acquisition of letters of credit, and

other transactions or acts to be restricted by this Ordinance, are required to submit reports for each month of such transactions or acts not later than the fifteenth day of the following month.

(4) Persons who at the time this Ordinance comes into operation have contracts of trust or insurance expressed in foreign currencies are required to submit reports within one month of the coming into operation of this Ordinance.

(5) When persons in possession of foreign currencies, foreign exchange, foreign currency securities, and other claims and obligations expressed in foreign currencies have acquired domicile in Japan, such persons are required to make notification thereof.

(6) Persons who have imported securities under license are required to submit reports within two weeks.

(7) Persons who export merchandise for the value of which drafts have not been sold to foreign exchange banks are required to submit, in making reports of export to the custom house or in the event of despatch by mail, reports relating thereto through the custom house or the post office of despatch.

(8) The Government may designate matters or persons and require reports other than those provided for in this Ordinance. (In accordance with this provision the Government instructed foreign exchange banks on May 4, 1933 to submit daily reports of interbank exchange transactions and on August 18 reports for the ten days period of purchases and sales of foreign exchange in their branch offices abroad. On October 29, 1934, it also required gold producers and dealers in gold bullion to submit monthly reports of sales of gold produced and purchases and sales of gold bullion).

(C) Compulsory disposal of assets expressed in foreign currencies.

The Government may at any time require persons in possession of gold bullion and assets expressed in foreign currencies such as foreign exchange and foreign currency securities to sell them to the Bank of Japan or such other person as the Government may designate.

(D) Impress of stamp on foreign curreucy securities.

Foreign currency securities, the purchase and sale of which have been exceptionally sanctioned, such as foreign currency securities which were in this country on July 1, 1932 and those imported subsequently under license from the Minister of Finance, may, as was provided for in the Ordinance of the Department of Finance issued under the Capital Flight Prevention Law, be presented to the Bank of Japan and impressed with a stamp.

CHAPTER X

HOME TRADE AND COMMERCE

Development of Business Houses

Origin of Tokyo Chamber of Commerce The Yedo (Tokyo) City Assembly was the predecessor of the present Tokyo Chamber of Commerce and Industry, and dates back 133 years. It was Lord Etchu-no-Kami Matsudaira, the then Vice-Premier (Roju) of the Shogunate Government, that advanced a plan to organize a public business body to accommodate merchants with funds and to carry out relief work in cases of calamity, and for this the Assembly was organized. It lasted till the end of the Shogunate régime, when the reserve funds it then held were turned over to the Meiji Government. The work was renewed by the Tokyo Chamber of Commerce which was organized in 1871 and is now known as the Tokyo Chamber of Commerce and Industry.

International Chamber of Commerce Japan first attended the plenary conference of the International Chamber in 1923 in London, when Mr. Raita Fujiyama, then president of the Tokyo Chamber and All-Japan Chamber, was the representative.

Business Companies The Mitsui-Gumi, Ono-Gumi, Shimada-Gumi and several other business concerns were founded early in the Meiji Era, but the system and management of these concerns were primitive and the companies were quite different from business companies in the modern sense of the term. The Meiji Government encouraged the development of the country's foreign trade and this resulted in an accumulation of capital and growth of modern businesses in large cities and ports. So-called trading companies and exchange companies were established under Government encouragement and financial help in such cities and towns as Tokyo, Saikyo (Kyoto), Osaka, Yokohama, Kobé, Niigata, Tsuruga and Otsu. These institutions were the precursors of the joint-stock companies of later years though for a time, with the abolition of the post of Trade and Commerce Commissioner in July, 1871, they ceased to exist. After this the Government tried to disseminate a knowledge of commerce and industry by distributing books written by Mr. Genichiro Fukuchi and the late Viscount Shibusawa. As a result of the establishment of national banks following the revision of the National Bank Act in 1876 and also stimulated by the situation following the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877, joint-stock companies of various natures were established. The Tokyo Marine Insurance Company, Tokyo Horse Tramcar Company, Japan Railway Company, Osaka Spinning Company, Yokohama Specie Bank and other concerns were created one after the other. At the end of 1882 the number of trading concerns in the country was 968, but at the end of 1886 it decreased to 315, owing to business depression. After the establishment of the convertible note system in 1896 business concerns began to increase once more and a great many, such as shipbuilding, machine manufacturing, weaving, mining, electricity, gas, paper milling, and oil refining companies, were founded. With the promulgation of the Commercial Code in 1889 these acquired a legal standing and in 1892 a revision was made in the laws concerning companies, bills and bankruptcy. A thorough-going revision was introduced into the Code in 1899. Regulations concerning debenture flotations were issued at the same time.

Business was greatly stimulated by the Sino-Japanese War, Russo-Japanese War and the World War. Before the World War, the fostering of new businesses was a feature of this country but business expansion and enlargement by merger characterized the situation during the World War. Large concerns absorbed small ones until joint-stock companies with capitalization of ¥5,000,000 each accounted for 65 per cent of the total number of these companies after the War. This increase in size and concentration of capital gave rise to the monopolistic tendency of a limited number of large business concerns wielding great power.

Number of Companies

There were a total of 84,146 companies throughout the country at the end of 1935, which showed an increase of 5,948 or 7.1 per cent over similar

figures recorded one year before. The increasing tendency of companies during the past 10 years is illustrated by the following figures :

	Number of Companies	Index No.	Increase Over Preceding Year	Percentage of Increase
1925	43,345	100	778	2.3
1926	36,068	105	1,723	5.0
1927	38,516	112	2,448	6.8
1928	41,702	121	3,186	8.3
1929	46,692	136	4,990	12.0
1930	51,910	151	5,218	11.2
1931	57,226	167	5,316	10.2
1932	65,041	189	7,815	13.7
1933	71,196	207	6,155	9.5
1934	78,198	228	7,002	9.8
1935	84,146	245	5,948	7.1

Kinds of Companies

Of the 84,146 companies, 16,449 (19.5%) were Gomei Kaisha (unlimited partnerships), 44,388 (52.8%) were Goshi Kaisha (limited partnerships), 23,264 (27.6%) were Kabushiki Kaisha (joint stock companies), 41 were Kabushiki Goshi Kaisha (joint-stock limited partnerships) and 4 were Sogo Kaisha (mutual companies). The number of Gomei Kaisha increased by 2,92 or 14.6 per cent as compared with that recorded a year ago while the number of Goshi Kaisha rose by 2,566 or 6.1 per cent, that of Kabushiki Kaisha by 1,287 or 5.9 per cent and that of Kabushiki Goshi Kaisha by 3.

During the past 10 years, the number of Kabushiki Goshi Kaisha has remained practically unchanged while the number of Sogo Kaisha has been reduced by half owing to the merger of five companies. On the other hand, the other three kinds of firms have been on the increase, particularly the Goshi Kaisha. Details of the increasing tendency of these firms are tabulated below :

GOSHI KAISHA

	Number of Companies	Index No.	Increase Over Preceding Year	Percentage of Increase
1925	5,203	100	75	1.5
1926	5,502	106	299	5.7
1927	5,961	115	459	8.3
1928	6,458	124	497	8.3
1929	7,379	142	921	14.3
1930	8,525	164	1,146	15.5
1931	9,673	186	1,148	13.5
1932	10,925	210	1,252	12.9
1933	12,344	237	1,419	13.0
1934	14,357	276	2,013	16.3
1935	16,449	316	2,092	14.6

GOSHI KAISHA

	Number of Companies	Index No.	Increase Over Preceding Year	Percentage of Increase
1925	11,539	100	900	8.5
1926	12,824	111	1,285	11.1
1927	14,530	126	1,706	13.3
1928	16,971	147	2,441	16.8
1929	20,318	176	3,347	19.7
1930	23,995	208	3,677	18.1
1931	27,855	241	3,860	16.1
1932	34,059	295	6,204	22.3
1933	38,038	330	3,979	11.7
1934	41,822	362	3,784	9.9
1935	44,388	385	2,566	6.1

KABUSHIKI KAISHA

	Number of Companies	Index No.	Increase Over Preceding Year	Percentage of Increase
1925	17,556	100	191	1.1
1926	17,696	101	140	0.8
1927	17,981	102	285	1.6
1928	18,230	104	249	1.4
1929	18,950	108	720	3.9
1930	19,341	110	391	2.1
1931	19,649	112	308	1.6
1932	20,010	114	361	1.8
1933	20,767	118	757	3.8
1934	21,977	125	1,210	5.8
1935	23,364	133	1,287	5.9

(Note The underlined figures denote decrease.)

Capitalization of Companies

Among these companies there were only 350 with an authorized capital of more than ¥5,000,000 and less than ¥10,000,000 each. The number of those with an authorized capital of less than ¥5,000,000 each was 60,496 which counted 71.9 per cent of the total. Details are tabulated as follows :

Authorized Capital	Number of Companies	%
Less than ¥50,000	60,496	71.9
More than ¥100,000 and less than ¥500,000	10,356	12.3
More than ¥50,000 and less than ¥100,000	7,941	9.5
More than ¥1,000,000 and less than ¥5,000,000	2,387	2.8
More than ¥5,000,000 and less than ¥10,000,000	2,180	2.6
More than ¥10,000,000	430	0.5
More than ¥5,000,000 and less than ¥10,000,000	356	0.4
Total	84,149	100.0

Those with an authorized capital of less than ¥500,000 increased from 73,114 at the end of 1934 to 78,793 at the end of 1935, gaining by 5,679 or 7.8 per cent while those with an authorized capital of more than ¥500,000 merely increased by 269 or 5.3 per cent, rising from 5,084 to 5,353. Further details in this connection are given in index number as follows :

	Less Than ¥50,000	Over ¥50,000 and Less than ¥100,000	Over ¥100,000 and less than ¥500,000	Over ¥500,000 and less than ¥1,000,000	Over ¥1,000,000 and less than ¥5,000,000	More than ¥5,000,000 and less than ¥10,000,000	Over ¥10,000,000
1925	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1926	108	103	102	102	100	106	109
1927	120	110	103	101	101	104	117
1928	137	115	104	98	100	106	123
1929	162	123	108	99	102	108	129
1930	189	130	110	98	101	108	128
1931	220	135	110	95	99	106	128
1932	264	140	111	92	100	103	127
1933	295	148	116	95	100	102	128
1934	328	161	123	99	104	109	133
1935	353	178	132	104	109	118	136

Kinds of Enterprises

The greater part of the companies are engaged in commerce as shown by the figures recorded at the end of 1935 which placed the commercial firms at 45,852 or 54.5 per cent of the total. Those engaged in manufacturing industry numbered 29,312 (34.8%) ; those in transport business, 6,082 (7.2%) ; those in agriculture, 1,957 ; those in mining, 611 ; and those in fishery, 332. It is to be noted in this respect that those classified under the heading of commerce include those dealing in merchandise, in warehouse business, in banking and in insurance business as well.

The following is a table showing the increasing tendency of the various companies during the past 10 years in index number :

	Agriculture	Fishery	Mining	Manufacturing Industry	Commerce	Transport
1925	100	100	100	100	100	100
1926	99	112	107	104	106	107
1927	105	126	112	109	113	124
1928	105	128	114	115	124	141
1929	112	137	121	126	141	160
1930	120	144	116	138	160	175
1931	139	150	118	151	178	189
1932	189	158	120	171	204	198
1933	214	161	131	187	225	208
1934	253	167	158	204	247	224
1935	270	169	188	222	265	237

COMPANIES IN JAPAN PROPER

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

(Amount in yen)

	Total		Unlimited Partnership		Limited Partnership	
	Companies	Capital	No.	Capital	No.	Capital
1925	34,345	16,464,199,879	5,203	890,211,398	11,539	732,622,225
1926	36,068	17,633,525,807	5,502	1,070,716,521	12,824	770,795,195
1927	38,516	18,386,354,937	5,961	1,089,701,831	14,530	789,407,615
1928	41,702	18,968,865,222	6,458	1,119,215,594	16,971	836,571,258
1929	46,692	19,666,107,256	7,379	1,148,417,397	20,318	879,635,673
1930	51,910	19,633,761,001	8,525	1,186,472,072	23,995	906,822,796

	Total		Unlimited Partnership		Limited Partnership	
	Companies	Capital	Number	Capital	Number	Capital
1931	57,226	19,551,543,522	9,673	1,157,194,896	27,855	940,346,631
1932	65,041	19,484,540,099	10,925	1,171,869,779	34,059	977,045,248
1933	71,196	19,960,318,207	12,344	1,167,953,595	38,038	1,033,015,258
1934	78,198	21,126,978,409	14,357	1,233,544,869	41,822	1,094,181,088
1935	84,146	22,352,402,224	16,449	1,306,235,862	44,388	1,150,161,537

	Joint-stock Companies			Joint-stock and Limited Partnership		
	No.	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital	No.	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital
1925	17,556	14,826,495,056	9,524,785,064	40	9,891,200	6,718,999
	* 7	4,980,000	2,420,000			
1926	17,696	15,778,135,921	10,222,810,325	38	8,478,170	5,997,257
	* 8	5,400,000	2,515,000			
1927	17,981	16,495,414,651	10,748,046,857	36	6,840,840	5,213,797
	* 8	4,990,000	2,095,000			
1928	18,230	17,000,941,440	11,198,114,057	35	7,286,930	5,541,789
	* 8	4,850,000	2,052,500			
1929	18,950	17,623,222,586	11,753,890,560	37	10,031,600	6,821,524
	* 8	4,800,000	1,992,500			
1930	19,341	17,525,569,633	11,844,392,288	41	10,166,500	7,020,824
	* 8	4,730,000	1,932,500			
1931	19,649	17,439,114,145	11,854,068,374	41	10,007,850	6,843,274
	* 8	4,880,000	1,932,500			
1932	20,010	17,322,778,672	11,889,927,128	39	8,166,400	5,879,362
	* 8	4,680,000	1,882,500			
1933	20,767	17,748,038,474	12,338,632,293	43	8,060,880	5,938,350
	* 4	3,250,000	1,250,000			
1934	21,977	18,788,255,072	13,440,732,719	38	7,797,380	5,502,350
	* 4	3,200,000	1,200,000			
1935	23,264	19,885,777,795	14,197,243,247	41	7,377,030	5,485,742
	* 4	2,850,000	1,050,000			

Note: * Indicates mutual companies.

Companies Grouped by the Amount of Capital.

(Amount in yen)

	Total		Less than ¥50,000		¥50,000 —100,000		¥100,000 —500,000	
	Companies	Capital	No.	Capital	No.	Capital	No.	Capital
1925	34,345	16,461,199,879	17,154	224,591,045	4,458	252,279,710	7,834	1,339,040,699
1926	36,068	17,633,525,807	18,498	236,423,159	4,587	260,586,467	7,984	1,363,812,451
1927	38,516	18,386,354,937	20,555	254,799,673	4,895	278,445,526	8,061	1,383,885,783
1928	41,702	18,968,865,222	23,453	280,962,699	5,144	292,885,988	8,143	1,401,782,822
1929	46,692	19,666,107,256	27,740	319,299,760	5,477	312,000,084	8,427	1,442,496,834
1930	51,910	19,633,761,001	32,465	357,952,953	5,809	332,115,212	8,638	1,474,224,678
1931	57,226	19,551,543,522	37,667	395,077,297	6,034	344,338,767	8,650	1,471,390,110
1932	65,041	19,484,540,099	45,252	443,092,884	6,262	357,878,155	8,690	1,478,504,592
1933	71,196	19,960,318,207	50,626	488,122,066	6,599	379,265,739	9,065	1,531,005,964
1934	78,198	21,126,978,409	56,264	541,585,233	7,196	412,753,409	9,654	1,628,738,749
1935	84,146	22,352,402,224	60,496	596,756,451	7,941	455,033,469	10,356	1,744,453,954

	¥500,000 —1,000,000		¥1,000,000 —5,000,000		¥5,000,000 —10,000,000		More than ¥10,000,000	
	No.	Capital	No.	Capital	No.	Capital	No.	Capital
1925	2,091	1,120,430,775	2,189	3,557,795,000	302	1,710,884,650	317	8,259,178,000
1926	2,137	1,149,408,925	2,196	3,560,810,955	320	1,845,191,650	346	9,217,292,200
1927	2,106	1,135,564,500	2,212	3,599,014,155	315	1,818,225,000	372	9,916,420,300
1928	2,051	1,107,565,700	2,199	3,586,327,113	321	1,862,876,500	391	10,436,464,400
1929	2,079	1,130,220,828	2,236	3,664,993,900	325	1,884,184,500	408	10,912,911,350

	¥500,000 —1,000,000		¥1,000,000 —5,000,000		¥5,000,000 —10,000,000		More than ¥10,000,000	
	No.	Capital	No.	Capital	No.	Capital	No.	Capital
1930	2,048	1,117,185,728	2,217	3,642,868,930	327	1,889,859,500	406	10,819,554,000
1931	1,985	1,084,760,878	2,164	3,549,380,770	319	1,838,388,000	407	10,868,207,700
1932	1,931	1,058,788,878	2,190	3,604,717,290	312	1,810,988,000	404	10,730,570,300
1933	1,995	1,092,996,278	2,198	3,636,835,610	308	1,788,924,250	405	11,043,168,300
1934	2,066	1,136,149,578	2,269	3,783,148,440	328	1,904,310,000	421	11,720,293,000
1935	2,180	1,193,256,250	2,387	3,986,112,800	356	2,065,607,000	430	12,311,182,300

Business Results of Companies

(Amount in yen)

Total

	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Dividend	Loss
1925	34,345	16,464,199,879	2,492,438,758	1,101,911,069	692,256,159	232,132,017
1926	36,068	17,633,525,807	2,660,744,229	1,095,341,188	735,304,123	262,735,225
1927	38,516	18,386,354,937	2,783,347,599	1,102,884,974	708,752,826	333,330,504
1928	41,702	18,968,865,222	2,759,422,927	1,153,767,249	763,880,939	261,938,049
1929	46,692	19,666,107,256	2,873,849,408	1,140,081,627	785,948,514	263,039,538
1930	51,910	19,633,761,001	2,890,574,464	919,419,134	650,929,435	311,666,987
1931	57,226	19,551,543,522	2,892,130,298	743,674,676	549,313,737	272,977,645
1932	65,041	19,484,540,099	2,934,912,608	830,322,113	545,112,912	201,617,106
1933	71,196	19,960,318,207	2,992,993,198	1,092,033,665	638,799,501	138,608,044
1934	78,198	21,126,978,409	3,314,552,622	1,329,053,672	777,697,886	148,710,392
1935	84,146	22,352,402,224	3,606,008,133	1,510,294,180	903,013,099	109,388,955

Agricultural Companies

	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Dividend	Loss
1925	724	191,351,956	8,532,992	8,596,933	4,134,972	2,053,982
1926	714	187,744,606	8,954,297	8,474,078	5,430,169	2,550,939
1927	758	178,247,747	8,751,387	5,330,171	3,647,827	3,490,250
1928	761	172,725,396	10,164,373	4,348,186	2,633,832	6,066,344
1929	813	200,005,805	11,659,535	4,059,501	3,398,281	6,962,562
1930	867	203,227,418	11,425,580	2,981,236	2,194,957	4,634,053
1931	1,005	179,419,567	9,410,873	1,101,824	930,572	4,794,527
1932	1,370	175,921,870	9,549,321	1,190,261	845,917	3,489,771
1933	1,548	172,688,571	10,185,207	2,247,291	1,385,094	2,253,861
1934	1,833	179,817,967	11,408,104	4,562,729	2,600,127	2,617,079
1935	1,957	178,378,964	13,054,122	5,824,581	4,238,327	2,848,996

Fisheries Companies

	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Dividend	Loss
1925	196	72,455,291	5,601,110	5,223,660	3,714,176	1,404,908
1926	220	83,548,256	5,989,001	7,687,135	4,711,762	2,175,734
1927	246	104,841,656	8,014,869	10,760,136	7,229,164	2,174,167
1928	251	137,716,301	11,076,345	15,517,516	5,340,359	1,200,195
1929	269	154,044,001	12,361,601	7,479,049	7,694,692	1,731,132
1930	283	137,219,262	11,284,817	4,865,842	3,536,437	4,069,709
1931	294	127,245,564	10,535,168	1,555,358	1,180,065	2,496,473
1932	309	149,269,571	10,091,826	6,470,393	3,871,431	2,198,027
1933	316	144,111,727	9,616,241	8,037,036	6,018,768	978,924
1934	324	142,754,058	9,345,619	11,755,919	6,795,758	1,160,121
1935	332	151,089,613	13,911,080	16,320,589	10,136,150	1,360,076

Mining Companies

	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Dividend	Loss
1925	325	1,036,396,495	111,915,601	35,901,885	25,406,558	6,804,390
1926	349	1,086,931,420	122,146,216	36,601,718	18,348,148	9,122,589

Mining Companies

	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Dividend	Loss
1927	363	1,096,506,935	120,941,624	41,842,808	29,969,452	18,180,059
1928	371	1,005,230,192	131,375,307	44,281,532	30,562,085	18,457,887
1929	394	1,060,690,693	116,771,370	57,316,880	34,158,513	19,019,463
1930	376	954,242,273	100,696,580	30,339,837	22,930,041	23,112,090
1931	383	961,868,883	97,793,798	19,027,144	15,651,820	15,857,406
1932	389	951,969,923	96,981,747	26,812,546	19,093,927	12,647,560
1933	427	975,954,664	96,736,497	50,605,374	31,914,230	5,509,475
1934	515	1,066,996,905	120,127,123	76,317,610	49,989,059	2,228,960
1935	611	1,269,098,458	141,984,183	98,089,442	63,862,501	3,250,888

Industrial Companies

	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Dividend	Loss
1925	13,233	6,173,953,453	689,094,859	455,624,871	324,263,490	101,135,144
1926	13,711	6,725,973,818	747,863,912	439,410,288	337,922,934	106,598,710
1927	14,382	7,095,066,647	803,646,374	447,525,418	325,267,951	107,207,779
1928	15,271	7,328,935,388	787,070,245	494,930,049	355,445,779	89,579,174
1929	16,623	7,497,121,310	824,996,303	510,002,971	380,157,509	74,325,205
1930	18,205	7,543,682,190	822,698,039	374,118,326	305,306,554	110,432,691
1931	19,969	7,673,518,695	827,873,104	340,977,420	268,876,915	93,350,984
1932	22,575	7,571,152,934	863,546,716	359,856,144	261,873,820	58,961,769
1933	24,717	8,008,172,269	905,296,435	493,721,537	310,217,934	40,159,609
1934	27,067	8,825,335,800	1,034,280,329	614,251,026	392,603,151	63,235,825
1935	29,312	9,456,415,605	1,202,110,825	752,602,721	480,503,664	33,068,171

Commercial Companies

	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Dividend	Loss
1925	17,302	7,309,346,990	1,502,879,956	518,118,841	273,924,947	89,111,919
1926	18,318	7,697,551,882	1,608,099,301	517,810,322	300,724,471	106,288,043
1527	19,586	7,931,064,857	1,656,089,356	507,732,882	271,436,874	182,227,765
1928	21,427	8,129,851,803	1,645,423,828	501,019,427	292,216,154	128,033,885
1929	24,481	8,393,133,150	1,717,896,053	465,749,779	282,659,691	123,078,606
1930	27,691	8,462,456,943	1,781,345,341	440,133,263	258,998,466	139,949,004
1931	30,794	8,292,845,679	1,783,832,237	324,341,080	216,505,974	137,501,905
1932	35,315	8,325,581,416	1,789,408,407	385,676,586	220,975,645	105,951,777
1933	38,850	8,350,747,964	1,803,069,497	479,743,200	251,077,831	73,901,069
1934	42,716	8,610,933,679	1,962,439,255	552,716,588	281,054,019	71,881,733
1935	45,852	8,965,151,295	2,038,149,114	542,051,927	286,177,248	62,257,141

Transportation Companies

	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Dividend	Loss
1925	2,565	1,680,695,694	174,414,240	78,444,879	60,812,016	31,621,674
1926	2,756	1,851,775,825	167,691,502	85,357,647	68,166,639	35,999,210
1927	3,181	1,980,627,095	185,903,989	89,693,559	71,201,558	20,050,484
1928	3,621	2,194,406,142	174,312,829	93,670,539	73,682,730	18,600,564
1929	4,112	2,361,112,297	190,164,546	95,473,447	77,879,828	37,922,570
1930	4,488	2,332,932,915	163,123,107	66,980,630	57,962,980	29,469,440
1931	4,781	2,316,645,134	162,685,118	56,671,850	46,168,391	18,976,350
1932	5,083	2,310,644,398	165,334,588	50,316,183	38,452,172	18,368,202
1933	5,338	2,308,643,012	168,089,321	57,779,227	38,185,654	15,805,106
1934	5,739	2,301,140,000	176,952,192	68,449,800	44,655,772	7,586,674
1935	6,082	2,332,268,289	196,798,809	95,404,920	58,090,209	6,603,683

FACTORIES

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

End of	No. of Factories Worked by Motors	Steam	Steam	Factories Worked by Motors		Water	
		Steam Engines	Turbines	Gas	Petroleum	Turbines	Pelton's
		H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.
1924	37,141	477,561	760,311	55,030	12,818	595,062	245,242
1925	38,221	461,629	696,552	38,681	15,746	683,948	119,631
1926	41,514	535,834	1,160,279	37,617	21,277	871,403	225,821
1927	43,726	493,190	1,639,139	33,276	26,920	1,153,213	253,854
1928	46,247	617,337	1,683,786	30,893	30,474	1,345,445	375,562
1929	48,822	377,283	1,567,690	20,956	25,113	2,038,347	555,803
1930	51,407	309,742	1,475,504	17,543	27,811	2,310,865	527,424
1931	53,442	323,628	1,753,431	16,459	32,873	2,415,288	533,713
1932	56,453	213,916	1,863,302	16,759	43,146	2,785,866	519,080
1933	61,203	189,781	2,087,009	17,606	55,896	2,992,158	523,744
1934	68,306	222,000	2,259,487	46,613	61,237	2,724,606	537,146
1935	73,302	225,674	2,530,171	44,901	72,210	2,783,751	541,756

End of	Water Japanese	Electric Motors	No. of Factories not Worked by Motors	Total No. of Factories	No. of Operatives Employed		
					Male	Female	Total
	H.P	H.P.					
1924	7,445	1,485,674	11,253	48,394	859,783	929,835	1,789,618
1925	11,531	1,767,163	10,940	49,161	852,554	955,827	1,808,381
1926	5,598	1,794,644	10,392	51,906	893,834	981,361	1,875,195
1927	5,292	2,148,961	9,954	53,680	923,201	975,671	1,898,872
1928	5,410	2,300,761	9,701	55,948	948,876	987,373	1,936,249
1929	12,162	4,930,951	11,065	59,887	855,187	969,835	1,825,022
1930	8,086	3,859,560	10,827	62,234	796,282	887,281	1,683,563
1931	7,231	3,263,337	10,994	64,436	775,236	886,266	1,661,502
1932	6,150	2,922,149	10,865	67,318	846,307	887,204	1,733,511
1933	5,420	3,054,478	10,737	71,940	967,659	933,432	1,901,091
1934	5,652	3,846,770	12,005	80,311	1,147,097	1,016,356	2,163,453
1935	5,326	4,458,144	11,872	85,174	1,287,575	1,081,702	2,369,277

OUTSTANDING AMOUNT OF BANK AND CORPORATION BONDS

(At the end of the year)

(Compiled by the Bank of Japan)

Internal Bonds	1928 ¥	1929 ¥	1930 ¥	1931 ¥
Bank Bonds				
Hypothec Debentures	732,008,760	779,866,260	853,011,110	896,654,260
Savings Bonds	477,975	—	—	—
Reconstruction Savings Certificates	82,210,295	81,414,350	80,678,490	79,933,490
Debentures of the Industrial Bank of Japan	262,873,876	268,210,000	323,048,000	333,093,500
Debentures of the Hokkaidō Colonization Bank	101,018,170	94,632,300	100,635,300	100,699,400
Debentures of Agricultural & Industrial Banks	468,889,777	475,683,187	468,054,037	483,659,032
Debentures of the Chōsen Industrial Bank	177,223,000	199,685,000	242,158,000	247,558,000
Total	1,824,701,853	1,899,491,097	2,067,584,937	2,141,597,682
Total Internal Bonds	4,042,375,935	4,280,588,853	4,575,605,676	4,711,713,052

External Bonds	1928	1929	1930	1931
	¥	¥	¥	¥
Bank bonds				
Debentures of the Industrial Bank of Japan	10,129,308	10,129,307	10,129,307	10,129,307
Debenture of the Hokkaidō Colonization Bank	2,220,100	2,120,100	2,020,100	1,920,100
Total	12,349,408	12,249,407	12,149,407	12,049,407
Corporation bonds				
Railway & tramway	39,052,000	39,052,000	39,052,000	39,052,000
Electric & gas works	344,977,069	340,196,952	333,196,867	384,808,491
Commercial, etc.	74,065,532	73,302,249	71,468,765	70,001,376
Total	458,094,601	453,174,201	443,717,632	493,861,867
Total external bonds	470,444,009	465,423,608	455,867,039	505,911,274
Grand Total	4,512,819,944	4,746,012,461	5,031,472,715	5,217,624 326

Internal Bonds	1932	1933	1934	1935
	¥	¥	¥	¥
Bank bonds				
Hypothec debentures	915,516,950	851,232,600	796,272,160	728,178,565
Savings bonds	—	—	—	—
Reconstruction savings certificates	79,165,075	78,412,995	77,654,600	76,854,120
Debentures of the Industrial Bank of Japan	393,630,000	313,162,250	287,261,750	279,254,200
Debentures of the Hokkaidō Colonization Bank	122,328,100	122,777,300	114,428,920	124,818,520
Debentures of Agricutural & Industrial Banks	504,367,563	491,037,557	447,764,252	428,746,288
Debentures of the Chōsen Industrial Bank	260,992,800	253,482,000	244,955,700	278,674,100
Total	2,276,000,488	2 110,104,702	1,968,337,382	1,916,525,793
Corporation bonds				
Railway & tramway	734,864,860	780,471,210	962,174,860	1,132,066,010
Shipping & shipbuilding	119,350,000	103,140,000	66,250,000	61,190,000
Mining & metallurgy	47,125,000	37,405,000	32,689,500	24,027,000
Electric & gas works	962,429,500	1,007,626,000	1,115,725,000	1,064,359,000
Spining & weaving	134,745,350	139,685,350	158,445,350	206,827,050
Manufacturing	372,817,100	311,150,450	270,155,800	324,339,400
Commercial, etc.	211,487,578	204,886,852	216,782,828	212,382,400
Total	2,582,819,388	2,584,364,862	2,822,223,338	3,025,190,860
Total internal bonds	4,858,819,876	4,694,469,564	4,790,560,720	4,941,716,653
External Bonds				
Bank bonds				
Debentures of the Industrial Bank of Japan	10,107,633	—	—	—
Debentures of the Hokkaidō Colonization Bank	1,820,100	—	—	—
Total	11,927,733	—	—	—
Corporation bonds				
Railway & tramway	39,052,000	—	—	—
Electric & gas works	349,224,083	319,579,722	297,361,982	279,691,247
Commercial, etc.	67,557,065	63,543,059	58,520,035	56,340,516
Total	455,833,148	383,116,781	355,882,017	336,031,763
Total external bonds	467,760,881	383,116,781	355,882,017	336,031,763
Grand Total	5,326,580,757	5,077,586,345	5,146,442,737	5,277,748,416

EXTERNAL LOANS OF PRIVATE COMPANIES

Companies.	Year of Issue	Rate of Interest	Issue Price	Amount of Issue	Amount outstanding at the ent of 1935
		%		¥	¥
Outstanding issue					
Oriental Development Co., Ltd.	Mar., 1923	6.0	92.0	$ 19,900,000 (39,919,400)	$ 13,529,000 (27,139,174)

Companies	Year of Issue	Rate of Interest.	Issue Price	Amount of Issue	Amount outstanding at the end of 1935
Do	Nov., 1928	5.5	90.0	$ 19,900,000 (39,919,400)	$ 14,557,000 (29,201,342)
Nippon Electric Power Co., Ltd.	Jan., 1928	6.5	94.0	$ 9,000,000 (18,054,000)	$ 6,957,000 (13,955,742)
Daidō Electric Power Co., Ltd.	Aug., 1924	7.0	91.5	$ 15,000,000 (30,090,000)	$ 7,797,000 (15,640,782)
Do	July., 1925	6.5	86.0	$ 13,500,000 27,081,000	$ 7,678,000 (15,402,068)
Tokyo Electric Light Co., Ltd.	June, 1928	6.0	95.5	$ 70,000,000 (140,420,000)	$ 57,996,000 (116,339,976)
Do	June, 1927	6.0	90.0	£ 4,500,000 (43,933,500)	£ 3,837,250 (37,463,072)
Do					
Shinyetsu Electric Power Co., Ltd.	Dec., 1928	6.5	93¼	$ 7,650,000 (15,345,900)	$ 6,124,000 (12,284,744)
Ujigawa Electric Power Co., Ltd.	Mar., 1925	7.0	91.0	$ 14,000,000 (28,084,000)	$ 6,969,500 (13,980,817)
Toho Electric Power Co., Ltd.,	Mar., 1925	7.0	90.5	$ 15,000,000 (30,090,000)	$ 3,959,500 (7,942,757)
Do	July., 1925	5.0	97.0	£ 300,000 (2,928,900)	£ 176,464 (1,722,818)
Taiwan Electric Power Co., Ltd.	July, 1931	5.5	93½	$ 22,800,000 (45,736,800)	$ 22,406,000 (44,946,436)
Total		—	—	— (461,602,900)	(336,019,728)

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN CAPITAL INTO JAPAN

(Compiled by the Ministry of Finance)

Year	National bonds issued abroad	Domestic bonds abroad	Provincial bonds issued abroad	Debentures issued abroad	Total	Comparison with the preceding year
			(In ¥1,000)			
1925	1,500,215	8,712	124,627	331,557	1,965,113	+104,028
1926	1,477,868	9,687	220,223	347,634	2,055,413	+ 90,300
1927	1,460,232	14,768	257,640	315,500	2,048,140	- 7,273
1928	1,453.092	31,397	254,163	470,406	2,209,029	+160,888
1929	1,446,894	31,779	245,666	465,623	2,189,963	- 19,065
1930	1,567,325	84,178	245,173	455,867	2,352,544	+162,580
1931	1,477,334	59,181	240,697	505,964	2,283,177	- 69,367
1932	1,398,296	51,428	235,502	467,821	2,153,047	-130,129
1933	1,421,211	50,019	230,984	383,116	2,085,331	- 67,176
1934	1,408,303	49,751	226,472	356,020	2,040,546	- 44,784
1935	1,372,885	25,012	222,118	336,019	1,956,036	- 84,510

Stock and Produce Exchanges

Tokyo Stock Exchange The exchange system in Japan dates back to an early period of the Tokugawa Era, but it was then confined mostly to deals in rice. Exchange houses in this country are of three kinds, namely, stocks, rice and other commodities. There are 29 exchange houses devoted to dealings in securities, either exclusively or in combination with other commodities. The exchanges here are more on the European continental plan than on those of either England or America, and are subject to strict control by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry or other supervising authorities of the Govern-

ment. Such control may be exercised to regulate the business of an exchange when it is considered that the exchange is abusing its privileges or acting in an irregular way.

The Tokyo Stock Exchange was established in 1878 after the Satsuma Rebellion, when the issue of public bonds was rapidly increasing and the country's business was stimulated by the successive establishment of national banks and concerns conducting business analogous to banking business. Under the auspices of Viscount Eiichi Shibusawa and other influential business men of the day the Tokyo Stock Exchange was established at Kabuto-cho, Nihombashi-ku. Kabuto-cho has become a synonymous term for exchange, as Wall Street is for the New York Stock Exchange. The initial capital was ¥200,000. The Osaka Stock Exchange was founded in July in 1878, two months later than the Tokyo Stock Exchange. After 1882 the Government adopted a policy of restricting speculative transactions and the stock exchange business was hard hit, but in later years a more generous policy regarding the establishment of bourses was adopted and, consequently, the number of rice and produce exchanges, which was only 13 at the end of 1892, had increased to 83 by the end of 1894. There were three stock exchanges only at the end of 1892, but 37 at the end of 1896. With a rapid increase in business prosperity after the Sino-Japanese War enthusiasm for speculation increased and many exchanges were opened with small capitalization. The same was observed after the Russo-Japanese War and during the World War boom. The great World War stock boom lasted till about the middle of March, 1920, when a financial reaction took place in Japan. Before the World War, 12,588,000 shares valued at ¥1,340,-000,000, in 1907 was the largest number dealt in, but in 1915 the deals amounted to 19,560,000 shares with an aggregate of ¥1,670,000,000, and a further gain to 40,870,000 shares totalling ¥6,185,000,000 was made in 1919. The March deals in 1920 amounted to 6,570,000 shares with an aggregate of ¥1,150,000,000.

Bonds and Debentures in 1936 As factors affecting the market of public bonds and debentures during 1936 may be enumerated (1) the low-interest policy followed by Finance Minister, Dr. Eiichi Baba, (2) the announcement of the epoch-making taxation reform plan and (3) the increased demand for funds, and active monetary conditions, counteracting the low-interest policy.

The enforcement of the low-interest policy after April of that year brought about considerable activity in the market for public bonds and debentures, advancing their quotations and increasing the activity of the underwriting interests. During the latter part of September when the taxation reform plan of Finance Minister, Dr. Baba, was announced, however, a turning point was reached and also owing to the busy monetary conditions, the underwriting world sustained a heavy blow and the quotations of bonds and debentures began to slump.

The assumption of the post of Finance Minister by Mr. Toyotaro Yuki early in 1937 was followed by a sudden recovery of the market for bonds and debentures, because the new Minister took steps for a revision of the Baba plan for taxation increase and for the enlargement of the scope of securities for the Bank of Japan. This gave rise to anticipation that the conditions of loan flotation would not become worse and that there would be successive issues of bonds. Such a situation, however, would also mean that there would be an active demand for funds and interest rates might advance in the future. Consequently, a fall in interest rates can hardly be expected and it follows that there will be no hasty disposal of funds in anticipation of lower interest rates. Hence, no over-excitement in the market of bonds and debentures is foreseen.

Advance of Low-Interest Policy The market for public bonds and debentures in this country underwent violent changes throughout the year 1936, with favourable and unfavourable factors occuring in rapid succession. The low-interest policy of Finance Minister Baba must be mentioned first as one of the former. On April 6, 1936, Dr. Baba, advocating a low-interest policy, announced the lowering of interest rates of the Bank of Japan, and undertook to convert the 5% loans into 3½% loans.

The ordinary banks followed suit and on April 10 announced a lowering of their interest rates for deposits. The lowering of the interest rates for national bonds, which form the standard of general interest rates, from 4 per cent to the unprecedentedly low level of 3½ per cent constituted a splendid factor for the market of public bonds and debentures, and the yields of bonds and debentures gradually declined from April to August, as shown in the following table which was compiled on the basis of a survey of the Hypothec Bank of Japan.

Yields of Bonds and Debentures

in 1936

	National Bonds	Local Bands	Debentures
January	4.32	4.50	4.72
February	4.32	4.47	4.62
March	4.36	4.47	4.64
April	4.50	4.47	4.59
May	3.92	4.33	4.39
June	3.94	4.26	4.35
July	3.89	4.20	4.35
August	3.87	4.16	4.34
September	3.89	4.18	4.35
October	3.94	4.18	4.35
November	3.98	4.19	4.35
December	3.97	4.25	4.38

Impetus of Taxation Plan On September 23 Finance Minister Dr. Baba announced his plans for thorough-going taxation reforms, with the aim of increasing revenue and also equalizing the distribution of tax burdens. This came as a shock to the market for public bonds and debentures. Those points of the Baba plan which affected that market may be enumerated as follows :

1. Abolition of the Second Class Income Tax and inclusion of the interest on public bonds and debentures (deposits to be included in the same category) in the First and Third Class Income Taxes.

2. Increase of the Capital Interest Tax, hitherto fixed at 2 per cent whether in the case of bonds or debentures, to 4 per cent for the interest of local bonds and 5 per cent for the interest of others except national bonds for which alone the 2 per cent interest tax is to be retained.

3. Allowance of a deduction of 25 per cent from the amount of interest of national bonds in the case of the First Class Income Tax.

4. Allowance of a deduction of 50 per cent from the amount of interest of national bonds and 30 per cent from the amount of interest of local bonds and debentures in the case of the Third Class Income Tax.

5. Imposition of a tax on origin at the application of tax-payers in the case of interest on national bonds alone, with a fixed rate of tax at 40 per cent.

6. Creation of a tax on the transfer of securities fixed at 5/10,000 for national bonds and 1/1,000 for other securities.

7. Creation of a special tax on bonds in foreign currency and fix the rate of such tax at the amount exceeding 4.2 per cent in interest of national bonds for bonds in foreign currency bearing an interest of 5 per cent or more and at the amount exceeding 4.7 per cent for other bonds in foreign currency.

Of these points, the first and the seventh will affect the market of bonds and debentures most because the rates of tax on the interest of bonds and debentures would vary according to the amount of income of the juridical persons or individuals when included in the First and Third Class Income taxes and as such cannot be estimated, as hitherto, in the case of the yields of bonds and debentures. The result was to depress the market of bonds and debentures. In the case of bonds in foreign currency, the quotations slumped heavily because bonds in foreign currency had hitherto been specially regarded on account of their favourable conditions.

Active Monetary Conditions While these two factors which most affect the market for bonds and debentures were due to the proposed policy of the Government, the monetary conditions became active, thereby bringing about a firm tone in interest rates and thus depressing the market for bonds and debentures, because of the changes in economic circles themselves. In the latter part of 1936, the economic world began to witness an active demand for funds and subsequent monetary stringency. A survey of the ordinary banks throughout the country shows that the total amount of loans which was ¥6,210-000,000 in July, rose to ¥6,500,000,000 in October and further increased to ¥6,-600,000,000 at the end of December.

Although the excessive sale of public bonds by the Bank of Japan which was conducted in March in anticipation of lower interest rates may be regarded as a remote cause, the unusual stringency of the monetary situation as recorded during the latter part of 1936 is to be attributed to the generally active demand for funds. This led to the deadlock in the low-interest policy.

Quotations of National Bonds The changes in the quotations of national bonds throughout the year 1936, under the impetus of the aforementioned factors, are shown in the following table in comparison with the preceding year :

AVERAGE QUOTATIONS OF NATIONAL BONDS

In 1935 and 1936 (In yen)

	Bonds bearing 5% interest		Bonds bearing 4% interest		Bonds bearing 3½% interest	Bonds in American currency and bearing 6½% interest	
	1935	1936	1935	1936	1936	1935	1936
January	102.69	105.43	99.02	98.65	—	383.23	412.88
February	103.09	105.54	98.97	98.66	—	387.97	415.17
March	103.66	102.20	98.89	99.37	—	391.04	410.49
April	103.70	101.14	98.73	102.51	—	387.80	394.50
May	103.85	100.83	98.67	102.88	98.40	390.33	389.44
June	104.09	101.22	98.68	102.56	98.54	393.93	394.18
July	104.29	101.59	98.75	102.64	99.10	396.77	405.84
August	104.26	101.33	98.85	102.46	98.94	399.55	410,77
September	104.29	100.86	98.84	102.14	98.45	401.73	409.27
October	104.15	100.48	98.82	101.40	98.17	396.92	390.02
November	104.36	100.25	98.68	101.06	98.08	400.05	366.90
December	104.97	100.20	98.65	101.40	98.11	406.66	350.54

Note:—The above tabie is based on a survey of the Tokyo Stock Exchange.

The quotations of the 4% national bonds which were unlikely to be converted, became stationary in November, 1935, centering around ¥98.65, but began to advance in March 1936 under the impetus of the low-interest tendency and finally exceeded their face value and reached ¥103.30 in April when the conversion of the 5%bonds was announced and the interest rates for the Bank of Japan were lowered. These quotations, however, became stationary later centering around ¥102.50 as there was a disadvantage in premium for the 4% bonds to advance as far as the 3½% bonds in yield.

In the autumn when the taxation-reform plan was announced, the quotations of the 4% bonds dropped to the ¥101 level. This decline may be attributed to the deadlock in the low-interest policy of Finance Minister Baba. The conversion of the 5% bonds was discontinued in September, but contrary to the expectations of interested circles, the deficit-covering bonds for the 1936-37 fiscal year, which were then issued, showed no material difference from the 3½% bonds. As a result of the stringent monetary conditions, the quotations of the 4% bonds fell to ¥100.-85 toward the end of October, which represented a decline of more than ¥2.70 from the spring quotations.

The 3½% bonds were once quoted at ¥99.50 when the issue of 3% bonds was rumoured, and the Bank of Japan discontinued their sale of bonds; but the price soon dropped to ¥98, the issue price, as the Bank of Japan resumed selling bonds and monetary conditions hardened. This greatly affected the market for bonds and debentures and the Ministry of Finance soon began making desperate efforts for the maintenance of the quotations of national bonds. The Deposits Bureau, Finance Ministry, and the Bank of Japan were instructed to deal with the national bonds market.

The influence of the taxation reform plan upon the bonds in foreign currency was well illustrated by the fact that the 6½% bonds in the American currency, which were quoted at ¥418 during February, slumped to ¥345 during the latter part of November.

The conversion of the 5% national bonds into 3½% bonds was one of the outstanding events of 1936. On the day after the announcement of the lowering of interest rates of the Bank of Japan, Finance Minister Dr. Baba announced that the 5% bonds which were scheduled to be redeemed either in 1936 or 1937 and which amounted to ¥373,000,000 would be converted on May 1. Altogether, five conversions were effected between May 1 and September 15, involving a total amount of ¥2,-134,000,000 in the 5% bonds being converted into 3½% bonds totalling ¥2,-152,000,000. The percentage of continuations was higher than expected, as shown in the following table:

	Amount of New 3½% Bonds	Amount of Old 5% Bonds Converted	Percentage of Continuations
May 1	¥381,000,000	¥373,000,000	92.1
June 1	413,000,000	405,000,000	90.6
July 15	361,000,000	352,000,000	96.8
Aug. 15	597,000,000	582,000,000	95.3
Sept. 15	400,000,000	422,000.000	102.5

The outstanding amount of the 5% bonds was ¥2,265,000,000, all of which is expected to be converted during the course of the 1937–38 fiscal year or later. In this connection, it must be noted that the quotations of the 4½% bonds were lower than those of the 4% bonds because the former are liable to conversion.

Quotations of Local Bonds and Debentures Quotations of local bonds and debentures advanced in August but when the taxation reform plan was announced in the autumn, they suffered to a greater extent than the national bonds. This is attributable to the fact that Finance Minister, Dr. Baba's plan provided for an extreme discrimination against the local bonds and debentures.

These abnormal conditions were brought about by the impossibility of finding a sound basis for investments under the Baba taxation reform plan. There were sellers but no buyers with the result that even those bearing a high interest were pulled down to the level of their face-value. Details of the movements of quotations of the local bonds and debentures during 1936 in comparison with the second half of the preceding year are tabulated as follows :

Movements of Quotations of Local Bonds and Debentures

		Tokyo Municipal Electric Bonds (4.5%)	Tokyo Municipal Electric Bonds (4.3%)	Tokyo Municipal Bonds (4.1%)	Industrial Bonds (4.1%)
June,	1935	¥100.90	¥ 99.60	—	¥ 99.55
August	,,	100.90	99.65	—	99.60
October	,,	100.90	99.45	—	99.55
December	,,	100.85	99.50	—	99.60
February	1936	100.80	99.60	—	99.65
April	,,	100.90	100.90	—	100.85
June	,,	100.50	100.85	—	100.90
September	,,	100.30	100.40	¥100.40	100.40
October	,,	100.30	100.35	100.10	100.25
November	,,	100.10	100.10	99.90	100.25
December	,,	100.10	100.10	99.80	100.10

		S.M.R. Debentures (5%)	S.M.R. Debentures (4.3%)	S.M.R. Debentures (4.1%)	Tokyo Electric Debentures (4.5%)	Tokyo Electric Debentures (4.1%)
June,	1935	¥102.00	¥ 99.45	—	¥100.50	—
August	,,	102.05	99.40	—	100.75	—
October	,,	101.95	99.35	—	100.95	—
December	,,	101.95	99.25	—	100.75	—
February,	1936	101.95	99.20	—	100.90	—
April	,,	101.40	100.55	—	100.75	—
June	,,	100.80	100.85	—	100.60	—
September	,,	100.55	100.75	¥100.15	100.50	¥100.05
October	,,	100.30	100.30	99.75	100.20	99.65
November	,,	100.30	100.20	99.20	100.15	99.25
December	,,	100.30	100.05	99.20	100.10	99.25

Underwriting World Conditions in underwriting circles, which had been by no means satisfactory at the beginning of the year 1936, became worse as a result of the occurrence of the February 26 incident and subsequent political unrest. When Finance Minister, Dr. Baba strengthened the low-interest policy during the early part of April, however, the underwriting world began to recover from its depression and arrangements for the issuance of bonds and debentures were conducted in succession. Payments on bonds and debentures were also made actively between June and October.

Needless to say, the successive issuance of bonds and debentures increased the amount of payments made on bonds and debentures, which, coupled with the increase in the amount of loans made by the various banking organs, brought about unusual activity in the money market. Details of the bonds and debentures issued during 1936 are shown in the following table :

BONDS AND DEBENTURES ISSUED DURING 1936

	Local Bonds	Debentures of Banks	Other Debentures
January	¥ 4,000,000	¥15,000,000	¥10,000,000
February	22,500,000	11,700,000	62,500,000
March	25,300,000	29,300,000	45,500,000
April	700,000	15,600,000	34,800,000
May	36,000,000	13,400,000	73,000,000
June	60,600,000	46,300,000	118,500,000
July	141,000,000	73,600,000	99,300,000
August	84,200,000	69,500,000	46,000,000
Sept.	51,400,000	89,600,000	136,000,000
October	2,500,000	60,200,000	185,000,000
November	2,500,000	20,500,000	22,500,000
December	—	300,000	100,000

Influenced by the low-interest tendency, conditions for the issuance of bonds and debentures improved to such an extent that local bonds were issued with an interest of 4 per cent and debentures with an interest of 4.1 per cen. The announcement of the taxation reform plan, which called for great sacrifices, and the subsequent busy monetary conditions, however, made the issuance of bonds and debentures more difficult. The blow thus dealt to the underwriting world proved so severe that, during the month of December, underwriting activities almost completely ceased until February, 1937. The issuance of national bonds which were underwritten by the Bank of Japan is not considered here.

Novertheless, the total amount of bonds and debentures issued during 1936 was by no means small. Those for the first half of the year amounted to only ¥620,000,000 but for the second half they reached as much as ¥1,180,000,000. It is also to be noted that the greater part of the total amount was shared by the five months between June and December.

Prospects of the Market The depression in the market of bonds and debentures which started toward the end of 1936 continued until the early part of 1937. On January 23 the downfall of the Hirota Cabinet occurred, which involved a tense political situation resulting in the formation of the Hayashi Cabinet following the abortive efforts of General Kazushigé Ugaki to form a Cabinet under his Premiership. The appointment of Mr. Toyotaro Yuki as the Finance Minister of the Hayashi Cabinet enabled the market of bonds and debentures to recover from the depression because the new Finance Minister revised the taxation plan of his predecessor.

Among the principal points covered by the revision effected by Finance Minister Yuki were the revival of the Second Class Income Tax, a 50 per cent increase in the rates, the imposition of a 2 per cent tax on the interest of national bonds, a 100 per cent increase in the tax on the interest of capital, the imposition of a special tax on bonds in foreign currencies at rates of 70 per cent of the amount of interest exceeding 5 per cent for national bonds and 70 per cent on the amount of interest exceeding 5.5 per cent for other bonds and a reduction of the rates fixed by the previous Minister for the transfer of securities.

The renewed activity of the market of bonds and debentures was marked by the issuance of debentures of the Keisei Electric Railway Company which was followed by the announcement of the conversion of the debentures of the Toho Electric Company. The new Finance Minister soon became very popular in bond and debenture circles, but it is to be noted that since the advance of the low-interest policy is difficult under present monetary conditions, it is equally difficult to expect a further improvement in conditions for the issuance of bonds and debentures. Greater activity may be expected in the bond and debenture market during May and June, but it is unlikely that the interest rates will become much lower than today. A considerable increase in the amount of bond and debenture issues, however, is probable.

INDEX NUMBER OF PRICE OF SHARES

(Compiled by the Tokyo Stock Exchange)

(1921=100)

(At the end of each year)

Kind	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937 (Feb.)
Utilities	72	91	118	156	153	164
Banking and insurance	157	155	168	173	172	181
Mining	91	154	139	122	138	151
Spinning	73	79	75	73	82	94

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937 (Feb.)
Manufacturing	63	71	74	74	85	93
Commercial under-takings	38	37	37	38	29	31
Shipping and miscellaneous transportations	41	47	54	59	76	83
Miscellaneous	140	103	154	148	179	195
Exchanges	150	146	115	130	108	120
All kinds	979	116	119	127	—	—

BOURSES

(Department of Commerce and Industry Figures)

JOINT-STOCK COMPANIES

(Amount in yen)

Year	At the End of Year				
	Number of Companies	Number of Brokers	Capital		
			Authorized	Paid-up	
1926	34	1,137	137,852,200	97,120,700	
1927	34	1,089	137,852,200	97,120,700	
1928	34	937	137,852,200	97,678,200	
1929	34	923	138,902,200	98,203,200	
1930	32	863	138,902,200	98,103,200	
1931	31	838	138,902,200	98,103,200	
1932	31	861	138,802,300	105,628,200	
1933	29	918	138,802,300	105,745,200	
1934	26	914	141,402,200	108,237,300	
1935	26	888	141,002,200	108,087,200	

During the Year

Year	Fees	Receipts Others	Total	Tax on Bourses	Expenses Others	Total
1926	17,077,364	7,573,039	24,650,403	2,567,386	6,223,559	8,790,945
1927	12,356,186	6,308,842	18,665,028	1,849,807	5,550,898	7,400,705
1928	11,378,712	6,513,665	17,892,377	1,731,680	6,206,673	7,938,353
1929	9,803,216	5,370,184	15,178,400	1,469,014	5,758,319	7,227,333
1930	9,953,828	5,078,418	15,032,246	1,540,853	5,406,713	6,947,566
1931	11,718,041	5,699,828	17,417,869	1,775,125	6,431,315	8,206,440
1932	13,700,918	6,236,902	19,993,782	2,076,346	6,992,606	9,068,952
1933	18,856,435	6,963,927	25,820,362	2,840,617	8,810,732	11,651,349
1934	16,631,634	7,567,536	24,199,170	2,508,929	9,667,401	12,176,330
1935	15,337,320	6,960,340	22,297,660	2,295,734	8,162,535	10,458,269

During the Year

Year	Net Profit	Loss	Dividend
1926	15,865,406	¥ 5,948	¥12,156,434
1927	11,294,632	30,309	9,136,450
1928	9,954,024	—	8,452,468
1929	7,951,304	237	6,462,306
1930	8,087,621	2,941	6,428,218
1931	9,230,713	19,284	6,642,108
1932	10,924,830	24,195	7,997,109
1933	14,197,632	28,612	9,639,337
1934	12,026,918	4,078	7,920,831
1935	11,853,311	13,920	8,214,486

ASSOCIATIONS

(Amount in yen)

Year	At the End Year			
	Number of Associations	Number of Members	Contribution Amount	Reserve Funds
1926	3	112	405,500	125,626
1927	4	120	443,500	323,378
1928	5	142	450,830	377,449
1929	5	128	527,560	438,702
1930	5	120	530,740	478,157
1931	5	111	530,740	514,926
1932	6	183	559,270	593,564
1933	6	187	562,950	732,537
1934	6	188	568,550	905,428
1935	6	188	571,450	1,036,420

Year	During the Year			
	Fees	Receipts Others	Total	Expenses
1926	346,737	44,580	391,317	204,103
1927	269,631	52,096	321,727	189,717
1928	219,159	60,007	279,166	168,820
1929	165,142	61,039	226,181	164,447
1930	144,832	56,575	201,407	127,878
1931	136,730	55,405	192,135	134,469
1932	239,024	73,575	312,599	162,681
1933	316,993	76,923	393,916	161,044
1934	226,789	79,671	306,460	157,353
1935	311,128	81,407	392,535	187,615

TRANSACTIONS IN SHARES, BONDS AND PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES AT THE BOURSES

Year	Number of Bourses	Shares			
		Long Term		Short Term	
		Amount of Sales Shares	Amount of Deliveries Shares	Amount of Sales Shares	Amount of Deliveries Shares
1926	11	72,708,490	10,313,760	94,256,830	11,878,850
1927	11	51,162,160	7,946,110	76,998,030	10,195,310
1928	11	37,159,940	7,332,900	66,810,640	9,617,310
1929	11	27,983,480	5,473,340	82,303,490	12,811,520
1930	11	36,512,680	4,219,690	96,078,300	14,773,330
1931	11	30,360,080	4,013,940	139,008,640	16,941,130
1932	11	46,236,900	6,857,770	165,252,540	22,829,120
1933	11	57,275,810	11,316,750	216,429,210	26,872,090
1934	11	62,291,090	11,982,120	198,729,380	23,041,310
1935	11	41,065,140	8,153,130	214,320,750	23,545,450

Year	Bonds				Rice		
	No. of Bourses	Long Term			No. of Bourses	Amount of Sales Hectolitres	Amount of Deliveries Hectolitres
		Amount of Sales ¥		Amount of Deliveries ¥			
1926	2	179,726,000 fr. 3,550,000		37,301,000 —	26	327,429,399	2,713,261
1927	2	129,774,000 fr. 44,200,000	fr.	16,335,000 11,475,000	28	317,627,783	1,635,605
1928	2	448,051,000 fr. 145,975,000	fr.	108,247,000 48,810,000	27	320,372,792	2,248,033
1929	2	349,410,000 fr. 107,185,000	fr.	76,305,000 23,920,000	26	324,978,355	1,757,910

Year	Bonds Long Term No. of Bourses	Amount of Sales ¥	Amount of Deliveries ¥	Rice No. of Bourses	Amount of Sales Hectolitres	Amount of Deliveries Hectolitres
1930	2	295,620,000 fr. 45,980,000	33,410,000 fr. 21,070,000	25	398,580,769	1,616,303
1931	2	793,835,000 fr. 289,770,000	166,950,000 fr. 84,620,000	25	369,669,508	2,176,046
1932	2	740,755,000 fr. 279,210,000	148,845,000 fr. 39,420,000	24	400,031,293	3,061,235
1933	2	536,370,000 fr. 624,970,000	126,190,000 fr. 87,760,000	24	224,276,342	2,248,032
1934	2	412,995,000 fr. 513,240,000	99,730,000 fr. 65,430,000	24	198,615,902	1,842,333
1935	2	539,620,000 fr. 271,170,000	52,170,000 fr. 26,920,000	24	171,639,691	2,631,904

Year	Raw Silk No. of Bourses	Amount of Sales kg.	Amount of Deliveries kg.	Cotton Yarn No. of Bourses	Amount of Sales Bales	Amount of Deliveries Bales
1926	1	21,662,580	580,800	3	13,146,095	48,575
1927	1	18,733,140	285,000	3	12,103,260	79,015
1928	1	15,516,840	749,400	3	10,878,320	61,430
1929	2	11,957,940	322,800	3	7,817,150	47,900
1930	2	29,641,596	480,000	3	10,048,140	54,530
1931	2	44,030,220	2,328,000	3	8,162,960	20,870
1932	2	41,077,140	1,250,400	3	10,492,050	58,000
1933	2	44,379,840	652,800	3	9,398,060	28,625
1934	2	48,118,800	1,020,000	3	8,010,060	42,170
1935	2	802,060,200	1,086,000	3	8,327,190	26,510

PRICES OF PRINCIPAL BONDS AND SHARES IN TOKYO

(Compiled by the Bank of Japan)

Year	5% Loan (Mark: "Ko") Face value	Highest	Lowest	4% Loan (1st series) Face value	Highest	Lowest
1925	¥100.00	¥ 86.70	¥ 83.00	¥100.00	¥ 75.60	¥ 72.35
1926	100.00	87.55	86.40	100.00	76.90	73.85
1927	100.00	93.60	88.30	100.00	79.90	74.30
1928	100.00	98.00	89.30	100.00	90.00	76.70
1929	100.00	96.30	90.60	100.00	83.90	77.00
1930	100.00	92.90	86.95	100.00	80.00	75.50
1931	100.00	98.35	86.15	100.00	84.60	72.60
1932	100.00	99.50	86.50	100.00	90.00	73.60
1933	100.00	104.10	94.70	100.00	100.40	82.60
1934	100.00	106.50	101.90	100.00	99.50	98.35
1935	100.00	105.60	102.50	100.00	99.10	98.60
1936	100.00	105.85	100.10	100.00	103.30	98.65

Year	Bank of Japan Shares Paid-up	Highest	Lowest	Yokohama Specie Bank Shares Paid-up	Highest	Lowest
1925	¥200.00	¥735.00	¥640.00	¥100.00	¥199.00	¥169.60
1926	200.00	820.00	735.00	100.00	200.30	185.30
1927	200.00	790.00	660.00	100.00	206.00	178.50
1928	200.00	723.00	633.00	100.00	234.50	198.00
1929	200.00	648.00	539.00	100.00	217.00	186.20
1930	200.00	580.00	743.00	100.00	203.00	139.50
1931	200.00	554.00	475.00	100.00	180.00	141.00
1932	200.00	535.00	475.00	100.00	187.50	137.00
1933	200.00	554.00	485.00	100.00	200.50	160.00
1934	200.00	545.00	509.00	100.00	206.70	194.80
1935	200.00	566.00	495.50	100.00	213.00	201.50
1936	200.00	559.00	533.00	100.00	223.50	200.30

Year	Industrial Bank of Japan Shares			South Manchuria Railway Company Shares		
	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest
1925	¥50.00	¥52.00	¥44.00	¥100.00	¥125.30	¥110.50
1926	50.00	51.00	46.60	100.00	130.50	122.60
1927	50.00	47.20	30.40	100.00	135.00	120.00
1928	50.00	42.30	33.10	100.00	145.20	129.20
1929	50.00	39.80	32.90	50.00	71.70	63.50
1930	50.00	35.30	18.80	50.00	72.60	49.70
1931	50.00	30.70	23.40	50.00	63.90	45.30
1932	50.00	47.20	24.30	50.00	67.60	48.30
1933	50.00	50.20	35.00	50.00	74.00	54.00
1934	50.00	43.40	48.20	50.00	70.00	61.00
1935	50.00	54.60	50.90	50.00	66.30	57.80
1936	50.00	58.90	53.00	50.00	64.10	56.00

Year	Nippon Yusen Kaisha Shares			Osaka Shosen Kaisha Shares		
	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest	Paid-np	Highest	Lowest
1925	¥50.00	¥91.00	¥67.50	¥50.00	¥56.50	¥42.20
1926	50.00	83.80	74.00	50.00	58.50	49.40
1927	50.00	82.30	66.10	50.00	54.20	43.00
1928	50.00	72.30	66.20	50.00	49.50	43.30
1929	50.00	69.70	55.20	50.00	45.30	37.50
1930	50.00	57.40	25.20	50.00	36.00	17.80
1931	50.00	45.00	29.30	50.00	30.50	18.60
1932	50.00	58.50	28.30	50.00	48.50	19.80
1933	50.00	57.20	41.00	50.00	48.80	28.00
1934	50.00	59.30	45.50	50.00	52.90	43.50
1935	50.00	74.00	50.00	50.00	59.20	43.20
1936	50.00	74.20	63.80	50.00	56.90	52.10

Year	Tokyo Electric Light Company Shares			Kanegafuchi Cotton Spinning Company Shares		
	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest
1925	¥50.00	¥72.70	¥50.00	¥50.00	¥385.00	¥221.50
1926	50.00	65.80	50.90	50.00	278.50	246.10
1927	50.00	58.70	46.40	50.00	267.50	215.00
1928	50.00	57.00	50.20	50.00	280.50	245.00
1929	50.00	53.90	39.30	50.00	274.50	225.50
1930	50.00	41.90	15.50	50.00	222.50	119.00
1931	50.00	24.70	14.00	50.00	220.50	138.90
1932	50.00	24.30	12.70	50.00	273.90	184.60
1933	50.00	33.90	13.40	50.00	267.90	168.10
1934	50.00	43.40	30.80	50.00	245.70	216.10
1935	50.00	60.00	38.40	50.00	233.50	205.10
1936	50.00	66.30	50.30	50.00	245.00	205.10

Year	Meiji Life Insurance Company Shares			Nippon Oil Company Shares		
	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest
1925	¥100.00	¥1,650.00	¥ 506.00	¥50.00	¥101.50	¥83.50
1926	100.00	2,320.00	1,510.00	50.00	99.30	65.00
1927	100.00	2,136.00	1,600.00	50.00	70.30	46.20
1928	100.00	2,055.00	1,620.00	50.00	68.40	56.00
1929	100.00	2,005.00	1,680.00	50.00	68.30	40.00
1930	100.00	1,680.00	1,160.00	50.00	44.10	20.40
1931	100.00	1,700.00	1,280.00	50.00	44.00	27.80
1932	100.00	1,570.00	1,035.00	50.00	58.60	36.60
1933	100.00	1,300.00	1,100.00	50.00	66.50	47.10
1934	100.00	1,150.00	860.00	50.00	53.80	35.50
1935	100.00	1,005.00	815.00	50.00	51.00	38.10
1936	100.00	1,050.00	808.00	50.00	78.90	52.20

Year	Keihin Electric Tramway Company Shares			Tokyo Stock Exchange Shares		
	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest
1925	¥50.00	¥69.80	¥62.20	¥50.00	¥184.50	¥111.00
1926	50.00	76.60	64.00	50.00	209.00	166.00
1927	50.00	72.70	51.60	50.00	200.00	140.00
1928	50.00	61.20	54.20	50.00	204.50	169.00
1929	50.00	56.30	50.40	50.00	168.00	111.00
1930	50.00	52.70	28.00	50.00	121.00	96.80
1931	50.00	41.50	34.00	50.00	169.50	104.50
1932	50.00	40.80	31.80	50.00	209.00	129.50
1933	50.00	39.50	31.30	50.00	218.00	128.00
1934	50.00	41.50	33.10	50.00	168.50	114.50
1935	50.00	37.00	33.10	50.00	160.00	124.50
1936	50.00	46.20	35.80	50.00	155.60	114.30

Note:—The highest and lowest prices of the 5% and 4% loans represent flat prices. Figures for 1936 are liable to future revision.

YIELDS OF STOCKS AND DEBENTURES

(Prepared by Hypothec Bank of Japan)

	Leading stocks 65 kinds			Bonds and debentures		
	Average yields	Index numbers (1914 July=100)	Gov't Bonds	Municipal Bonds	Bank Deb.	Corporate Deb. (20)
1925	7.80%	103	6.03%	7.26%	7.67%	8.17%
1926	6.99	97	5.90	6.82	7.34	7.70
1927	7.13	99	5.67	6.50	7.02	7.45
1928	6.17	86	5.16	5.87	6.32	6.79
1929	6.85	95	5.08	5.88	6.10	6.43
1930	8.10	113	5.37	6.09	6.18	6.54
1931	6.82	95	5.40	5.91	6.12	6.49
1932	6.01	83	5.59	6.07	6.33	6.84
1933	5.03	67	4.81	5.33	5.44	5.96
1934	4.90	66	4.52	4.94	4.98	5.41
1935	5.58	69	4.49	4.70	4.67	4.99
1936 December	5.62	69	3.97	4.21	4.27	4.38

AGRICULTURAL AND INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTIONS IN JAPAN PROPER

1931—1934

(In ¥1,000)

	1931	1932	1933	1934
Agricultural products	1,199,964	1,615,548	1,865,800	1,812,237
Horticultural products				
Fruits, vegetables, etc.	231,382	237,444	276,375	271,923
Tobacco-leaf, rape-seed, etc.	77,131	78,890	97,345	103,436
Cocoons, tea, etc.	320,180	339,829	548,137	251,139
Domestic animals	170,882	169,317	192,016	203,110
Forestry products	199,153	205,446	248,115	291,408
Marine products; fish, etc.	246,231	240,873	280,939	292,278
Marine products; manure, oil.	130,708	130,662	156,294	167,048
Mine products	436,595	512,737	804,552	1,005,220
Textiles	2,195,562	2,551,285	3,271,999	3,710,315
Ceramic products	196,349	220,209	286,531	321,628
Foodstuffs	808,784	859,411	976,131	985,003
Metal industry products	307,996	400,527	562,008	703,932
Machines	443,341	543,841	805,115	1,082,073
Chemicals	722,377	839,693	1,115,490	1,270,310
Wooden manufactures	237,938	242,197	273,739	306,329
Other industrial products	345,401	401,217	480,292	579,994
Tobacco	83,062	84,133	90,714	96,707
Total	8,353,036	9,674,126	12,331,591	13,454,089
Index number (1926=100)	85.7	100.1	128.0	139.2

TOTAL VALUE OF PRODUCTS OF ALL FACTORIES IN JAPAN IN 1930

Production of Factories where more than five operatives are employed ("Factories Statistics" Published by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

(In ¥1,000)

	1933	1934	1935
Spinning and textile products	2,914,155	3,167,755	3,352,564
Metallic products	878,691	1,496,793	1,881,743
Machinery and instruments	888,195	1,159,167	1,462,539
Ceramic products	220,743	251,961	283,166
Chemical products	1,288,083	1,480,783	1,813,878
Lumber and wood work	189,520	228,800	248,699
Printing and binding	181,588	203,843	222,963
Foodstuff industry	1,017,037	1,046,340	1,168,479
Miscellaneous industries	293,348	354,613	402,860
Total value	7,871,364	9,390,060	10,836,894

Production of Minor Factories There are in Japan great numbers of minor factories engaged in various industries where less than 5 persons are employed and which do not come under the control of the Factory Law. Accordingly, most of the industrial statistics given in the following chapters on industrial subjects are of factories where more than 5 persons are employed. The Ministry of Commerce and Industry gives statistics on more than 20 kinds of industries in which the largest numbers of such minor factories are engaged. The following table includes most of them, the production of which alone reaches nearly 9 per cent of the total production of the factories where more than 5 operatives are employed given above.

VALUE OF INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION IN FACTORIES WHERE LESS THAN 5 PERSONS ARE EMPLOYED IN 1935

(In Yen)

	Production of the factories where more than 5 persons are employed	Production of all factories	Production of the factories where less than 5 persons are employed
Cotton tissues	641,148,071	822,417,744	181,269,673
Silk tissue, and cotton and silk mixtures	243,439,641	632,933,188	389,493,547
Hemp tissue, and hemp and cloth mixtures	13,129,522	20,220,214	7,090,692
Woolen fabrics and mixtures	200,799,657	296,226,848	95,427,191
Knitted goods	74,448,405	84,931,027	10,482,622
Ceramics:			
Tablewares	23,335,717	54,616,818	31,281,101
Furnitures	2,251,716	15,504,495	13,252,779
Insulators	6,745,954	9,245,261	2,499,307
Toys	642,100	3,471,091	2,828,991
Others and Total	50,914,501	99,368,010	48,453,509
Roof tiles	4,817,130	24,651,866	19,834,736
Lacquerwares	1,661,024	38,399,906	36,738,882
Leather and manufactures	20,955,037	65,243,769	44,288,732
Starch	9,814,473	17,566,343	7,751,870
Bamboo articles	2,198,250	10,703,484	8,505,234
Wood work	100,958,016	194,555,207	93,597,191
Cane-work	625,436	2,302,291	1,676,855
Wicker-work	319,177	2,964,789	2,645,612
Brushes	2,824,342	5,662,720	2,838,378
Japanese mats	81,912	12,620,764	12,538,852
Other mats and hanamushiro	2,968,641	7,058,873	4,090,232
Straw and wood-shaving plaits	1,965,454	3,868,856	1,903,402
Total	1,373,068,689	2,341,695,899	968,627,310

INDEX NUMBER OF INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTS

According to the Ministry of Commerce and Industry

(Average of 1831–1933=100)

	Manufacturing Industry	Mining Industry	Average of all kinds of Industry
1930	92.5	106.1	94.2
1931	90.2	96.8	91.1
1932	97.3	96.3	97.2
1933	123.3	106.7	112.5
1934	129.1	115.4	127.4
1935	143.3	124.1	141.0
1936	151.9	138.0	150.2

NUMBER OF APPLICATIONS AND GRANTS FOR PATENTS, DESIGNS, ETC. ACCORDING TO NATIONALITIES

(Compiled by the Patent Bureau, Department of Commerce and Industry)

Kinds	Year	Applied For			Registered		
		Japanese	Foreigners	Total	Japanese	Foreigners	Total
Patents	1930	12,568	2,862	15,430	3,366	1,610	4,976
	1931	12,871	2,312	15,183	2,998	1,320	4,318
	1932	12,176	1,702	13,878	3,437	1,309	4,846
	1933	12,110	1,794	13,904	4,306	1,196	5,502
	1934	12,822	1,900	14,722	3,743	930	4,673
	1935	14,758	1,887	16,645	3,816	950	4,766
	1885–1955 total	283,188	47,448	330,636	72,671	27,863	100,534
Utility models	1930	38,200	287	38,487	12,117	119	12,236
	1931	37,954	342	38,296	11,917	163	12,080
	1932	33,666	315	33,981	11,782	206	11,988
	1933	32,502	341	32,843	15,680	260	15,940
	1034	34,557	382	34,939	13,978	272	14,250
	1935	40,580	408	40,988	14,014	226	14,240
	1905–1935 total	666,523	3,121	669,644	207,419	1,748	209,167
Designs	1930	12,006	32	12,038	5,995	19	6,014
	1931	9,951	36	9,987	4,801	18	4,819
	1932	9,172	23	9,195	4,547	20	4,567
	1933	9,388	39	9,427	4,044	13	4,057
	1934	9,566	45	9,611	4,026	26	4,052
	1935	12,285	79	12,364	5,434	40	5,474
	1890–1935 total	161,595	792	162,387	74,448	342	74,790
Trade Marks	1930	21,103	1,332	22,435	9,916	1,091	11,007
	1931	21,288	1,132	22,420	10,953	928	11,881
	1932	20,648	881	21,529	9,873	703	10,576
	1933	22,986	1,056	24,042	11,867	763	12,630
	1934	25,484	802	26,286	12,575	753	13,328
	1935	28,912	749	29,661	13,456	564	14,020
	1884–1935 total	548,325	35,651	583,976	264,231	25,637	289,868
Total	1930	83,877	4,513	88,390	31,394	2,839	34,233
	1931	82,064	3,822	85,886	30,669	2,429	33,098
	1932	75,662	2,921	78,538	29,739	2,238	31,977
	1933	76,986	3,230	80,216	35,897	2,232	38,129
	1934	82,429	3,129	85,558	34,322	1,931	36,303
	1935	96,535	3,123	99,658	36,720	1,780	38,500
	1884–1935 total	1,659,631	87,012	1,746,643	618,769	55,590	674,359

PATENTS REGISTERED BY KINDS

Kinds	No. Registered				
	1935	1934	1933	1932	1631
Physical apparatus	173	180	208	209	185
Motors	127	103	140	114	94
Application of heat	100	101	157	118	111
Operation of liquid	74	104	110	83	56
Mechanism	68	68	85	79	74

Kinds	No. Registered 1935	1934	1933	1932	1931
Transportation	157	216	296	273	206
Prevention of accidents	17	16	16	8	17
Armaments	88	99	56	62	49
Purification and sanitation	50	52	83	50	41
Building and mining	59	127	145	100	88
Working machines	193	175	151	149	119
Live-stock raising	85	70	83	96	83
Fabric machinery	300	365	465	410	357
Manufacturing plant	215	167	217	275	213
Signs and shop fittings	22	24	21	14	13
Stationery	78	97	102	67	46
Sports and recreation	13	14	21	7	15
Clothing and accessories	30	24	31	30	26
Bottles and boxes	42	37	45	38	37
Kitchen and smoking utensils	19	14	22	20	19
Household furniture	46	42	42	37	37
Chimicals and medical utensils	219	264	323	248	282
Fuel	103	94	113	83	65
Metallic goods	140	147	171	152	98
Ceramic goods	130	96	111	115	81
Waxes and oils	69	35	52	38	24
Colours and starches	101	97	149	106	93
Matches and explosives	9	11	11	10	8
Fabrics	329	287	307	258	219
Printing and photography	52	101	75	93	72
Foodstuffs	266	194	290	164	149
Sanitary materials	150	177	172	160	160
Clay and plaster	167	108	131	101	102
Petty chemical industry	127	101	147	150	131
Electric material	63	31	38	40	47
„ machinery	119	118	127	81	95
„ transmission & transformers	228	198	232	296	283
„ meters	44	59	50	49	60
„ communication	306	284	315	238	285
„ heating	64	56	51	58	47
Application of electric power	20	21	33	48	37
Electro-chemical	34	45	39	39	33
Petty electric utensils	70	54	69	80	61
Total	4,766	4,673	5,502	4,846	4,318

Prices of Commodities

The prices of commodities in Japan fell during the first half of 1936 on account of the February 26 incident and also as a reaction to the high levels reached on the strength of the Italo-Ethiopian conflict; but during the second half they manifested considerable activity and toward the end of the year they suddenly commenced to soar. This rising tendency featured all commodites but it was particularly notable in the case of fibrous goods and munitions.

The immediate cause of the sudden rise is to be found in the increased demand brought about by the enormous expansion in finances. As general factors actuating the rise may be mentioned the higher commodity prices abroad, the economic recovery of the agricultural community, the improvement in the relations of supply and demand resulting from the strengthened control of production and the shortage of materials.

The present conditions of commodity prices show a remarkable recovery but the high prices in January this year were still below the level of the prepanic period, 1927. This is because the prices of domestic products and exports were comparatively low. In the case of imports, however, the level of the early years of the Showa Era was already reached. This is to be attributed to the boom in the munitions industry abroad and the higher prices of agricultural products.

As regards the future of commodity

prices, it may be said that this rising tendency will keep step with the higher prices of commodities abroad and the inflation of Government finances, no matter what measures the Government may adopt in an attempt to check the rise.

Movements of Prices in 1936 The movements of commodity prices in this country during the post-panic period were characterized by the fact that prices touched bottom in 1931 immediately before the re-imposition of the gold embargo. As the value of the yen was lowest during the last part of 1932 and the early months of 1933, commodity prices soared then to their highest level. Later, prices became stationary in spite of the inflation of finances because the control of currency was successfully enforced; this being aided by an expansion of general production.

The aggravation of the Italo-Ethiopian conflict during the autumn of 1935, the advance of the boom in the United States and the economic recovery of the agricultural community combined again to raise prices, but not for long and toward the end of the same year a reactionary decline set in.

Commodity prices during the first half of 1936 were low on account of various factors including the February 26 incident as already mentioned, the subsequent unrest prevailing among the people at large, the repeated issuance of important statements by the Hirota Government, and the resultant slackness of commercial transactions. A rising tendency, however, developed during the second half of the year as the question of renovating the administrative system came to be gradually clarified, thus reassuring financial circles.

It was expected that commodity prices would remain stationary until this year (1937) at the least, but toward the end of 1934 they began to soar, especially in the case of fibrous goods and munitions. The index number for December, 1936, was 92.72 which set the highest record since November, 1929. The average index number for 1936 came to 86.54 as a result, which represents an increase of 34 per cent over the low level (64.41) of the panic year, 1931.

Reasons for Sudden Rise Needless to say, the rise in the prices of commodities toward the end of 1936 is attributable to the economic recovery of the agricultural community, increase in the purchasing power of the general public, expansion of the export trade, higher prices of commodities abroad and stabilization of the yen at a low level. As the immediate cause of the rise, however, the sudden inflation of finances must be mentioned. The budget estimates for the 1937-38 fiscal year, compiled by Finance Minister Eiichi Baba of the Hirota Government, amounted to more than ¥3,000,000,000, about 50 per cent of which goes to military expenditure.

The announcement of these enormous budget estimates toward the end of the year brought about a provisional demand in anticipation of further inflation. This phenomenon was particularly remarkable in the fibrous goods market with cotton yarn as the nucleus. This was due to the fact that the spinning and rayon industries had been curtailing production on account of their past experiences with over-production, which resulted in the possibility of such products running short at any time.

On the other hand, the products of heavy industry also advanced in price on the strength of the provisional demand and not because of production curtailment. As indicated by the dearth of iron and steel, the development of the munitions inflation exposed a lack of productive power in the heavy industry. Further, owing to the difficulty of importing munitions a result of the world-wide armament race, the shortage of materials became greater and greater.

In other words, the enormous budget estimates compiled by the Hirota Government for the 1937-38 fiscal year on the basis of the so-called quasi-war situation, and the shortage of materials, are to be held responsible for the sudden rise in commodity prices toward the end of 1936.

Prices and International Relations As shown in table No. 2, the higher prices recorded toward the end of 1936 were more affected by import and export conditions than by those of domestic products. This is clear from the fact that the prices of domestic products rose in December by only 1.5 per cent when compared with the low level of March while an increase of 16 per cent was recorded for exports and an increase of 12 per cent for imports. The remarkable rise in the prices of exports, while resulting from the advance of the export trade, is to be attributed particularly to the provisional demand brought about by the forcible operation of enormous finances at a time when the relations of supply and demand showed an improvement as a result of the production curtailment involving such important goods as cotton yarn, rayon and raw silk.

In this respect, it is to be noted that exports, although advancing in price, still remain at a low level when compared with imports and the domestic products marketed at home. The average index number of prices during 1936 was 89.1 for the domestic products marketed at home and 97.7 for imports against 75 for exports. It is this cheapness of Japan's exports that forms the key to the expansion of the export trade of this country and at the same time constitutes a menace to her competitors. In view of this fact, considerable interest attaches to the recent rise in the price of exports in its relations with the future of the export trade of this nation.

While the prices of exports still remained at a low level, the prices of imports reached the index number of 106.5 during December, 1936, which is even above the level of the pre-panic period. Although at first thought the depreciation of the yen may be considered as responsible for the rise in the prices of imports, it is not necessarily so because the yen showed a firmer tone during 1936 than in 1935 as shown in the following table :

INDEX NUMBER OF YEN

1931	126.9
1932	80.9
1933	64.4
1934	62.5
1935	55.6
1936	58.4

Note:—The index number for the pre-war period forms the basis of the above figures.

It is clear from the above table that the index number of the exchange rates of the yen during 1936 was 5 per cent higher than that recorded during 1935. This rise is not due to any favourable factors on the part of the yen but is to be attributed to the fact that the yen was linked with the pound sterling and as such rose in the exchange rates when the dollar declined in its exchange rates with the pound sterling under the circumstances surrounding the devaluation of the franc.

Thus, it is also clear that the rise in the prices of imports was not influenced by the exchange rates of the yen but was brought about by the advance of commodity prices abroad. According to a survey of the Bank of Japan, the index number of prices in the principal cities of the world during last year (1936) and the preceding five years, the figures for the pre-war period being taken as 100, is as follows :

INDEX NUMBER OF WHOLESALE PRICES

	Tokyo	London	New York	Paris
1931	121.7	98.0	98.9	462
1932	128.1	94.8	80.6	407
1933	142.7	95.1	92.2	388
1934	141.3	99.1	106.5	366
1935	147.5	103.5	114.8	348
1936	157.0	109.7	116.7	403

The greatest advance in the commodity prices during 1936 was recorded in Paris, the index number increasing by 16 per cent as shown in the foregoing table. This, of course, resulted from the devaluation of the franc which was necessitated by the continued efflux of gold from France and the depression in that country during September. The commodity prices also rose in the United States and Great Britain. The rise in prices in the United States during 1936 was less than 2 per cent but it still represented an increase of 45 per cent when compared with the low level of 1932, recording a wider margin than in either Great Britain or Japan.

The world-wide rise in the prices of commodities, although attributable to the measures adopted by the various countries for the improvement of business to some extent, has mainly been brought about by the rise in price of munitions as a result of the armament race and the advance of the quotations of agricultural products due to unfavourable weather conditions. Particularly the world-wide armament race which is becoming increasingly keen has increased the demand for munitions and even prevented export of some materials, thus stimulating the upward trend of the prices of munitions. This forms one of the important factors which have been sending the prices of iron and steel soaring in this country.

In the meantime the advance in price of raw cotton, wheat and rubber brought about the rise in the prices of imports in this country during 1936. It goes without saying that the advance of the prices of agricultural products also served to push up the prices of commodities in general.

Financial Policy and Commodity Prices In succession to Dr. Eiichi Baba, Mr. Toyotaro Yuki was appointed Minister of Finance. The new Minister effected a sweeping revision of

the budget estimates compiled by his predecessor, reducing them by ¥270,000,000 to ¥2,770,000,000 with a view to checking the rising tendency of commodity prices. At the same time the new Minister dropped the Baba plan for a taxation reform and instead formulated a scheme for raising ¥290,000,000 by increased taxation which is more favourable for urban than for rural districts. By this means Minister Yuki expected that productive power would be increased.

Thus, confronted with a sharp upward trend of commodity prices, the financial policy of Minister Yuki laid great stress on measures to cope with this tendency. It is however difficult to check the rising tendency of commodity prices merely by reducing the Government expenditure by ¥270,000,000 and curtailing the deficit-covering loan issue by ¥77,000,000. For the estimates for the defence services remained practically the same and the revised budget estimates for the 1937–38 fiscal year still showed an increase of about ¥500,000,000 over the budget for the preceding fiscal year, besides an increase of ¥22,000,000 in loan issues.

In order to promote the productive power of the nation, it is said that chartered banks will be mobilized. This means that while domestic consumption is to be reduced, the demand of civilian organizations for materials will be encouraged. Unless taken at a time when the productive power of the nation has already been expanded, it is difficult to see how such measures can effectively check the rising tendency of commodity prices.

By their policy of shipping gold abroad for the stabilization of the exchange rates of the yen the Government may be able to keep the prices of commodities down to some extent for a time. The prices abroad, however, are likely to continue to rise around munitions while at home the economic recovery of the agricultural community and the inflation of munitions will progress further. Under these conditions, there may be no remarkable rise in the prices of commodities during the first half of 1937 but when the period of financial inflation sets in during the second half of the year, it is likely that the upward trend of commodity prices will be accelerated.

INDEX NUMBER OF WHOLESALE COMMODITY PRICES

	General Index Number	Cereals	Food & Table-luxuries	Clothes	Clothing Materials
January, 1936	85.88	101.0	95.0	69.3	78.7
February	84.49	101.2	93.5	68.7	74.5
March	84.39	101.6	93.2	69.5	73.5
April	85.08	103.1	91.8	71.3	74.8
May	84.64	105.2	92.1	70.9	73.0
June	85.24	108.0	92.8	70.9	73·9
July	86.86	108.9	93.7	72.2	77.3
August	87.29	111.5	94.1	73.9	75.9
September	86.76	109.8	93.9	73.2	75.2
October	87.04	103.1	94.3	74.7	77.5
November	88.14	101.8	96.4	76.3	82.1
December	92.72	102.8	97.4	80.8	85.6
1936 Average	86.54	104.8	94.0	72.6	76.8
1935 ,,	84.14	99.8	90.4	70.1	74.4
1934 ,,	80,96	87.5	89.7	72.0	67.9
1933 ,,	80.54	74.8	91.0	73.4	74.9
1932 ,,	70.27	70.5	88.6	62.6	62.1
1931 ,,	64.41	60.2	84.6	58.7	52.5
1930 ,,	78.56	82.8	93.3	71.4	67.9
1929 ,,	98.79	97.9	98.6	99.1	98.7
1928 ,,	101.23	102.1	101.4	100.9	101.3

	Building Material	Metals	Industrial Chemicals	Miscellaneous Industrial Goods	Fuel	Fertilizer
January, 1936	89.2	94.0	70.8	93.8	90.7	95.1
February	89.4	94.2	71.8	95.2	90.6	94.5
March	90.7	96.1	68.6	95.5	90.8	90.0
April	91.5	96.6	64.8	95.8	90.8	89.1
May	90.5	96.1	61.8	94.6	91.1	87.3

	Building Metarial	Metals	Industrial Chemicals	Miscellaneous Industrial Goods	Fuel	Fertilizer
June, 1936	90.2	94.9	60.0	93.6	91.1	87.1
July	90.9	95.7	59.9	95.0	91.1	90.5
August	90.8	97.4	60.0	94.5	90.9	89.9
September	90.9	98.5	57.5	95.3	91.1	90.8
October	93.2	101.2	56.6	96.0	92.5	85.1
November	95.5	106.5	57.4	98.4	94.8	83.5
December	108.7	110.3	57.8	100.5	97.1	85.5
1936 Average	92.6	98.4	62.3	95.7	91.9	89.0
1935 „	94.9	90.1	75.1	91.9	90.6	85.6
1934 „	98.3	85.1	79.8	95.3	89.6	73.6
1933 „	93.7	87.3	90.3	92.0	87.2	76.4
1932 „	87.8	61.5	66.3	77.6	80.0	70.1
1931 „	81.7	55.4	71.2	71.1	85.7	55.9
1930 „	84.3	73.3	86.2	82.6	82.9	76.4
1929 „	99.4	99.9	100.4	87.3	99.5	98.5
1928 „	100.6	100.1	99.6	102.7	100.5	101.6

	Domestic Products Marketed at Home	Exports	Imports
January, 1936	88.1	74.7	96.0
February	87.9	72.5	95.1
March	88.3	71.8	95.3
April	88.5	73.1	95.5
May	88.9	71.9	95.2
June	89.7	71.7	96.4
July	90.0	74.1	98.8
August	91.1	74.9	97.6
September	90.2	74.0	97.8
October	87.9	76.3	98.8
November	88.7	80.7	99.9
December	89.6	84.5	106.5
1936 Average	89.1	75.0	97.7
1935 „	87.1	72.3	94.8
1934 „	83.8	74.5	91.6
1933 „	81.4	77.0	89.2
1932 „	75.2	66.6	73.1
1931 „	55.6	57.6	59.0
1930 „	83.8	71.8	74.9
1929 „	98.9	100.9	98.1
1928 „	101.5	99.1	101.8

INDEX NUMBER OF PRICES

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Comparison of Wholesale and Retail Prices

(Based on December, 1929=100)

		Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
1930	Wholesale	98	97	95	94	92	88	85	85	83	80	79	78
	Retail	99	98	96	96	95	92	89	89	88	84	82	82
1931	Wholesale	77	78	78	77	75	74	74	73	71	69	69	73
	Retail	83	83	82	83	81	78	78	79	78	77	76	77
1932	Wholesale	78	79	78	76	74	73	74	80	85	87	93	97
	Retail	80	80	80	79	77	75	75	77	80	81	83	86
1933	Wholesale	98	95	94	93	94	95	95	95	97	97	96	94
	Retail	98	87	87	87	86	85	85	86	88	88	88	88
1934	Wholesale	95	96	95	95	95	95	95	96	98	99	98	98
	Retail	88	88	89	89	89	86	87	89	89	91	89	89
1935	Wholesale	97.9	98.3	97.6	97.3	96.9	95.7	94.8	95.3	97.5	100.1	99.6	98.5
	Retail	89.5	89.5	88.9	89.6	90.1	88.8	90.3	90.6	91.7	92.4	92.2	92.9
1936	Wholesale	98.5	98.4	98.7	99.2	98.9	99.3	100.7	101.1	101.9	101.9	103.8	109.8
	Retail	93.6	95.5	95.9	96.6	95.5	92.8	93.3	94.4	94.4	93.8	93.7	96.7

WHOLESALE PRICES OF PRINCIPAL TRADE GOODS

(Based on December, 1929=100)

		Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
1930	Export	98	97	93	91	87	79	77	79	78	76	76	77
	Import	97	95	93	92	91	88	85	85	83	80	79	77
1931	Export	76	77	76	74	70	70	72	69	66	63	64	67
	Import	76	76	77	76	75	73	73	71	69	68	68	73
1932	Export	72	74	73	70	68	66	68	80	86	84	91	94
	Import	79	80	80	78	77	77	78	86	93	97	104	106
1933	Export	92	89	88	88	91	95	95	95	97	95	93	90
	Import	109	106	107	105	106	107	107	106	107	107	106	105
1934	Export	91	92	92	91	92	93	92	92	95	95	95	95
	Import	106	107	106	106	106	107	107	108	110	110	107	107
1925	Export	94.8	94.6	93.1	92.4	92.8	91.5	90.7	90.9	92.8	97.1	97.4	95.6
	Import	108.9	108.4	107.4	107.7	107.8	106.4	105.3	105.7	107.2	110.3	109.8	109.0
1936	Export	94.1	92.7	93.3	94.5	94.0	94.8	96.8	97.9	98.4	100.5	103.2	108.1
	Import	109.7	110.5	111.4	111.4	110.8	111.8	113.9	114.6	115.1	116.1	118.9	128.9

WHOLESALE PRICES ACCORDING TO KINDS

(Based on December, 1929=100)

1930

	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	98	98	97	96	94	92	92	92	89	81	78	77
Fibre goods	97	96	93	92	88	78	73	75	75	72	72	72
Metal articles	98	96	94	92	89	88	86	84	82	80	80	79
Building materials	99	96	94	93	93	91	89	87	86	85	84	83
Industrial chemicals	99	98	98	97	97	95	93	91	90	90	88	86
Fertilizers	99	97	95	95	91	88	87	85	81	76	71	69
Fuel	99	98	97	95	94	93	91	90	88	87	86	86
Miscelleous	98	98	97	96	93	92	89	87	85	84	84	83
Average	98	97	95	94	92	88	85	85	83	80	79	78

1931

	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	76	76	76	75	75	74	74	74	72	71	72	75
Fibre goods	72	74	75	72	67	68	70	66	62	58	59	63
Metal articles	77	76	76	76	74	73	72	71	69	68	67	73
Building materials	83	84	87	88	86	84	83	83	83	82	80	83
Industrial chemicals	85	84	82	81	81	81	80	78	77	76	75	77
Fertilizers	70	70	73	75	74	72	70	67	64	63	64	72
Fuel	86	85	84	83	82	81	80	79	79	79	79	80
Miscellaneous	82	82	81	81	80	77	77	75	73	72	73	77
Average	77	78	78	77	75	74	74	73	71	69	69	73

1932

	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec
Foodstuffs	79	80	79	77	76	75	76	79	83	82	87	91
Fibre goods	70	71	70	64	61	60	63	77	84	84	92	95
Metal articles	79	79	80	78	78	78	79	85	95	103	114	114
Building materials	85	86	85	84	82	82	81	83	87	91	92	97
Industrial chemicals	78	80	81	81	79	78	78	78	80	84	91	104
Fertilizers	82	84	83	77	73	70	68	77	86	86	96	100
Fuel	81	81	81	80	79	77	76	76	79	80	82	86
Miscellaneous	84	86	86	86	85	84	83	86	91	96	100	104
Average	78	79	78	76	74	73	74	80	85	87	93	97

1933

	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	92	89	87	87	88	87	87	86	87	87	88	87
Fibre goods	92	84	82	82	86	92	93	94	98	96	93	90

	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Seps.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Metal articles	119	118	121	116	113	112	113	111	112	114	111	108
Building materials	101	100	98	95	94	94	95	97	98	98	98	98
Industrial chemicals	112	115	114	113	112	111	110	108	108	105	104	102
Fertilizers	99	95	90	89	87	90	87	85	86	87	88	88
Fuel	90	91	91	91	90	90	91	90	91	91	92	93
Miscellaneous	110	110	108	107	106	106	108	108	108	111	111	110
Average	98	95	94	93	94	95	95	95	97	97	96	94

1934

	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	86	87	87	87	88	86	85	88	90	93	93	93
Fibre goods	91	93	93	92	91	94	93	93	93	92	91	92
Metal articles	108	108	109	110	110	110	111	112	122	123	115	113
Building materials	98	98	99	100	100	100	100	101	106	106	105	104
Industrial chemicals	101	99	96	95	94	92	91	90	89	89	94	89
Fertilizers	88	89	88	88	88	85	84	87	88	89	88	89
Fuel	93	93	93	92	92	92	93	93	94	95	95	95
Miscellaneous	110	112	112	111	111	110	112	113	114	114	112	111
Average	95	96	95	95	95	95	95	96	98	99	98	98

1935

	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	94.4	97.6	97.8	96.4	95.6	94.2	93.8	96.2	100.7	102.4	101.7	101.7
Fibre goods	92.9	92.7	90.4	89.8	91.3	89.0	89.7	89.6	90.7	94.7	95.3	93.1
Metal articles	111.4	108.1	108.4	109.6	107.8	104.9	102.7	103.5	107.8	112.9	107.8	104.8
Building materials	101.7	100.6	100.2	99.9	98.8	98.3	98.2	97.5	98.7	99.3	99.3	99.3
Industrial chemicals	89.0	88.7	87.3	88.0	85.7	84.7	82.0	80.3	78.3	78.0	76.7	77.0
Fertilizers	90.5	96.0	96.8	98.5	99.5	96.3	92.0	91.3	96.0	100.5	100.8	100.8
Fuel	95.0	94.7	94.3	94.4	93.8	93.4	93.2	92.7	93.4	94.1	94.0	94.0
Miscellaneous	110.9	111.0	110.0	109.3	107.1	107.4	106.2	106.2	106.2	108.4	109.3	108.3
Average	97.9	98.3	97.6	97.3	96.9	95.3	94.8	95.3	97.5	100.1	99.6	99.0

1936

	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	103.7	103.2	102.6	103.4	105.0	105.5	106.3	108.2	107.0	103.1	102.7	105.2
Fibre goods	90.9	89.7	90.6	91.6	90.9	92.0	94.5	95.0	95.0	96.3	99.1	105.1
Metal articles	103.7	105.4	108.3	108.7	106.9	107.5	108.6	110.4	112.4	115.4	121.4	143.4
Building materials	98.9	99.1	98.9	98.6	98.5	97.7	98.2	99.0	101.6	102.3	104.4	107.5
Industrial chemicals	76.0	75.4	75.0	74.3	72.3	71.0	71.0	70.3	71.0	71.3	71.3	71.7
Fertilizers	103.3	101.8	98.3	98.0	96.0	97.3	99.8	101.5	101.0	97.8	96.5	99.0
Fuel	94.8	95.9	96.0	95.9	95.4	96.3	96.7	97.3	98.0	99.7	100.7	101.9
Miscellaneous	109.7	110.6	111.0	111.1	109.7	109.6	110.6	110.1	110.3	112.8	116.1	124.2
Average	98.5	98.4	98.7	99.2	98.9	99.3	100.7	101.6	101.9	101.9	103.8	109.8

RETAIL PRICES ACCORDING TO KINDS

1930

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	99.2	98.8	97.5	97.1	96.9	93.3	91.3	91.3	90.0	85.3	82.1	82.7
Clothes and accessories	98.4	95.9	93.5	92.3	90.8	87.4	83.3	81.5	81.0	79.5	79.4	78.4
Fuel	99.3	99.4	98.7	96.9	96.1	95.1	94.0	93.0	92.0	91.3	91.1	90.6
Building materials	97.6	96.0	94.3	92.1	90.9	89.7	86.4	84.9	83.6	82.6	82.1	81.8
Miscellaneous	98.8	97.8	96.6	95.1	93.7	92.3	90.1	88.9	87.7	86.1	84.7	83.9
Average	98.9	98.0	96.4	65.5	94.9	91.9	89.3	88.7	87.7	84.4	82.4	82.4

1931

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	83.7	84.2	83.1	84.3	82.7	78.8	79.5	80.9	79.7	79.0	77.3	79.1
Clothes and accessories	77.6	76.9	77.0	77.1	75.2	73.0	73.2	72.0	70.8	67.9	67.9	69.3
Fuel	90.0	89.6	89.0	88.4	86.7	86.1	84.7	84.7	84.7	84.6	84.7	84.9
Building materials	81.3	81.3	83.0	86.3	84.7	82.3	81.1	80.7	80.1	79.0	77.4	81.3
Miscelloneous	83.1	82.6	79.4	79.7	78.8	77.4	76.6	76.0	75.6	74.9	73.8	73.7
Average	82.6	82.7	81.9	82.8	81.2	78.2	78.4	78.9	77.9	76.7	65.6	77.1

1932

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	82.0	82.4	81.3	80.8	79.8	77.2	78.0	79.7	81.8	82.4	84.3	86.4
Clothes and accessories	71.6	72.0	72.6	70.6	68.6	66.8	66.4	67.7	75.6	76.0	78.7	81.7
Fuel	86.0	85.4	84.6	84.1	82.4	81.3	80.3	80.1	81.3	82.0	82.9	84.4
Building materials	83.4	85.1	85.9	84.1	81.3	79.1	78.7	79.0	84.9	88.3	94.1	98.3
Miscellaneous	75.2	76.0	77.0	77.1	75.6	74.7	74.1	74.2	75.7	77.3	80.9	83.8
Average	79.6	80.1	79.6	78.8	77.4	75.2	75.4	76.7	80.1	81.0	83.4	85.9

1933

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	89.3	87.0	86.9	87.3	87.4	85.0	85.5	85.6	86.5	86.9	87.7	86.6
Clothes and accessories	82.8	80.8	79.7	78.9	79.3	80.9	81.8	82.6	86.0	87.7	87.1	86.3
Fuel	87.6	88.0	87.7	87.9	87.4	87.0	86.4	87.0	87.7	89.0	90.4	91.0
Building materials	107.9	106.4	104.4	100.3	96.6	95.0	95.0	96.1	99.3	102.3	101.1	99.7
Miscelloneous	87.3	89.0	88.8	87.2	84.9	83.4	83.0	82.8	82.9	84.0	84.2	83.8
Average	88.9	87.3	86.9	86.5	86.1	84.8	85.2	85.6	87.1	88.0	88.4	87.5

1934

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	87.7	87.9	88.3	89.0	88.5	83.5	85.1	87.3	87.5	88.9	87.5	88.1
Clothes and accessories	85.6	86.4	86.2	86.2	86.4	87.7	87.8	88.0	88.4	88.6	88.0	87.4
Fuel	90.7	90.3	90.9	90.3	90.1	89.6	89.4	89.9	90.7	91.7	91.9	91.6
Building materials	99.7	99.9	101.6	102.6	102.1	102.3	104.9	106.3	108.4	117.0	110.0	107.1
Miscellaneous	83.3	83.4	83.4	83.2	82.7	82.9	83.4	84.1	84.8	88.0	86.6	85.3
Average	87.9	88.2	88.6	88.9	88.6	86.1	87.2	88.7	89.1	90.9	89.4	89.3

1935

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	89.2	89.5	88.6	89.9	91.0	89.1	92.0	92.3	94.4	94.6	94.1	95.8
Clothes and accessories	86.6	86.9	86.8	86.2	87.9	86.7	86.5	86.2	86.6	88.0	88.7	88.1
Fuel	91.6	91.1	90.9	90.7	90.1	89.9	89.9	90.1	90.3	90.7	90.9	90.9
Building materials	104.9	102.9	103.0	102.4	99.6	98.0	97.1	97.7	98.0	101.0	98.7	97.6
Miscellaneous	84.9	83.9	83.7	84.6	83.9	83.6	82.9	82.8	82.9	84.2	84.2	84.0
Average	89.5	89.5	88.9	89.6	90.1	88.8	90.3	90.4	91.7	92.4	92.2	92.9

1936

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	97.4	100.6	101.6	102.6	100.9	96.0	96.5	98.2	97.4	95.4	94.5	97.4
Clothes and accessories	87.6	87.6	87.3	87.8	87.8	88.2	89.0	89.0	90.6	91.4	42.2	93.5
Fuel	91.1	92.4	92.3	92.0	91.0	90.7	90.4	91.0	91.4	92.3	93.7	95.6
Building materials	96.4	96.1	96.1	96.7	95.6	95.9	96.3	97.7	99.7	101.7	103.1	112.0
Miscellaneous	83.9	83.8	83.7	83.4	82.9	82.8	83.1	82.9	83.1	84.2	85.0	88.9
Average	93.6	95.5	95.9	96.6	95.5	92.8	93.3	94.4	94.4	93.8	93.7	96.7

Commercial and Industrial Bodies

Important Commodities Guilds At the end of 1935 there were 787 important Commodities Guilds representing 115 kinds of enterprises in Japan, a loss of 18 in number and a gain of 2 in kind as compared with the previous year. Those which headed the list were textiles with 102, rice and cereals 65, lumber 49, soy and "miso" 36. Federations of these guilds numbered 27.

Industrial Guilds At the end of 1935 the number of Industrial Guilds was 662 representing 69 kinds of enterprises, a gain of 181 in number and 9 in kind as compared with the previous year. Cotton textiles head the list with 112, silk textiles come next with 67 followed by ceramics with 40 and wood manufactures with 40, etc. There were 36 federations of these guilds.

Commercial Guilds In the same year the Commercial Guilds numbered 882, representing 40 kinds of commodities, a gain of 292 in number and 5 in kind, as compared with the previous year. Cereals and flour lead the rest with 103, followed by foodstuff with 71, and clothings with 69.

Export Guilds In the same period, the number of Export Guilds was 81 representing 12 kinds of commodities, a again of 11 in number, while the

number of kinds remained stationary.

Chambers of Commerce and Industry At the end of 1935 there were 103 Chambers of Commerce and Industry in Japan, with the total membership of 3,627 elected by 145,922 voters, an increase of 4 in the number of chambers, 69 in members and 19,572 in votes.

An Outline of Economic Conditions in 1936

The economic conditions of this country, following the re-imposition of the gold embargo in 1931, have had their key-note in the promotion of the heavy industries under the impetus of two factors, one being found in the active export trade through the fall in the exchange rates of the yen and the other in the increased domestic consumption brought about by inflation of the currency.

The collapse of the gold standard caused the principle of free trade to be abandoned throughout the world and the extreme business depression gave rise to a high degree of economic nationalism in various countries, finally leading to the erection of a succession of trade barriers, and retarding the expansion of Japan's export trade, which, coupled with the failure of the restoration of the national finances to normal, occasioned a temporary economic stagnation from the latter half of 1934 till early in 1935.

The continued advance of the products of the Japanese heavy industries in overseas markets, however, enabled Japan proper to record a favourable balance amounting to approximately ¥27,000,000 in its foreign trade during 1935, despite the fact that such a staple export as cotton cloth appeared to be suffering a setback on account of the restrictions placed on the importation of Japanese goods by various nations. The excess of exports over imports for Japan proper greatly improved the conditions of the nation's foreign trade as a whole, and reduced the unfavourable balance to about ¥17,000,000 as against ¥142,000,000 in the preceding year. At the same time, the withdrawal from the London naval conference in January, 1936, in addition to the parting from the League of Nations, rendered it necessary for the nation to perfect defence arrangements as a means of coping with the non-treaty situation, and presaged a further increase in national consumption.

According to factory statistics, the value of goods produced during 1935 totalled ¥10,840,000,000, heavy industries' share being 47.5 per cent against 31 per cent for the spinning industry and 21.5 per cent for others. The one-sidedness of production that had been so manifestly in favour of light industry, mostly through the efforts of the spinning industry, was thus rectified.

Generally speaking, the economic system of this nation has been consummated on the basis of Capitalism and the time has come when the nation is to concentrate its efforts upon enlarging the economic system with a view to further expanding national strength and enhancing national prosperity. At this juncture, it is fortunate that Japan has entered into inseparable relations with Manchoukuo, for it has enabled an expansion of the semi-domestic market, which coupled with the progress of the operations in North China for the realization of closer Sino-Japanese economic relations has greatly contributed toward the breaking of the economic stagnation which existed in the latter half of 1934 and in the early part of 1935. Thus, renewed economic activity was brought about in the latter half of 1935 and continued into 1936.

The following table shows industrial productivity during 1934 and 1935.

INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTS

(In 1,000 yen)

	Production			Percentage	
	1934	1935	Increased Percentage	1934	1935
Textile	3,167,755	3,365,579	6.2	33.7	31.0
Metal	1,496,793	1,880,342	25.6	15.9	17.3
Machinery	1,159,167	1,461,982	26.1	12.3	13.5
Pottery	251,961	283,116	12.4	2.7	2.6
Chemical	1,480,783	1,912,202	22.4	15.8	16.7
Timber and wood-works	238,800	248,699	8.7	2.5	2.3
Printing and book-binding	203,843	222,963	9.4	2.2	2.1

	Production			Percentage	
	1934	1935	Increased Percentage	1934	1935
Foodstuff	1,046,340	1,168,479	11.7	11.1	10.8
Electricity and gas	19,539	21,079	7.9	0.2	0.2
Miscellaneous	335,074	381,783	13.9	3.6	3.5
Total	9,390,060	10,846,275	15.5	100.0	100.0

(Note: The figures for the electricity and gas industry only cover by-products.)

Changes There was no change in the key-note of economic conditions during 1936 although some friction was occasioned by the various important incidents which occurred during the year. Under the influence of improved business conditions in Great Britain and the United States, which are both in close economic relations with this country, economic activities continued to increase but the rate of expansion was somewhaat slower.

As the general election resulted in a victory for the Minseito, the renewed economic activities which had commenced in the latter half of 1935 gave great hope to financial circles early in 1936. The untoward incident which occurred on February 26, however, was of such nature as to shock financial circles to such an extent that the stock exchanges were forced to be suspended until the inauguration of the succeeding Cabinet. The commodity exchanges were also upset, but as no substantial change took place in economic conditions, they continued holding their sessions.

According to the daily index numbers of stock quotations prepared by the Tokyo Keizai Shimpo (Oriental Economic News), industrial shares slumped by 6.7 per cent by March 10 as compared with February 25, but they soon regained their pre-incident level. In spite of the comparatively mild curving of the major economic index, the potential influence was great, as indicated by the fact that the seasonal decline in wages in the first half of 1936 was 0.6 per cent against 0.2 per cent in the corresponding period of the preceding year. Further, the Yokohama Specie Bank was compelled to operate against those who were anticipating lower exchange rates of the yen, thereby losing a considerable amount in its foreign currency fund.

ECONOMIC INDEX

	Wholesale Commodity Prices		Value of Export		Quantity of Imports		Industrial Production	
	1935	1936	1935	1936	1935	1936	1935	1936
January	152	157	117	121	126	133	133	136
February	155	156	111	121	125	132	132	140
March	154	155	126	127	101	129	143	150
April	153	156	129	129	121	136	145	150
May	151	157	131	133	116	125	145	150
June	148	159	133	144	120	137	139	148
July	147	163	129	138	120	127	144	152
August	150	166	113	121	116	124	143	153
September	156	165	133	142	90	123	143	151
October	159	164	132	137	107	110	150	161
November	157	167	142	154	134	129	149	167
December	156	174	128	170	127	134	154	174
Average	153	162	127	137	117	128	143	152

	Railway Freights		Bank Clearings		Notes Issued		Stock Quotations	
	1935	1936	1935	1936	1935	1936	1935	1936
January	121	117	76	81	101	109	115	129
February	123	126	78	83	101	108	113	133
March	121	128	86	92	105	115	118	125
April	114	123	80	87	107	114	113	124
May	114	122	87	88	106	114	112	128
June	109	123	82	101	99	107	106	131
July	118	127	80	104	101	109	106	132

	Railway Freights		Bank Clearings		Notes Issued		Stock Quotations	
	1935	1936	1835	1936	1935	1936	1935	1936
August	116	131	90	91	102	111	111	135
September	121	131	81	97	99	108	120	140
October	129	134	92	93	103	109	123	136
November	125	138	90	90	106	113	125	135
December	125	143	111	122	112	119	127	135
Average	120	129	86	96	104	111	116	132

Note: 1. The figures for wholesale commodity prices are based on a survey of the Tokyo Asahi Shimbun with the pre-war figures represented as 100.
2. The figures for industrial production are based on a survey of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry with the monthly average during 1931, 1932 and 1933 represented as 100.
3. The figures for exports and imports are based on a survey by the Yokohama Specie Bank with figures for the corresponding months of 1928 represented as 100.
4. The figures for railway freights, bank clearings and note issues are based on a survey by the Mitsubishi Economic Research Institute with the average for 1921–25 represented as 100.
5. The figures for stock quotations are based on a survey by the Tokyo Stock Exchange with the figures for January 1921 represented as 100.

The inauguration of the Hirota Cabinet on March 9 in succession to the Okada Cabinet, which had resigned by way of assuming the responsibility for the February 26 incident, manifested a remarkable tendency toward a reform of the administrative system. Finance Minister Eiichi Baba of the Hirota Cabinet announced his intention of operating quasi-war time finances by liquidating the policy of the late Finance Minister Korekiyo Takahashi. Although the working budget for the 1936–37 fiscal year was, generally speaking, based on the estimates compiled by the Okada Cabinet, the discount rate of the Bank of Japan was lowered on April 6 in preparation for the formulation of a financial programme on the basis of the Baba policy. At the same time, Minister Baba caried out the conversion of the public loan bonds bearing an interest of 5 per cent into bonds bearing an interest of 3½ per cent, thus creating an epoch-making low level for money rates. As the ordinary banks followed the example of the Bank of Japan in lowering money rates, economic circles were placed in a favourable condition.

Needless to say, the quasi-war time finances operated by the Hirota Cabinet were based on the necessity of strengthening national defence in order to cope with the changed international situation in general. It is to be noted, however, that the direct stimulus to the operation of such finances was given by the rapid increase in the military expenditure of the Soviet Union from 1,700,000,000 rubles in 1934 to 6,500,000,000 in 1935 and to 14,800,000,000 in 1936. It may be presumed that the Japanese Government came to consider it urgent to strengthen the country's defences because the abnormal Soviet armament expansion created a great menace to Manchuria and Mongolia, the life line of the Japanese Empire both in national defence and in economic activity.

In consideration of the fact that the efforts to ensure the said life line had failed to produce satisfactory results, and stimulated by the strained international situation due to the intensified economic nationalism in various countries in the world, the Japanese nation was resolved to bear additional expenses for national defence. The raising of the import duty on Japanese cotton cloth in the United States and the imposition of a prohibitive duty on Japanese goods by Australia were followed by the launching of a movement in Japan for the expansion of the productive equipment of the munitions industry prior to the compilation of the budget estimates for the 1937–38 fiscal year. According to a survey of the Bank of Japan, the total paid-up capital of the industrial companies during the year amounted to ¥758,000,000 which represented an increase of ¥332,000,000 or 78 per cent over similar figures for the preceding year. Calls for payments on shares were made in quick sucession, particularly during the latter half of the year, but these were to some extent also intended to provide against the projected taxation reform.

The rapid increase in the demand for defence funds by the government served

to accelerate the demand for industrial funds. The announcement on the taxation reform plan toward the end of September, however, caused underwriting circles to suspend activities following the issuance of ¥30,000,000 worth of debentures by the Kyoto-Osaka Electric Railway Company, because the reform plan provided for the incorporation of the Second Class Income Tax into the First and Third Class Income Tax, and this would affect securities. The result was that industrial companies had to resort to the abnormal method of obtaining short-term loans from banks to meet their long-term needs.

In the meantime, speculative purchase of public loan bonds bearing an interest of 4 per cent was actively indulged in shortly after the inauguration of the Hirota Cabinet by those anticipating a conversion of bonds, and this, combined with the changed policy of management on the part of the bankers since the enforcement of the low-interest policy of the Government, brought about a tightness in the short-term loan market. The Bank of Japan suspended selling the public bonds in its possession as a means of dealing with the situation, but to no avail. Towards the end of the year, the Deposits Bureau operated its fund in the short-term loan market through the Industrial Bank of Japan in an attempt to check the rising of interest for short-term loans above the agreed rates. The interest rates for long-term loans, however, moved downwards in line with the Government's low-interest policy. When the policy of Finance Minister Toyotaro Yuki of the Hayashi Cabinet, made its appearance, the open market operation policy of the Bank of Japan was revised to include purchasing operations in addition to selling operations with a view to a smooth execution of the loan policy of the Government.

The circumstances were such that a further swelling of the national finances came to be considered as inevitable and as days went by, signs of inflation increased. On account of the operation of the national defence budget under the specific conditions of the country brought about by the lack of natural resources, the balance of the nation's foreign trade became very unfavourable and caused the exchange rates of the yen to break below the level of one shilling and twopence in September despite the fact that the month of September usually represents a season for an excess of exports over imports. As it was the key-note of the exchange policy of the Government to maintain the exchange rates of the yen at the level of one shilling and twopence because a further depreciation of the yen was regarded as being liable to jeopardise the economic structure of the nation, the Yokohama Specie Bank worked to improve the situation, and was markedly successful. At the same time, the Government strengthened its exchange control and in January, 1937, enforced a licensing system for import exchange on the plea of checking imports based on an anticipation of revised tariffs.

The policy of the Hirota Cabinet for reforming the administrative system caused far-reaching economic friction. The stock exchanges were characterized by the cautious but profitable buying under the impetus of the low-interest tendency. Particularly noticeable were the buying operations of the life insurance companies. The budget estimates for the 1937–38 fiscal year, as revised by the Ministry of Finance, amounted to ¥3,040,000,000 and while indications were that the estimates would be approved by the Diet with some changes, the Cabinet resigned as a result of the wordy battle fought between the then Minister of War, General Count Hisaichi Terauchi, and a member of the House of Representatives when the Diet session was resumed following the New Year recess in January, 1937.

Finance Minister Toyotaro Yuki of the Hayashi Cabinet which was thus brought into being reduced the budget estimates to ¥2,770,000,000 so as to bring them within the economic capacity of the nation and revised those points of the financial policy of his predecessor which were responsible for the greater part of the economic friction which was then evident. At the same time, he announced a policy of facilitating the smooth execution of the national defence programme by mobilizing the banks and expanding the productive equipment of the nation. As a result, the low pressure heavily affecting financial circles cleared away and conditions in the economic world brightened.

Quasi-War Time System The French gold standard bloc fell in September, 1936, and in connection with the devaluation of the franc, a gentlemen's agreement was concluded among Great Britain, the United States and France concerning the international exchange situation, whereby a free exchange of gold among the three countries succeeded in checking an imminent confusion of the international currency situation. There appeared signs of a

tendency towards more friendly international economic relations and the adjustment of outstanding differences on a basis of reciprocity. Conditions in agricultural countries showed a great improvement, and the commercial outlook throughout the world considerably brightened. In parallel with this bright tendency, however, there was a gloomy trend evident in international politics.

The disclosure of the inability of the League of Nations to bring about a settlement of the Italo-Ethiopian conflict impaired the sense of mutural security among European nations and the rearmament of Germany and the advance of German troops into the Rhineland caused France to feel menaced. In addition, the civil strife in Spain served to intensify the antagonism which existed between the Rightist and Leftist nations. Under these circumstances, an armament expansion race was started which plunged the whole of Europe into conditions reminding one of the state of affairs immediately before the Great European War. The demand for all sorts of munitions increased rapidly and caused international commodity prices to assume a war-time aspect.

It was but natural that Japan should be unable to free herself from the effect of the changed international conditions, particularly because of the high degree of her dependence upon foreign countries for metal supplies. The prices of metals within Japan soon soared to an abnormal height, and the failure of the bureaucratic control over the iron and steel industry to cope with the situation finally brought about such a shortage of iron and steel that the rise in commodity prices was further accelerated during the latter half of the year.

Rise in Economic Index While the financial circles were deeply affected by political factors, the major economic index continued the upward movement which had commenced during the latter half of the preceding year. The export trade of the nation was retarded in its expansion by the trade barriers erected in various foreign countries against Japanese goods, but nevertheless the volume of exports swelled by 7.6 per cent when compared with the preceding year. Industrial production and industrial employment gained by 6 per cent and 5.6 per cent respectively. The volume of imports taken delivery of also increased by 6.3 per cent. All these indicate that the economic activities were of a positive nature though it might be mentioned that they rather tended towards an improvement in the heavy industries.

The volume of goods carried by rail mounted by 7.3 per cent, and wholesale commodity prices rose by 5.2 per cent. It is comparatively marked that the amount of bank clearings increased by 9.5 per cent. This reflects the increased commercial activity and at the same time may be attributed to some extent to the 13.8 per cent rise in the price of stocks. The amount of notes issued merely swelled by 6.7 per cent but bank loans increased considerably.

Improvements in Agricultural Economy During 1936 there was a great improvement in the economic conditions of the agricultural villages due to the increased yields of rice, amounting to 66,390,000 koku, a gain of 890,000 koku over the figures for the preceding year. In value, the rice crops are estimated to have increased by ¥143,000,000 because prices advanced by around ¥2, in spite of the abundant supply, owing to the strengthened governmental control. Cocoon production was comparatively small but it also is estimated to have mounted by ¥38,000,000 on the strength of high quotations brought about by the business boom in the United States. The prices of other agricultural products, too, advanced under the impetus of inflation. The increased income of the farmers, together with the decline in the prices of fertilizers owing to governmental control, brought about a great improvement in the economic conditions of the agricultural villages and increased the purchasing power of the farmers, thus contributing to the business prosperity in the country.

Past Depression and Red Ink Finances In 1936 the second stage of inflation was commenced. From 1931 till 1935, economic activities were principally based on the exchange inflation arising from the re-imposition of the gold embargo and the financial inflation brought about by the huge expenditure made in an effort to overcome the trade depression and expenses increased through the Manchurian Incident. The favourable effect of the low yen exchange rate was, however, exhausted during 1933 and ever since it has been the policy of the Japanese Government to stabilize the yen at the level of one shilling and twopence and the economic activities of the nation have been continued on the basis of such stabilization.

From the 1931–32 fiscal year till that of 1935–36, inclusive, the ordinary accounts of the Government had a total sum of ¥2,741,000,000 transferred to the extraordinary accounts, including ¥903,-

000,000 as the Manchurian Incident expenses, ¥805,000,000 as the expenditure required for improving armaments, ¥825,000,000 as the fund for ameliorating economic conditions and ¥208,000,000 as the fund for dealing with natural calamities. According to the announcement of the Government, the expenses for improving armaments for the 1933–34 and 1934–35 fiscal years included a total sum of ¥463,000,000 which was connected with the remedying of the extraordinary economic situation. This means that the total amount transferred from the ordinary accounts may be divided into ¥1,753,000,000 for national defence expenditure and ¥1,238,000,000 for the anti-business depression fund.

The disbursement of the extraordinary national defence expenditure, which amounted to 64 per cent of the total extraordinary outlay, combined with the favourable effect of the low exchange rate of the yen succeeded in improving conditions in the nation's heavy industries which had been oppressed by the competition of English and American manufactures, and enabled an enormous amount of capital which had been lying idle to be put into active use again. There were great expansions of works and the effects of the economic depression were shaken off.

Economic Effect of the Defence Budget

The necessity of expanding the establishments for national defence resulted in a further inflation of State finances in the 1937–38 fiscal year, and consummated the second stage of inflation which had commenced in 1936. The crying need for an early perfection of the national defences of Japan is well illustrated by the rapid increase in the military expenditure of the various countries as shown in the following table which is based on a survey of the Foreign Policy Association of America :

MILITARY EXPENDITURE OF LEADING NATIONS

(In One Million Dollars)

	1934		1936		
	Amount	Comparison	Amount	Comparison	Increased Percentage
Soviet Russia	1,000	20.0%	2,964	62.9%	196.3
United States	710	14.2	964	8.8	35.8
Great Britain	582	11.7	846	7.7	45.4
Germany	381	7.6	2,600	23.6	582.4
Italy	273	5.5	870	7.9	218.7
Japan	271	5.4	307	2.8	13.3
Others	1,783	35.6	2,450	22.3	37.4
Total	5,000	100.0	11,000	100.0	120.0

The question that arises here is centred on whether the productive equipment of the nation is capable of digesting the national defence expenditure or not. According to a survey of the Hypothec Bank of Japan, the paid-up capital of the industrial companies in the country increased by 31 per cent in 1936 over the figures for 1931. The increase was particularly remarkable in the case of the munitions companies as shown in the following table :

PAID-UP CAPITAL OF INDUSTRIAL COMPANIES

(In One Million Yen)

	At End of 1931		At End of 1936		
	Amount	Comparison	Amount	Comparison	Increased Percentage
Dyeing and weaving	916.8	13.6%	989.6	11.2%	7.9
Chemical	1,021.4	15.1	1,492.7	16.9	46.1
Machinery	734.1	10.9	1,201.1	13.6	63.6
Foodstuff	702.1	10.4	705.2	8.0	0.4
Miscellaneous	198.6	3.0	207.9	2.3	4.6
Total	3,573.0	53.0	4,596.5	52.0	28.6
Mining and refining	430.2	6.4	1,065.9	12.1	147.8
Coal Mining	441.8	6.5	433.6	4.9	1.9

	At end of 1931		At end of 1931		
	Amount	Comparison	Amount	Comparison	Increased Percentage
Oil	142.9	2.1	156.2	1.8	9.3
Electricity	1.914.4	28.4	2,305.6	26.1	20.4
Miscellaneous	198.0	3.6	243.2	3.1	22.9
Total	3,127.3	47.0	4,240.5	48.0	35.6
Grand Total	6,745.6	100.0	8,837.1	100.0	31.0

Note: 1. The underlined figures denote decrease.
2. The above table is based on survey of the Hypothec Bank of Japan and only covers joint stock companies.

It may be noted in the foregoing table that the mining and refining industry heads the list in regard to increased paid-up capital with an increase of 147.8 per cent and is followed by the machinery industry with 63.3 per cent and the chemical industry with 46.1 per cent increases. In spite of the rapid increase in the paid-up capital and despite the fact that all the heavy industrial companies are operating at full capacity, the demand for machinery is far from being satisfied.

Varying estimates have been put forward as to the extent the munitions industry should be enlarged, but as it is generally accepted that construction costs amount to from ¥1,000,000 to ¥1,500,000 per 10,000 tons of iron or steel and as the economic basis is 700,000 tons, a vast amount of capital would be required to reach this basis, and as the iron and steel industry as well as the coal mining industry would also have to be perfected, requiring an augmentation of their funds, capital as well as labour would have to be mobilized in the direction of the heavy industries. This, however, is liable to cause the entire industrial structure to lean toward the heavy industries and raises a grave fear that the nation may experience an unprecedentedly severe business depression in the future.

Furthermore, the mobilization of both capital and labour in the heavy industries would result in a shortage of productive capacity in the light industries, justifiably gives rise to the fear that prices of the products of the light industries, which constitute consumption goods, would rise, and inflation would take place in real earnest.

Shortage of Materials Special attention should be paid to the fact that Japan depends upon foreign countries for the supply of many kinds of important materials for her domestic industry although she is able to export raw silk, sugar and sulphur. The dependence of the nation upon foreign lands is particularly notable for the supply of metals and fuels, both of which are important items in the manufacture of munitions, as shown in the following table :

JAPAN'S DEPENDENCE ON FOREIGN COUNTRIES FOR MATERIALS SHOWN AS PERCENTAGES

Pig iron	9.8
Copper	36.3
Aluminium	54.5
Tin	52.9
Coal	8.0
Chloride of potash	93.1
Raw rubber	100.0
Raw cotton	99.9
Iron ore	52.3
Platinum	85.9
Lead	93.2
Quicksilver	97.8
Heavy oil	80.1
Nitrate	2.5
Hides & skins	48.1
Wool	99.8
Steel	0.2
Nickel	96.0
Zinc	52.8
Manganese ore	72.5
Salt	63.0
Phosphorus ore	87.7
Timber	19.8
Oil seeds	52.2
Rice	1.2
Wheat	12.2
Soy bean	50.7

Note: The above figures are based on the domestic demand in normal times.

This fact, combined with the still undeveloped conditions of the domestic production of machine tools and internal combustion engines, is causing the foreign trade of the nation to lean toward an increasing excess of imports over exports, and gives rise to a doubt as to whether the nation will be able

to balance her foreign trade in the face of increasing imports at a time like this when the expanding rate of its export trade has greatly slackened on account of the trade barriers erected in various foreign lands. It was due to these circumstances that the exchange rate of the yen fell below the level of one shilling and twopence when the outline of the budget estimates for the 1937–38 fiscal year was announced.

As the aggravation of the foreign trade balance and the resultant depreciation of the yen together with the issuance of additional deficit-covering public loan bonds threatened to bring about an exceedingly evil inflation, Finance Minister Eiichi Baba of the Hirota Cabinet decided to strengthen the Government's control over economic affairs in line with the operation of the so-called quasi-war time system as a means of preventing the economic structure of the nation from being destroyed. For this purpose, the Finance Minister enforced the licensing system for import exchange. When the Hayashi Cabinet succeeded the Hirota Cabinet, its Finance Minister, Mr. Toyotaro Yuki, adopted a policy of mobilizing the financial factors, which gave rise to an expectation that the economic control would be further strengthened.

Financial Policy of Minister Yuki Ever since the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident, the finances of this nation have been based on the national defence appropriations. The policy of the late Finance Minister Korekiyo Takahashi aimed to deal with the situation principally by means of taxation revenue while the policy of Finance Minister Baba tended towards the adoption of measures of State Capitalism or National Socialism for fear that Japan might otherwise become bankrupt as a debtor nation. Finance Minister Yuki assumed an attitude showing his intention of rectifying what were considered the extreme points of the Baba policy, on the basis of the actualities of a debtor nation.

Finance Minister Yuki reduced the budget estimates compiled by his predecessor for the 1937–38 fiscal year to ¥2,760,000,000 for the declared purpose of checking the rising tendency of the prices of commodities. As the reduction practically did not touch the national defence estimates, the steps taken were considered by some circles as a mere political gesture hinting at an attempt at curbing the upward trend of commodity prices in connection with the enforcement of the urgent national defence budget by dropping the proposed proceeds tax and reducing the grants for the adjustment of local finances. The grants to local finances were calculated by Minister Baba apparently with a view to increasing the taxation burden of the urban district to 75 per cent and reducing that of the suburban district to 25 per cent. His successor, Minister Yuki, however reduced the grants on the ground that a radical increase in the burden of the urban district would cause commodity prices to soar still higher and bring about labour agitations.

It is considered probable that in taking the aforementioned steps, Minister Yuki took into account the fact that the estimates for the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, including the special rice accounts, amounted to seven times as much as in the 1930–31 fiscal year and showed an increasing rate which was greater than that of the national defence estimates. This coupled with the fact that the extraordinary taxation increase was centered around income taxes, showed that the Yuki policy called upon the people to bear the taxation burden within their means in order to tide over the extraordinary situation.

Noteworthy is the fact that the proposed capital tax on individuals was dropped. It was maintained that the abandonment of the proposed tax freed the family system of this nation from the danger of collapsing and that such an action on the part of Minister Yuki had the political significance of clarifying the national policy from the economic angle, besides reaffirming the position of Capitalism. There were indications, however, that as the extraordinary situation required such a control an intensified tendency towards planned economy was inevitable.

"One Prefecture, One Bank" Policy Banking circles in the country were greatly disturbed by policy of Finance Minister Eiichi Baba during 1936. There was his bank merger policy, an abnormally strained short-term money market and suspended animation in the long-term money market. It has been a traditional policy of the Ministry of Finance to attempt to adjust the banking organs of the nation, Mr. Baba's contribution being "one prefecture, one bank." In the field of special banks, the strengthened policy took the form of a plan for the annexation of the Agricultural and Industrial Banks by the Hypothec Bank of Japan, while the number of ordinary banks was reduced by 42 to 424. The first to be annexed by the Hypothec Bank was the Tokyo Agricultural and Industrial Bank and at present only 5 or 6 such banks are re-

maining independent.

The policy for "one prefecture, one bank" was aimed at promoting the smooth digestion of the deficit-covering loan bonds and cultivating a power to deal with emergencies. It has, however, brought about conditions under which some of the prefectural banks, though they are rated below the second-rate banks in the leading cities, are operating their funds like the big banks, concentrating upon investing in securities. In some cases, the proportion of investments in securities to the total amount of deposits is threatening to exceed that of the big banks. These conditions have given rise to a doubt as to whether the operation of the policy of "one prefecture, one bank" will enable local industries to obtain the funds they need for their sound development. Already, there are in evidence signs of a tendency to urge a re-examination of the policy.

Short-term Money Market and the Deposits Bureau Upon the inauguration of the Hirota Cabinet, the discount rate of the Bank of Japan for commercial bills was reduced from one sen to 9 rin and new bonds bearing an interest of 3.5 per cent were issued for converting the old bonds bearing a higher percentage of interest, thus creating a new low level for money rates. This exercised a far-reaching influence upon the bankers because the investments in public bonds had already become an important item of the accounts of the banks, consisting of more than 20 per cent of the total amount of deposits, and the lowering of the interest rates for public bonds would reduce the profits of the banks and aggravate their business conditions. As a result, speculative buying of public bonds bearing an interest of 4 per cent was actively conducted, and a tightness in the short-term money market was caused, as shown in the following table :

ACCOUNTS OF ORDINARY BANKS

(In one million yen)

		Fixed Deposits	Other Deposits	Total Deposits	Loans	Call Loans
December,	1934	5,417.4	3,936.2	9,353.6	5,871.8	367.1
June,	1935	5,680.3	3,864.8	9,545.1	5,885.6	432.4
December,	1935	5,929.2	3,944.4	9,873.6	6,121.1	389.5
June,	1936	6,217.2	4,037.5	10,254.7	6,244.5	348.9
December,	1936	6,301.1	4,531.0	10,932.1	6,660.1	338.0

Thus not only was the call rate tightened but there was also a possibility of the discount rate for commercial bills being affected, both the Government and the Bank of Japan recognized the gravity of the situation and took steps accordingly. The latter suspended the sale of the public bonds in its possession and at the same time hurriedly strengthened the control of the short-term money with the cooperation of the Yokohama Specie Bank. Further, when the exchange rates of the yen broke below the level of one shilling and two-pence at the end the summer and beginning of autumn, the Deposits Bureau which had hitherto remained aloof from the short-term money market, displayed considerable activity, operating through the Industrial Bank of Japan.

All these activities, however, could not effect a complete solution of the question. The decisively increased demand for industrial funds meant a decrease in the demand for the deficit-covering public bonds, and constituted a problem carried over to the year 1937.

Changes in Deposits Deposits with the ordinary banks increased by 7.2 per cent in 1934 as compared with the preceding year but the increasing rate slackened to 5.6 per cent in 1935. The year 1937 witnessed a sudden increase by 10.7 per cent but this was regarded as being attributable to an abnormal cause instead of reflecting an actual tendency, for there was a sudden change in the substance of the deposits. During the first half of the year fixed deposits increased by ¥288,000,000 and other deposits by ¥93,000,000 but the increase in the latter half of the year amounted to only ¥83,000,000 for fixed deposits against ¥594,000,000 for other deposits. This change was considered to be brought about by the various industrial companies putting in the banks the funds which they had raised by calls on shares in addition to those which they had obtained in the form of loans from banks because it was impossible for them to issue debentures on account of the suspended operations of the underwriters.

The increasing rate of fixed deposits suddenly slackened from 9.4 per cent in 1935 to 6.3 per cent in 1936 and that of money in trust from 10.4 per cent in 1935 to 6 per cent in 1936. All these changes reflected the effect of the taxation reform plan. Because the plan provided for the incorporation of the Second Class Income Tax into the First and Third Class Income Tax and also called for an increase in the capital tax, it became a general view that long-term deposits with banks would yield less profit than investments in public bonds, with the result that long-term deposits were withdrawn in large sums. There were even individuals who offered to purchase public bonds from the Bank of Japan. This tendency was partly attributable to the preferential treatment given to holders of public bonds and partly to the anticipation of the entry of inflation upon its second stage.

Conversion of Long-term Loans Long-term loans during 1936 totalled approximately ¥4,920,000,000. The amount of newly issued debentures of industrial companies decreased by 2.6 per cent as compared with 1935 and renewed debentures decreased by 6.3 per cent; both the newly issued and renewed debentures of banks declined by 6.4 per cent. Details are shown in the following table:

ISSUED AMOUNT OF LONG-TERM LOANS

(In one million yen)

	1935			1936		
	Newly Issued	Converted Amount	Total	Newly Issued	Converted Amount	Total
Public bonds	924.6	161.6	1,086.2	838.7	2,248.4	3,087.1
Local bonds	310.6	115.6	426.2	182.8	360.5	543.3
Bank debentures	228.5	216.4	444.9	256.0	196.2	452.1
Company debentures	402.1	474.9	877.0	391.6	444.7	836.3
Total	1,865.8	968.5	2,834.3	1,669.1	3,249.8	4,918.8

Note: The above figures are based on a survey by the Industrial Bank of Japan.

Gold Shipments Following the outbreak of the February 26 incident, it was foreseen that the national defence expenditure would make an epoch-making increase. At the same time, the opinion prevailed that the year 1937 would prove a critical year for the foreign exchange policy of the nation. Accordingly, great endeavours were made to maintain the exchange rate of the yen at the level of one shilling and twopence through making gold shipments to foreign countries or creating an exchange stabilization fund by reassessing the gold reserves of the Bank of Japan. In March, 1937, the first shipment of gold took place.

The gold shipments will not disturb the foundation of the monetary system of the nation nor exercise any evil influence upon the money market because the free movement of capital out of Japanese territory is already prohibited by the enforcement of a controlled monetary system aided by exchange control and the Capital Flight Prevention Law.

Judging from the international payments during 1936, it is opined that the maintenance of the exchange rate of the yen at the level of one shilling and two pence will be possible when the funds abroad are augmented by gold shipments totalling ¥300,000,000 in value at the most. Some quarters, however, point out that inasmuch as armaments are relative and Japan seems to have already become involved in the prevailing armament race, it is necessary that the existence of a limit to the effect of gold shipments should be clearly recognized in advance. In passing, it is to be noted that the gold purchases conducted by the Bank of Japan during 1936 totalled ¥112,590,000 (market price) and the gold reserves of the same bank at the end of the year amounted to ¥548,000,000 (par).

According to a survey of the Federal Reserve Bureau of America, the gold reserves of Japan at the end of October, 1936, amounted to 453,000,000 dollars (¥540,000,000 par) or 2.1 per cent of the total gold reserves of the central banks of the principal nations. The reserve of the United States was the highest with 11,000,000,000 dollars or 55 per cent of the total, France followed with 3,200,000,000 dollars or 14.6 per cent and Great Britain with 2,000,000,000 dollars or 9.4 per cent. Japan was placed seventh and the Netherlands came ninth with 388,000,000 dollars or 1.8 per cent, which shows that the reserves of Ja-

pan were not necessarily small.

Slackened Rate of Increase in Production Although the rate of its expansion slackened on account of the trade barriers built up by various countries, the export trade of Japan has continued on the increase. Business conditions in the country improved on the strength of the increased activities in the munitions industry, which, coupled with the improvement in the economic conditions of the agricultural villages, served to enhance the purchasing power of the people. While the level of production has been phenomenally raised, the increasing rate of production as a whole has greatly slackened :

1. INDEX OF INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION

(Annual Average)

	1934	1935	1936
Manufacturing	129.1	143.3	151.9
Increase over preceding year	13.9%	11.0	6.0
Mining	115.4	124.1	138.0
Increase over preceding year	8.2%	7.5	11.2
Average	127.4	141.0	150.2
Increase over preceding year	13.2%	10.7	6.5

Note: The above table is based on a survey of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, with the average figures for June, July and August, 1931, being represented as 100.)

2. INCREASED PERCENTAGE OF PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTS

	1935	1936
Cotton yarn	2.5	1.3
Rayon yarn	45.9	30.3
Cotton textile	3.4	5.1
Rayon textile	42.3	44.3
Pig iron	9.0	5.1
Machinery & implements	17.7	14.1
Ammonium sulphate	19.8	32.1
Caustic soda	29.4	23.4
Silk	1.8	9.3
Woollen yarn	2.2	5.6
Silk textiles	5.2	21.5
Woollen textiles	10.1	20.3
Steel bars	16.6	15.4
Cement	10.6	2.0
Superphosphate	18.6	13.2
Foreign-style paper	8.0	6.2

Note: The above table is based on a survey of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry and prepared according to the index of industrial production.

It is generally believed that the goods produced during 1936 valued more than ¥11,000,000,000. The continued increase in the production of rayon yarn and rayon textile, as shown in the above table, was because of large orders from abroad and an increased domestic demand caused by the substitution of rayon textiles for woollen ones on the strength of the improvement in the quality of rayon. The trade dispute with Australia helped to account for the increased rayon production as also did the establishment of the national policy on materials.

Reflecting the advance of the chemical industry, caustic soda got out of the state of over-production. Steel materials were produced in larger quantities than ever before but the demand could still not be fully satisfied. The production of pig iron increased by 21.2 per cent in 1934, by 9 per cent in 1935 and by 5.1 per cent in 1936 while the production of steel bars increased by 25.3 per cent in 1934, by 16.6 per cent in 1935 and by 15.4 per cent in 1936 and that of machinery and implements increased by 30.8 per cent in 1934, by 17.7 per cent in 1935 and by 14.1 per cent in 1936, all of which show that the increasing rate of production has been steadily slackening.

Various factors may be enumerated as the causes of the slackened rate of the increase in the production of pig iron, steel materials and machinery. In the first place, in regard to pig iron there was the influence of the specific structure of the nation's industry which had been largely controlled by medium-size and small-scale industrialists. Secondly, there was the failure of the control of production, which had been based on the supposition that the demand would be doubled in 10 years. With reference to the production of steel bars, it may be pointed out that in addition to the shortage of supply in pig iron, there was considerable difficulty attending the importation of scrap iron. The insufficient production of steel materials largely accounted for the slackened rate of the increase in the production of machinery and implements.

As a fundamental remedy, a plan for increased production has been formulated, while the import duty on iron and steel has been provisionally abolished. Nevertheless, the nation is still embarrassed by the high prices of steel materials abroad. To make the matter worse, while Japan largely depends on foreign countries for the supply of metals, the International Cartel has suspended the sale of nickel and light

silver, and the Soviet Union has suspended the export of its manganese ores. This is causing great concern over the execution of the national defence programme in face of the world-wide tendency towards armament expansion.

In spite of the slackened rate in the increase of production in the manufacturing industries, the mining industries continued to display quite phenomenal activity. The production of gold showed a slackened rate of increase in 1936 when the percentage of increase was 18.4 per cent against 22.7 per cent for the preceding year but the signs of a "gold rush" still remain. The production of copper increased by 11.9 per cent in 1936 against 3.5 per cent in the preceding year and the production of heavy oil swelled by 30.2 per cent against 26.6 per cent, but the production of the latter was merely sufficient to meet around 20 per cent of the domestic demand. In view of the important bearing of fuel upon national defence, coal liquefaction has been started but will not enter into concrete relations with the coal mining industry until 1938.

The consumption of coal in Japan Proper during 1936 amounted to about 36,400,000 tons, which represented an increase of 4,000,000 tons over similar figures for the preceding year. The increase in production over the preceding year was 9.1 per cent against 5.7 per cent in 1935. The increased consumption of coal clearly illustrates the advance of the heavy industries.

Labour and Wages Reflecting the rise in production, the demand for labour has been steadily increasing in all parts of the country, chiefly due to the increased activity in the machinery manufacturing industry, the metal industry and the chemical industry. According to statistics compiled by the Bank of Japan, the percentage of increase in the demand for labour over the preceding year was 7.3 per cent in 1936 against 5.9 per cent in 1935. Detailed figures are shown in the following table :

INDEX OF EMPLOYED LABOUR ACCORDING TO DISTRICTS

	At End of		
	1934	1935	1936
Tokyo-Yokohama	97.6	106.3	117.6
Osaka-Kobe	86 3	89.7	95.5
Nagoya	57.0	101 4	108.2
North Kyushu	93.1	101.3	104.1
Others	103.5	110.2	117.8
Total	95.5	101.1	108.5

Note: The above table is based on a survey by the Bank of Japan, with the figures for 1926 being represented as 100.

It is to be noted that the increased demand for labour in 1935, was greatest in the Tokyo-Yokohama district, followed by North Kyushu, "others," Nagoya and the Osaka-Kobe district in the order named while in 1936 the order was the Tokyo-Yokohama district, "others" Nagoya, the Osaka-Kobe district and North Kyushu, with the last named falling from second place to the last and the Osaka-Kobe district rising from the last to fourth place. That the Tokyo-Yokohama district continued heading the list is well illustrative of the continued activity in the heavy industries in that district. North Kyushu fell from second place because of the slackened rate of increase in the activity of the metal industry. The rise of the Osaka-Kobe district to fourth place showed the importance of that district in the heavy industries besides being the centre of the light industries, the increased demand of labour in other localities is taken to indicate the tendency towards the diversifying of the location factories.

According to a survey by the Bank of Japan, the declining rate of fixed wages has been greatly reduced while actual earnings have begun to increase. This is taken to indicate a decisive increasing tendency of wages. Figures compiled by the Tokyo Asahi Shimbun show that the index number of nominal wages, which was 258 in 1935 with the figures for the pre-war period being represented as 100, increased to 258.2 in 1936. Details follow :

INDEX OF WAGES
(Annual Average)

	1935	1936
Fixed wages	81.3	80.7
Decrease from preceding year	1.9	0.7
Actual earnings	91.1	91.8
Decrease from preceding year	0.1	0.8 (Increase)

Note: The above figures are based on a survey by the Bank of Japan, with similar figures for 1926 being represented as 100.

When the outline of the budget estimates for the 1937-38 fiscal year was made known, the prices of commodities began to rise rapidly and some Capitalists forestalled the anticipated labour agitation by increasing the wages of their employees. According to announcements made by the Capitalists concerned, increases of from 15 to 16

per cent were effected. In this connection, it is to be noted that while past increases in wages were not based on any scientific reckoning the latest increase was based on the index number of living cost prepared by the Tokyo Asahi Shimbun and the index number of retail prices of commodities compiled by the Bank of Japan, with the index number of wholesale prices of commodities also being taken into account. This is a notable fact in the history of wages in this country. Mention also must be made of the fact that in effecting the wage increase, employers also paid attention to the level of wages which existed before the re-imposition of the gold embargo.

Equipment Expansion and Fund A survey conducted by the Bank of Japan shows that the total amount of planned capital during 1936 amounted to ¥1,743,000,000, not including debentures, which was greater by ¥553,000,000 or 46.4 per cent greater than similar figures for the preceding year. That of the manufacturing and mining companies, which form the nucleus of industrial activity, merely increased by ¥24,000,000 or 4.1 per cent and ¥2,000,000 or 1.9 per cent, respectively, the principal amount being necessitated by the Government's plan to place the privately-owned electricity industry under State management, the amont being ¥348,000,000, which shows a tendency running counter to the industrial activity.

According to a survey of the Hypothec Bank of Japan, the increase in paid-up capital during 1936 over similar figures for the preceding year was ¥144,000,000 or 76.8 per cent for the manufacturing industry and ¥98,000,000 or 111.5 per cent for the electricity and gas industry.

Further details of the increase in planned and paid-up capital are shown in the following table :

PLANNED (New) AND PAID-UP CAPITAL

(In 1,000 yen)

	Planned (New) Capital			Paid-up Capital		
	1935	1936	Increase	1935	1936	Increase
Banking	1,000	1,000	—	5,758	500	5,258*
Manufacturing	587,192	62,500	24,308*	187,528	331,638	144,110
Mining	108,165	110,245	2,080	27,798	32,683	4,885
Electricity	84,765	432,510	347,835	87,615	185,277	97.662
Traffic	24,390	119,088	94,698	59,027	66,577	7,500
Others	385,040	1,017,838	632,798	81,028	121,922	40,894
Total	1,190,462	1,743,181	552,719	448,753	738,097	289,344

Note: 1. *Denotes decrease.
2. The figures for planned capital are based on a survey by the Bank of Japan.
3. The figures for paid-up capital are based on a survey by the Hypothec Bank of Japan.
4. The paid-up capital of the electricity industry also covers the gas industry.

The antipodal phenomenon presented by the figures for planned capital and those for paid-up capital is due primarily to the difference of statistics. Judging from the fact, however, that there is not much difference between the figures for paid-up capital based on the survey of the Bank of Japan and those based on the survey conducted by the Hypothec Bank of Japan, it may be said that the enterprisers hesitated in operating new plans because the Government did not show its intention of guaranteeing the security of the munitions industry in the future, and they should again undergo their bitter experience of what followed the conclusion of the now expired London Naval Treaty. In other words, the antipodal phenomenon presented by the two categories of figures is believed to have been brought about because these companies which were ordered by the Government to participate in the expansion of the productive facilities of the nation raised the necessary funds for the purpose by increasing their capitalization and collecting payments on the outstanding portion of their shares while in ordinary cases they should have resorted to the raising of capital.

Statistics prepared by the Bank of Japan show that the payments on shares during 1936 totalled ¥758,000,000 against ¥426,000,000 in 1935. Of this amount, ¥218,000,000 was collected in the first half of the year and ¥540,000,000 in the latter half. It was reported that payments on shares were collected one after another in the latter half of the

year as a means of coping with the taxation reform plan whereas there was otherwise no necessity of doing so, but the exact amount of such payments could not be ascertained. According to a survey conducted by the same bank, the commercial register shows that the ratio of new funds to the paid-up stock fund increased from 63.7 per cent in September, 1935, to 67.7 per cent in the corresponding month of 1936, which may be regarded as hinting at the nature of the question.

Increased Volume of Commercial Transactions The foreign trade of Japan as a whole during 1936 amounted to ¥2,798,000,000 in exports and ¥2,928,000,000 in imports, the former increasing by 7.5 per cent and the latter by 11.8 per cent when compared with the figures for the preceding year. The excess of imports over exports rose from ¥15,000,000 in 1935 to ¥130,000,000 in 1936.

FOREIGN TRADE OF JAPAN PROPER

(In one million yen)

	Value of Exports	Increase Over Preceding Year	Percentage of Increase	Value of Imports	Increase Over Preceding Year	Percentage of Increase
1932	1,409.9	263.3	22.9	1.431.4	195.8	15.8
1933	1,861.0	451.1	32.0	1,917.2	485.8	33.9
1934	2,171.9	310.9	16.7	2,282.6	375.4	19.1
1935	2,499.0	327.1	15.1	2,472.2	189.6	8.3
1936	2,692.9	193.9	7.8	2,763.6	291.4	11.8

Note: The above figures are based on the monthly trade returns.

The movement launched for the development of new markets as a means of breaking down the trade barriers set up in various lands against Japanese goods has been halted and the importance of the old markets has come to be recognized anew. This fact, coupled with the policy for compensation or reciprocity, means that the trade volume will remain fairly stationary, both in quantity and in value, and the necessity of unifying the control hitherto enforced separately by the various exporters' union has arisen. The formulation of the plans for an export tax and for a trade statistics tax by the Hirota Cabinet was partly for this purpose and even the enforcement of the import exchange control may, in a sense. be associated with the movement for unifying the control over the foreign trade as a whole.

According to the revised trade statistics which added 12 new items to the 8 important ones, the declining tendency of the 8 old items of the nation's exports has been quite remarkable and the upward trend of the export trade as a whole has been barely maintained by the advance of the 12 new items and other miscellaneous goods. This shows that Japan's export trade has already passed the era of major items and is now entering into an era of miscellaneous goods. The percentage of the increase in the export volume of each of the 20 items included in the trade statistics over the preceding year is given in the following table:

Cotton textiles	2.5
Cotton yarn	6.8
Pottery	1.1
Refined sugar	19.3
Silk textiles	12.2
Woollen textiles	41.8
Paper	19.3
Tinned provisions	24.4
Machinery	28.5
Rayon yarn	71.4
Raw silk	1.5
Wheat flour	47.7
Iron manufactures	7.5
Hats	21.2
Rayon textiles	16.3
Iron	16.1
Toys	7.7
Knitted goods	0.6
Oils and fats	12.9
Timber	6.6

Note: The underlined figures denote decreases.

The export volume of wheat flour was reduced almost by half on account of the dumping of Australian goods in the Manchurian market while the decrease in the exports of cotton textiles, silk textiles and knitted goods was due to the fact that these articles were the principal aim of the restrictive measures adopted by various nations against

Japanese exports. In order to mitigate the suffering of the export trade from such obstacles, cotton yarn and rayon yarn were exported in large quantities.

The volume of the import trade during 1936 recorded a phenomenal increase in spite of the slackened rate of increase in exports, chiefly due to the importation of various kinds of raw materials. The general conditions of the important items of imports showed a continued uptrend. Ammonium Sulphate mounted because the production in Japan proper was considered unable to meet the domestic demand and sugar increased on the strength of the negotiations conducted between Japan and the Netherlands. The imports of wheat, however, decreased because of the invocation of the Trade Protection law by the Japanese Government against Australia. The imports of bean cake also dwindled because of the prices being higher than ammonium sulphate fertilizer and because of the advance achieved by the oils and fats industry in this country.

The imports of copper decreased partly because of the increased production in Japan proper and partly because of a reaction to the remarkable increase recorded in the preceding year. The imports of iron and machinery declined in the annual total but it is to be noted that during the latter half of the year, they were on an upward trend as a result of the activities in connection with the expansion of the productive equipment of the munitions industry.

Details of the changes in the volume of imports are shown in the following table :

Raw cotton	19.1
Timber	11.6
Machinery	3.4
Iron	7.3
Rubber	41.3
Ammonium sulphate	61.0
Hemp	34.2
Oil seeds	4.1
Sugar	64.8
Automobiles	13.6
Heavy oil	21.4
Wool	4.8
Wheat	22.1
Beans	15.3
Pulp	21.8
Bean cakes	7.5
Coal	3.9
Volatile oil	22.0
Ores	14.8
Copper	9.8

Note: All figures denote percentage of increase, except those underlined which denote decrease.

As already mentioned, the important economic index recorded a continued rise reflecting the positive economic activities in the country, but it is to be noted that the strengthened rice control exercised some influence upon the movements of freight. Although no change in the conditions of railway freight has yet taken place, the rice held in the warehouses throughout the country recorded a rapid decline, as shown below :

RICE STOCKS IN TRUST WITH WAREHOUSE COMPANIES THROUGHOUT THE COUNTRY

At End of	The Whole Country		4 Principal Cities		Other Localities	
	1,000 Koku	Value in 1,000 Yen	1,000 Koku	Value in 1,000 Yen	1,000 Koku	Value in 1,000 Yen
1934	18,630	198,277	10,272	113,261	8,368	85.016
1935	9,715	108,789	4,384	52,117	5,331	56,672
1936	6,520	75,196	2,790	34,569	3,730	40,528

Note: The above figures are based on statistics released by the Bank of Japan.

The volume of rice taken out of the warehouses in the four principal cities also recorded a remarkable decrease as shown in the following table :

WAREHOUSED GOODS IN 4 PRINCIPAL CITIES

	Amount Put In Storage		
	1935	1936	Percentage of Increase
Total volume	53,036	46,620	21.8
Total value	¥1,681,738	¥2,109,482	6.4
Volume of rice	9,769	11,715	19.9

	Amount Put in Storage		
	1935	1936	Percentage of Increase
Value of rice	¥ 181,819	¥ 123,166	1.1
Volume of balance	43,267	52,905	22.3
Value of balance	¥1,859,919	¥1,986,316	6.8

Note: The figures for volume are givens in 1,000 units.

	Amount Taken Out			Monthly Average of Amount in Storage		
	1935	1936	Percentage of Increase	1935	1936	Percentage of Increase
Total volume	57,782	63,857	10.5	17,333	16,439	5.2
Total value	¥2,107,502	¥2,104,525	0.1	¥483,425	¥434,450	10.1
Volume of rice	15,659	11,460	26.8	7,742	4,136	46.6
Value of rice	¥ 183,013	¥ 140,794	23.1	¥ 87,638	¥ 48,949	44.1
Volume of balance	42,123	52,397	24.4	11,258	12,303	9.3
Value of balance	¥1,934,489	¥1,963,731	2.0	¥395,787	¥429,555	8.5

Note: The underlined figures denot decreases. All figures are based on statistics compiled by the Bank of Japan.

Shipments of goods by rail declined during the early part of the year on account of snow obstruction but soon began to increase. The total volume of the shipments during the year reached 86,590,000 tons which represented an increase of 5,880,000 tons or 7.2 per cent as compared with similar figures for the preceding year. This reflected the increased business prosperity. The following is a table showing the increase in the volume of railway freight and ships cargoes :

RAILWAY FREIGHT AND SHIPS' CARGOES

(In 1,000 tons)

	1935	1936	Increase	Percentage of Increase
Railway freight forwarded	80,716	86,593	5,877	7.2
Export freight loaded	9,045	9,464	419	4.6
Import freight received	26,256	27,901	1,645	6.3
Total tonnage of trading ships put in port	73,804	76,645	2,839	12.8
Japanese shipping	43,932	45,573	1,641	3.7
Foreign shipping	19,872	31,070	11,198	56.3

Note: 1. The above figures are based on the railway and trade returns.

Railway Freight The percentage of the increase in each item of the freight over similar figures for the preceding year is shown below :

Agricultural products	3.2
Rice	5.0
Others	1.7
Forestry products	2.4
Mineral products	10.2
Marine products	6.9
Manufactured provisions	1.9
Table-luxuries	3.2
Fodder	5.8
Textiles & manufactures	1.8
Ceramics and cement	4.0
Industrial products	11.2
Dairy products	4.5
Miscellaneous merchandise	1.7
Total	7.0
Others	9.1
Grand Total	7.2

The phenomenal increase in industrial products is well illustrative of the keynote of economic activity. The volume of rice shipments, which recorded a decrease by 13.9 per cent in 1935, mounted by 5 per cent on account of the bumper crop. The decrease in ceramics and cement was brought about by the decline in cement and that in textiles and manufactures thereof was attributable to the setback suffered by cotton textiles on account of the advance achieved by rayon textiles.

Improvement in Local Business Condition Bank clearings mounted every month as compared with the preceding year, reflecting economic activities and the higher quotations of stocks. The annual total of bank clearings during 1936 reached ¥69,895,000,000 which represented an increase of ¥6,000,000,000 or 9.5 per cent over similar figures for the preceding year. Although not comparable with Tokyo and Osaka, other parts of the country also recorded a remarkable rise in the amount of bank clearings as a result of the economic development enabled by the policy of diversifying the locations of factories and the improvement in the economic conditions of the agricultural villages brought about by the higher prices of agricultural products. Details of the increase in bank clearings are shown below :

BANK CLEARINGS THROUGHOUT THE COUNTRY

(In One Million Yen)

	1935		1936			
	Amount	%	Amount	%	Increase	Percentage of Increase
Tokyo and Osaka	48,280	75.7	52,379	75.0	4,099	8.5
4 Principal cities	11,640	18.2	13,379	18.6	1,421	12.2
Other localities	3,881	6.1	4,419	6.4	538	13.9
Total	63,801	100.0	69,859	100.0	6,058	9.5

Marked Rise In Commodity Prices The prices of commodities rose from 157.3 to 159.1 during the first half of the year, which was a comparatively mild rise. With the advent of the second half of the year, however, the rising tendency was remarkably accelerated, with the index number reaching as high as 173.5 in December. The average index number for the year was 153.3 which represented a rise by 8.3 per cent as compared with similar figures for the preceding year.

The weak tone recorded in the first half of the year may be attributed, to some extent, to the influence of the outbreak of the February 26 incident, but the principal cause, is to be found in the fact that the foreign trade of this nature is usually characterized by an excess of imports over exports during the first half of the year and by an excess of exports over imports during the second half.

The rapid rise in the prices of commodities during the second half of the year, although attributable to some extent to the seasonal tendency and the specific conditions brought about by the anticipation of further inflation in view of the enormous budget estimates for the 1937–38 fiscal year, was rather abnormal. This abnormal phenomenon, however, was seen not only in this country but in other nations of the world as well, as is clear from the following table :

PERCENTAGE OF RICE IN COMMODITY PRICES

	Index of Commodity Prices			Percentage of Rise		
	Japan	England	America	Japan	England	America
June, 1935	148.0	102.8	113.0	1.7*	3.6	3.7
December, 1935	156.3	107.8	119.0	5.6	4.9	5.3
June, 1936	159.1	105.4	113.1	1.8	2.2*	5.0*
December, 1936	173.5	119.7	127.9	9.1	13.6	13.1
Compared with the end of the preceding year	—	—	—	11.0	11.0	7.5

Note: 1. *Denotes decrease.
2. The figures for Japan are based on a survey by the Tokyo Asahi Shimbun and those for other countries on a survey by the Bank of Japan. The index number for the pre-war period is represented as 100.

The rapid rise in commodity prices reflects the enforcement of a quasi-war time system throughout the world in connection with the prevailing armament race. The fact that the percentage of increase as compared with the preceding year was the same for both Japan and England reflects the relation

between the yen and the pound sterling.

Substance of Price Rise The general conditions of the rise in the prices of commodities are common to the whole world, but with reference to the substance of the rise, it is to be noted that Japan is in a specific condition because of her dependence upon foreign countries for the supply of materials. Japan, England and America all succeeded in executing a policy of inflation and the present is, so to speak, a harvest time for them. In spite of the fact that both England and America are engaged in re-arming the rise in commodity prices there was most remarkable in cereals, textiles and metal articles in the order named. In Japan the order was reversed, for she has to depend on foreign lands for the supply of such materials as fibres and metals, while England, for instance, has to import mostly cereals and fibres. Details are shown below :

INDEX NUMBER OF WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES

	Annual Average of Index			Year-end Index		
	1935	1936	Percentage of Increase	1935	1936	Percentage of Increase
Total index	153.3	161.5	8.3	156.3	173.9	11.0
Cereals	170.7	185.2	8.5	174.7	190.7	9.2
Provisions	200.4	206.7	3.1	204.7	212.0	5.5
Textiles	125.1	131.6	6.0	129.2	148.3	14.8
Metals	128.8	138.3	7.4	127.6	177.7	39.3
Fuel	156.4	161.8	3.5	155.3	179.5	15.6
Fertilizer	94.1	96.4	2.4	96.7	96.0	0.8*
Building materials	193.7	192.3	0.7*	190.5	207.3	8.8
Miscellaneous	125.8	123.1	2.1*	125.6	127.6	1.6

Note: *Denotes decrease.

That the rising rate of the prices of cereals was greater than that of the prices of metal articles is attributable to the fact that while the latter was merely a phenomenon in the second half of the year, the former characterized the whole of 1936 under the impetus of the Government policy for higher prices of rice as well as the influence of the active purchases of sugar and wheat by Continental countries for storing to meet the extraordinary situation in Europe. As regards the declining tendency in the prices of fertilizers, there is no need to emphasize that the tendency reflected the strengthened fertilizer policy of the Government centering on measures to cope with the situation in the agricultural villages.

It may be enlightening to make a further consideration of the conditions in the light of the index numbers prepared by the Mitsubishi Economic Research Institute. According to these index numbers, productive goods advanced in prices by 16.7 per cent in 1936 against 4.9 per cent in the preceding year and consumptive goods by 5 per cent against 1.8 per cent, with the average for the period from 1903 to 1928 being represented as 100. In other words, both production and consumption goods rose in prices by 10.5 per cent on the average in 1936 against 3.2 per cent in 1935. The same index numbers also show that with the figures for December 10, 1931, being represented as 100, domestic merchandise mounted by 8.2 per cent in 1936 against 3.5 per cent in the preceding year and the articles of foreign trade by 12.9 per cent against 6.7 per cent while the average rise for both categories was by 12.2 per cent in 1936 against 5.6 per cent in 1935. This is indicative of the one-sidedness of our economic conditions, that is to say the dependence of this nation upon foreign countries for the supply of raw materials which resulted in the higher prices of materials in comparison with the quotations for manufactured goods.

Recovery of Industrial Companies The conditions of the industrial companies as a whole showed a stagnation during the first half of 1936 when the percentage of dividend was forced to be lowered, but an improvement was recorded during the second half of the year when the percentage of profits was restored to the same level as that for the second half of 1935. Details follows :

		Paid-up Capital	Profits	Dividends	Percentage of Profits	Percentage of Dividends
Primary industries	2nd Half of 1935	¥1,284	¥150	¥ 69	23.7	10.9
	1st Half of 1936	1,322	152	69	23.2	10.6
	2nd Half of 1936	1,382	161	70	23.6	10.3
Secondary industries	2nd Half of 1935	1,803	126	64	14.0	7.1
	1st Half of 1936	1,974	135	69	13.7	7.0
	2nd Half of 1936	2,045	138	71	13.7	7.1
Total	2nd Half of 1935	3,088	277	133	18.0	8.7
	1st Half of 1936	3,296	286	138	17.5	8.4
	2nd Half of 1936	3,428	299	141	17.7	8.4

Note: 1. The figures for paid-up capital, profits and dividend are all in units of one million yen.
2. All figures are based on a survey conducted by the Tokyo Asahi Shimbun.

The conditions of the various branches of the industry and business are shown below :

PERCENTAGE OF PROFITS OF PRIMARY INDUSTRIES

	2nd Half of 1935	1st Half of 1936	2nd Half of 1931
Cotton spinning	28.8	27.1	28.2
Miscellaneous fibrous	26.1	23.2	2.5
Ceramic and cement	20.4	17.6	15.6
Chemical	21.7	22.4	20.2
Shipbuilding and machinery manufacturing	12.5	13.1	13.3
Mining and refining	25.1	23.6	25.2
Petroleum and coal	15.7	17.9	18.6
Provisions	33.3	34.6	36.0

PERCENTAGE OF PROFITS OF SECONDARY ENTERPRISES

	2nd Half of 1935	1st Half of 1936	2nd Half of 1936
Electricity industry	13.9	13.7	13.3
Railways	9.8	9.9	16.3
Trust business	20.4	16.9	18.0
Shipping business, etc.	29.3	26.8	30.1
Commerce, etc.	15.5	16.1	16.0
Land and building	9.0	9.6	9.4
Exchanges	11.0	9.7	9.5

It may be noted that the mining industry and the metal industry showed a tendency to change places in the matter of profits on account of the higher prices of materials as compared with the quotations for manufactured goods. In the spinning industry, the recovery of the first-rate companies was more remarkable than that of the second- and third-rate companies, apparently because the latter, which had been lagging behind in scientific management, made vigorous efforts toward rationalization as a means of coping with the taxation reform plan of the Government. The decreased percentage of profits of the electricity industrial companies, as indicated in the above table, is due to the rapid increase in the paid-up capital. As a matter of fact, the business conditions of these companies were quite satisfactory, reflecting the growing demand for motive power in industrial circles.

Disturbance in Stock Market The stock market was violently disturbed under the influence of the reformist tendency originating in the February 26 incident. Although the index numbers show a decline by 6.7 per cent, there was a decrease of as much as ¥311,000,000 in the total amount in market prices of stocks throughout the country, which fell from ¥20,972,000,000 to ¥20,661,000,000. As there was no fundamental change in economic conditions, however, the stock market was soon restored to normal. Later, the Government's plan to place the privately-owned electricity industry under State management in line with the strengthened economic control, the proposal to enlarge the scope of government monopoly, the projected reform of the exchanges and the taxation reform plan involving increased taxes became known, and again caused violent fluctuations in stock quotations.

Generally speaking, the key-note of the stock market during 1936 was a firm one being characterized by speculative buying motivated by the strengthened low-interest policy of the Government. The annual average of stock quotations, according to statistics compiled by the Tokyo Stock Exchange, was 132.6 in 1936 as compared with 115.7 in 1935, which represented a rise by 13.8 per cent. Apart from the improvement in general economic conditions, the rise

in stock quotations may be attributed to the increased investing power brought about by the year-end increase in the total premium on stocks throughout the country by ¥838,000,000 compared with similar figures for the preceding year, and the active change from money to goods in anticipation of the entry of inflation upon its second stage.

The speculative buying concerned miscellaneous stocks, a tendency which continued into the year 1937. Statistics show that the premium on those not placed on the Tokyo Stock Exchange increased to 34.2 per cent in 1936 from 29.9 per cent in 1935 while that on those placed on the Tokyo Stock Exchange declined from 49.1 per cent. When considered as a whole, the premium on stocks in 1936 was greater by 7.3 per cent than similar figures for the preceding year, rising from 35.5 per cent to 38.1 per cent. Details follow:

STOCK QUOTATIONS (In One Million Yen)

	At End of 1935	At End of 1936	Increased Amount	Percentage of Increase
Stocks placed on the Tokyo Stock Exchange:				
Paid-up capital	4,468	4,716	248	5.6
Stock market price	6,664	6,975	311	4.7
Premium	2,176	2,259	83	3.8
Stocks not placed on Tokyo Exchange:				
Paid-up capital	10,782	11,674	892	8.3
Stock market price	14,004	15,665	1,661	11.9
Premium	3,242	3,991	749	23.1
Total:				
Paid-up capital	15,250	16,390	1,140	7.5
Stock market price	20,668	22,640	1,972	9.5
Premium	5,418	6,250	838	15.4

Note: The above figures are based on a survey conducted by the Tokyo Stock Exchange, with the statistics compiled in October by the Bank of Japan being adopted for the figures for the market prices of securities.

Stocks at Reduced Prices As stated above, the quotations of stock as a whole recorded an advance but when individual stocks are considered separately, fluctuations are noted. The year-end index numbers for 1936 show that four categories decreased in market prices while five categories increased. Details are given below:

STOCKS AT REDUCED PRICES

(Index Number)

	At End of 1935	At End of 1936	Percentage of Decrease
Public utility enterprises	156.9	153.5	2.2
Banking and insurance	173.9	171.8	1.2
Commercial	38.9	29.6	23.9
Exchange	130.6	108.1	17.2

STOCKS AT RAISED PRICES

(Index Number)

	At End of 1935	At End of 1936	Percentage of Increase
Mining	122.5	138.1	12.7
Fibrous industry	77.6	82.6	13.8
Manufacturing, etc.	74.3	85.1	14.5
Shipping, etc.	59.1	76.0	28.6
Miscellaneous	148.9	179.2	20.3

With reference to the public utility stocks, it may be mentioned that the electricity and gas stocks suffered a decline in the market prices on account of the strengthened economic control while the railway stocks achieved an advance because of improved business conditions. The decline in the quotations of the banking and insurance stocks taken as a whole is due to the fall of those other than the banking stocks, which rose though very slightly. Among the commercial stocks, those of department stores and land and building companies showed a firm tone although a decline in market value was recorded for the commercial stocks as a whole. As regards the fall of the exchange stocks, it is a matter of common knowledge that the exchanges were affected by the question of a reform of all exchanges being undertaken.

Under the heading of mining stocks are included those of petroleum, coal, mining and refining, and iron manufacturing companies. The advance in price of petroleum stocks was the most remarkable of all. The fibrous industry stocks are subdivided into four categories comprising those of the cotton spinning companies, of the woollen industry companies, the rayon yarns com-

panies and other reeling companies. The last named two categories suffered a decline, particularly the reeling stocks. Those included under the heading of manufacturing industry are the stocks of the sugar manufacturing, provisions, machinery, paper, fertilizer, chemical, ceramic, cement and brewery companies, of which the beer brewery and paper manufacturing stocks declined.

The rise in the market prices of the stocks classified under the heading "shipping, etc." which comprise the stocks of shipping, shipbuilding, dock and various transportation companies was particularly remarkable in the case of shipbuilding stocks. The heading "miscellaneous" covers the stocks of fishery, rubber and colonization companies and the advance in market prices for the last named was not so striking as that for the others.

To sum up, the various stocks experienced vicissitudes but as the conditions in the market brightened during the latter half of the year and the low-interest tendency advanced, those which suffered a decline began to recover from the loss of popularity. The only exceptions were the electricity and exchange stocks which failed to show any signs of improvement even towards the end of the year.

Capitalization The total capitalization of the companies recorded at the end of 1935 amounted to ¥22,352,402,224 which represented an increase of ¥1,225,423,815 or 5.8 per cent over the figures for the previous year. Of this increased capitalization, companies with a capital of less than ¥500,000 each, which numbered 5,679, accounted for ¥213,166,483 and those capitalized at more than ¥500,000 each, which numbered 269, for ¥1,012,257,332.

It may be noted in this connection that up to 1929 almost all companies had increased their capitalization every year, but that from 1930 to 1932 inclusive a gradual though small decrease was recorded. From 1933 onwards the increasing tendency was resumed, and was greatly accelerated in 1934 and 1935. Details are tabulated below :

	Capital		Variation from Preceding Year	Percentage of Increase or Decrease
	Amount	Index Number		
1925	¥16,464,200	100	+¥ 323,362	+2.0
1926	17,633,526	107	+ 1,169,326	+7.1
1927	18,386,355	112	+ 752,829	+4.3
1928	18,968,865	115	+ 582,510	+3.2
1929	19,666,107	119	+ 697,242	+3.7
1930	19,633,761	119	- 32,346	-0.2
1931	19,551,544	119	- 82,217	-0.4
1932	19,484,540	118	- 67,004	-0.3
1933	19,960,318	121	+ 475,778	+2.4
1934	21,126,978	128	+ 1,166,660	+5.8
1935	22,352,402	132	+ 1,225,424	+5.8

Note: All figures for amount are in units of ¥1,000.

The average capital of each of the companies at the end of 1935 was ¥265,638, a decrease of ¥4,535 or 1.7 per cent from similar figures for the end of 1934 and a decrease of ¥213,739 or 44.6 per cent from those for the end of 1925. Of the total capital, Gomei Kaisha accounted for ¥1,306,235,862 or 5.8 per cent, Goshi Kaisha for ¥1,150,161,537 or 5.1 per cent, Kabushiki Kaisha for ¥19,885,777,795 or 89 per cent, Kabushiki Goshi Kaisha for ¥7,377,030 and Sogo Kaisha for ¥2,850,000. Compared with the preceding year, the capital of Gomei Kaisha increased by ¥72,690,993 or 5.9 per cent, that of Goshi Kaisha by ¥55,980,449 or 4.9 per cent and that of Kabushiki Kaisha by ¥1,097,522,723 or 5.8 per cent while that of Kabushiki Goshi Kaisha decreased by ¥420,350 or 5.7 per cent and that of Sogo Kaisha by ¥350,000 or 1.2 per cent.

During the past 10 years, the increase in capital was particularly notable in the case of Goshi Kaisha which recorded an increase of 1.6 per cent, followed by Gomei Kaisha with 1.5 per cent and Kabushiki Kaisha with 1.3 per cent. Details are shown below :

	Gomei Kaisha	Goshi Kaisha	Kabushiki Kaisha
1925	100	100	100
1926	120	105	106
1927	122	108	111
1928	126	114	115
1929	129	120	119
1930	133	124	118
1931	130	128	118
1932	132	133	117
1933	131	141	120
1934	139	149	127
1935	147	157	134

At the end of 1935 the average capital per company amounted to ¥854,787 for Kabushiki Kaisha, ¥712,500 for Sogo Kaisha, ¥179,928 for Kabushiki Goshi Kaisha, ¥79,411 for Gomei Kaisha and ¥25,911 for Goshi Kaisha. In the following table the average capital of each kind of company at the end of 1935 is compared with similar figures for the end of 1934 and 1925 (in thousands) :

	Compared with 1934		Compared with 1925	
	Amount	%	Amount	%
Gomei Kaisea	−¥ 6,508	− 7.6	+¥91,685	+53.6
Goshi Kaisha	− 249	− 1.0	− 37,577	−59.2
Kabushiki Kaisha	− 122	—	+ 10,257	+ 1.2
Kabushiki Goshi Kaisha	+ 25,266	+12.3	− 67,352	−27.2
Sogo Kaisha	− 87,500	−10.9	1,071	0.2

It is clear from the above table that when compared with similar figures for the end of 1934, the average capital per company in each classification showed a decrease in each case except that of Kabushiki Goshi Kaisha. A decrease was also recorded when compared with similar figures for the end of 1925, except in the case of Kabushiki Kaisha and Sogo Kaisha.

Manufacturing industry headed the list of capital at the end of 1935, with ¥9,456,415,605, followed by commerce, transportation business, mining, agriculture and fishery. Details are tabulated as follows :

	Amount of Capital	Proportion to Total	Compared with 1934	Compared with 1925
Manufacturing industry	¥9,456,415,605	42.3%	+ 7.2%	+ 53.2%
Commerce	8,065,151,295	40.1	+ 4.1	+ 22.7
Transportation business	2,332,268,289	10.4	+ 1.4	+ 38.8
Mining	1,269,098,458	5.7	+18.9	+ 2.2
Agriculture	178,378,964	0.8	− 0.8	− 6.8
Fishery	151,089,613	0.7	+ 5.8	+108.5

The list of average capital per company was headed by mining with ¥2,077,084. Agriculture brought up the rear with ¥91,149. The figures for the end of 1935 compared with those for 1934 and 1925 are as follows :

	Average Capital per Company	Compared with 1934	Compared with 1925
Agriculture	¥ 91,149	−7.1%	−65.5%
Fishery	455,089	+4.6	+23.1
Mining	2,077,084	+0.3	34.9
Manufacturing industry	322,612	−1.1	−30.9
Commerce	195,524	−3.1	−53.7
Transportation business	383,471	−4.4	−41.5

Paid-up Capital The total paid-up capital of all the companies throughout the country at the end of 1935 amounted to ¥16,660,176,338 which showed an increase of ¥885,015,362 or 5.6 per cent over the figures for the previous year. Of this sum, Kabushiki Kaisha accounted for ¥14,197,243,247 or 85.2 per cent, Gomei Kaisha for ¥1,306,235,862 or 7.8 per cent, and Goshi Kaisha for ¥1,150,161,537 or 6.9 per cent. Only 0.1 per cent of the total was divided between Kabushiki Goshi Kaisha and Sogo Kaisha, the former taking ¥5,485,742 and the latter ¥1,050,000.

The total paid-up capital of Kabushiki Kaisha amounted to 71.4 per cent of the total authorized capital while the percentage for Kabushiki Goshi Kaisha was 74.4 per cent. The percentages of paid-up capital during the past 10 years is tabulated as follows :

	Kabushiki Kaisha	Kabushiki Goshi Kaisha
1925	64.2%	67.9%
1926	64.8	70.7
1927	65.2	76.2
1928	65.9	76.1
1929	66.7	68.0
1930	67.6	69.1
1931	68.0	68.4
1932	68.6	72.0
1933	69.5	73.7
1934	71.5	70.6
1935	71.4	74.4

The following is a table showing the percentage of paid-up capital in the case of Kabushiki Kaisha and the average paid-up capital per company in each class :

	Percentage of Paid-up Capital			Average Paid-up Capital per Company	Average Authorized Capttal per Company
	19351	934	193		
Agriculture	78.8	72.2	58.8	¥ 332,260	¥ 444,332
Fishery	83.4	76.4	70.2	792,776	950,100
Mining	76.8	78.1	66.8	2,134,872	2,780,290
Manufacturing industry	74.9	75.6	67.4	808,049	1,078,290
Commerce	66.5	66.6	61.0	438,250	659,365
Transportation business	68.9	68.0	64.1	485,204	704,379

Reserves The total reserves of all the companies throughout the country at the end of 1935 amounted to ¥3,606,008,-133 which represented an increase of ¥291,455,511 or 8.8 per cent over the figures for the end of 1934 and an increase of ¥1,113,569,375 or 44.7 per cent over those for 1925. The proportion of the reserves was 16.1 per cent at the total authorized capital and 21.6 per cent of the total paid-up capital.

Of this total the reserves of Gomei Kaisha amounted to ¥158,310,669 (4.4 per cent), those of Goshi Kaisha to ¥126,-917,778 (3.5 per cent), of Kabushiki Kaisha to ¥3,242,049,469 (89.9 per cent), of Kabushiki Goshi Kaisha to ¥485,395, and of Sogo Kaisha to ¥78,242,822 (2.2 per cent). Compared with the preceding year, the reserves of Gomei Kaisha increased by ¥5,665,412 or 3.7 per cent, those of Goshi Kaisha by ¥8,405,204 or 7.1 per cent, those of Kabushiki Kaisha by ¥268,-920,903 or 9 per cent, and those of Sogo Kaisha by ¥3,500,183 or 12.2 per cent. The reserves of Kabushiki Goshi Kaisha, however, showed a decrease of ¥36,191 or 6.9 per cent when compared with similar figures for the preceding year. Details follow :

	Proportion to Total Authorized Capital	Proportion to Total Paid-up Capital	Average Reserves per Company
Gomei Kaisha	12.1%	—	¥ 9,624
Goshi Kaisha	11.0	—	2,859
Kabushiki Kaisha	16.3	22.8%	139,359
Kabushiki Goshi Kaisha	6.6	8.8	11,839
Sogo Kaisha	2,745.4	7,451.7	19,560,706

The following is a table showing the reserves of the various companies classified according to their enterprises :

	Amount of Reserves	Proportion to Total Reserves	Increase Over Preceding Year
Commerce	2,038,149,114	56.5%	3.9%
Manufacturing industry	1,202,110,825	33.3	16.2
Transportation business	196,798,809	5.5	11.2
Mining	141,984,183	3.9	18.2
Fishery	13,911,080	0.4	48.8
Agriculture	13,054,122	0.4	14.4

The proportion of reserves to capital and the average amount of reserves per company according to enterprises are tabulated as follows :

	Proportion to Authorized Capital	Proportion to Paid-up Capital	Average Reserves per Company
Commerce	22.7%	31.0%	¥ 44,451
Manufacturing industry	12.7	16.7	41,011
Mining	11.2	14.5	232,380
Fishery	9.2	11.0	41,901
Transportation business	8.4	12.2	32.358
Agriculture	7.3	9.4	6,670

Profits and Losses The total net profits of the various companies throughout the country for 1935 amounted to ¥1,510,291,705, showing an increase of ¥181,238,033 or 13.6 per cent over the figures for the preceding year. The average amount of net profits per company of those that showed a profit was ¥17,948 or ¥952 or 5.6 per cent greater than for the preceding year. The total net losses of other companies amounted to ¥109,388,955, representing a decrease of ¥39,321,437 or 26.4 per cent from similar figures for the preceding year. The average amount of net losses for one company was ¥1,300 which showed a decrease of ¥602 or 31.7 per cent as compared with similar figures for the preceding year.

All the companies throughout the country taken together made net profits of ¥1,400,902,750 for the year 1935, which showed an increase of ¥220,559,470 or 18.7 per cent over the preceding year. The average amount of profits per company was ¥16,648, which was ¥1,554 or 10.3 per cent higher than for the preceding year.

The following is a table showing the net profits and net losses respectively of the various companies as well as the business conditions of all the companies throughout the country taken together during the past 10 years :

	Net Profits		Net Losses		Balance	
	Amount	Index No.	Amount	Index No.	Amount	Index No.
1925	¥1,101,911	100	¥232,132	100	¥ 869,779	100
1926	1,095,341	99	262,735	113	832,606	96
1927	1,102,885	100	333,331	144	769,554	88
1928	1,153,767	105	261,938	113	891,829	103
1929	1,140,082	103	263,040	113	877,042	101
1930	919,419	83	311,667	134	607,752	70
1931	743,675	67	272,978	118	470,697	54
1932	830,322	75	201,617	87	628,705	72
1933	1,092,034	99	138,608	60	953,426	110
1934	1,329,054	121	148,710	64	1,180,343	136
1935	1,510,294	137	109,389	47	1,400,905	161

Note: All amounts given in units of ¥1,000.

The average net profits or losses per company in each case as well as the average net profits per company with all the organizations concerned throughout the country being considered as a whole are given below :

	Net Profits		Net Losses		Net Profits With All Companies Taken Together	
	Amount	Index No.	Amount	Index No.	Amount	Index No.
1925	¥32,084	100	¥6,759	100	¥25,325	100
1926	30,369	95	7,284	108	23,085	91
1927	28,634	89	8,654	128	19,980	79
1928	27,667	86	6,281	93	21,386	84
1929	24,417	76	5,634	83	18,783	74
1930	17,712	55	6,004	89	11,708	46
1931	12,995	41	4,770	71	8,225	32
1932	12,766	40	3,100	46	9,666	38
1933	15,338	48	1,947	29	13,391	53
1934	16,996	53	1,902	28	15,094	60
1935	17,948	56	1,300	19	16,648	66

The net profits of the various companies which showed a profit amounted to 9.1 per cent of their paid-up capital while the net losses of other companies amounted to 0.7 per cent of their paid-up capital. Taking all the companies throughout the country together, their net profits amounted to 8.4 per cent of the paid-up capital. The highest percentage of net profits during the past 10 years was 9.9, which was recorded in 1925. After declining gradually from then, the percentage began to rise in 1933. A declining tendency has been shown by the percentage of net losses ever since 1925, which has been particularly notable following 1933. It follows that the net profits of all the companies throughout the country taken together has been increasing in percentage. Details follow :

	Percentage of Net Profits	Percentage of Net Losses	Percentage of Net Profits With All Companies Taken Together
1925	9.5	2.1	7.8
1926	9.1	2.2	6.9
1927	8.7	2.6	6.1
1928	8.8	2.0	6.8
1929	8.3	1.9	6.4
1930	6.6	2.2	4.4
1931	5.3	2.0	3.3
1932	5.9	1.4	4.5
1933	7.5	1.0	6.5
1934	8.6	0.9	7.7
1935	9.1	0.8	8.4

The net profits or net losses of the various companies classified according to their organizations and the net profits of all the companies in each class taken together are given below :

	Net Profits	Net Losses	Balance
Gomei Kaisha	¥ 55,848,061	¥ 13,682,656	¥ 42,165,405
Goshi Kaisha	55,170,729	23,237,443	31,933,286
Kabushiki Kaisha	1,369,868,313	72,372,576	1,297,495,737
Kabushiki Goshi Kaisha	168,101	96,280	71,821
Sogo Kaisha	29,238,976	—	29,238,976
Total	1,510,294,180	109,388,955	1,400,905,225

The following is a table showing the proportion of net profits, net losses and balance to the paid-up capital, together with the average share per company in the balance :

	Net Profits	Net Losses	Balance	Average share
Gomei Kaisha	4.3%	1.0%	3.2%	¥ 2,563
Goshi Kaisha	4.8	2.0	2.8	710
Kabushiki Kaisha	9.6	0.5	9.1	55,773
Kabushiki Goshi Kaisha	3.1	1.8	1.3	1,752
Sogo Kaisha	2,784,7	—	2,784.7	7,309,744

The proportion of net profits, net losses and balance to paid-up capital of the various companies classified according to their enterprises is shown in the following table :

	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
	(In Percentage)										
Agriculture											
Net profits	6.9	6.9	4.6	3.7	3.2	2.3	0.9	1.0	1.7	3.3	4.2
Net losses	1.7	2.1	3.0	5.2	5.5	3.6	4.0	2.9	1.8	1.9	2.1
Balance	5.2	4.8	1.6	1.5	2.3	1.3	3.1	1.9	0.1	1.4	2.1
Fishery											
Net profits	10.0	12.4	12.7	17.2	7.1	5.4	1.9	5.9	7.5	10.7	12.9
Net losses	2.7	3.5	2.6	1.3	1.6	4.6	3.0	2.0	0.9	1.1	1.1
Balance	7.3	8.9	10.1	15.9	5.5	0.8	1.1	3.9	6.6	9.6	11.8
Mining											
Net profits	4.8	4.6	5.3	6.2	7.4	4.3	2.7	3.8	6.9	9.1	10.0
Net losses	0.9	1.2	2.3	2.6	2.5	3.2	2.2	1.8	0.8	0.3	0.3
Balance	3.9	3.4	3.0	3.6	4.9	1.1	0.5	2.0	6.1	8.8	9.7
Manufacturing industry											
Net profits	10.7	9.5	9.0	9.5	9.4	6.8	6.1	6.4	8.3	9.0	10.4
Net losses	2.4	2.3	2.2	1.7	1·4	2.0	1.7	1.0	0.7	0.9	0.5
Balance	8.3	7.2	6.8	7.8	8.0	4.8	4.4	5.4	7.6	8.1	9.9
Commerce											
Net profits	10.6	9.8	9.4	8.8	7.9	7.3	5.5	6.4	7.9	9.3	8.2
Net losses	1.8	2.0	3.4	2.3	2.1	2.3	2.3	1.8	1.2	1.1	0.9
Balance	8.8	7.8	6.0	6.5	5.8	5.0	3.2	4.6	6.7	8.2	7.3
Transportation business											
Net profits	7.2	7.3	7.0	6.8	6.5	4.5	3.8	3.3	3.7	4.4	5.9
Net losses	2.9	3.1	1.6	1.3	2.6	2.0	1.3	1.2	1.0	0.5	0.4
Blance	4.3	4.2	5.4	5.5	3.9	2.5	2.5	2.1	2.7	3.9	5.5

Note: All figures under the heading of balance denote favourable balances except those underlined which denote unfavourable balances.

Dividend The total dividends paid by all the companies throughout the country in 1935 amounted to ¥903,013,099 which represented an increase of ¥125,315,213 or 16.1 per cent over the figure for the preceding year. The proportion of dividends to the paid-up capital and net profits during the past 10 years is shown in the following table :

	Proportion to Paid-up Capital	Proportion to Net Profits
1925	6.2%	62.8%
1926	6.1	67.1
1927	5.6	64.3
1928	5.8	66.2
1929	5.7	68.9
1930	4.7	70.8
1931	3.9	73.9
1932	3.9	65.7
1933	4.4	58.5
1934	4.9	57.0
1935	5.4	59.8

The total amount of dividends paid by the various companies classified according to their organization, and the proportion of dividends to the paid-up capital and net profits, are tabulated as follows :

	Total Dividends	Proportion to Paid-up Capital	Proportion to Net Profits
Gomei Kaisha	¥ 35,756,344	2.7%	64.0%
Goshi Kaisha	32,015,608	2.8	58.0
Kabushiki Kaisha	835,020,117	5.9	61.0
Kabushiki Goshi Kaisha	101,030	1.8	60.1
Sogo Kaisha	120,000	11.4	0.4
Total	903,013,099	5.4	59.8

Classified by the varieties of business of these companies, the figures are as follows :

	Total Dividends	Proportion of Paid-up Capital	Proportion to Net Profits
Manufacturing industry	¥480,508,664	6.7%	63.8%
Commerce	286,177,248	4.3	52.8
Mining	63,862,501	6.5	65.1
Transportion business	58,090,209	3.6	60.9
Fishery	10,136,150	8.0	62.1
Agriculture	4,238,327	3.0	72.8

Debentures The total debentures issued by the Kabushiki Kaisha throughout the country, as outstanding in 1935, amounted to ¥4,180,602,061 which showed a decrease of ¥79,134,710 or 1.9 per cent from similar figures for the preceding year. The proportion of the outstanding debentures in 1935 to the authorized capital and paid-up capital was 21 and 29.4 per cent respectively. Up to 1933, the amount of debentures had been showing a tendency to increase but a slight decrease was recorded later on. Details follow :

	Index Number of Debentures	Proportion to Authorized Capital	Proportion to Paid-up Capital
1925	100	17.9%	27.8%
1926	107	17.9	27.6
1927	118	18.9	29.0
1928	140	21.8	33.1
1929	155	23.3	35.0
1930	163	24.7	36.5
1931	170	25.7	37.9
1932	170	26.1	38.0
1933	164	24.4	35.1
1934	161	22.7	31.7
1935	158	21.0	29.4

The list of debentures of the various companies classified according to enterprises in 1935 was headed by commerce which accounted for ¥1,881,696,264 or 45 per cent of the total amount. Next came the manufacturing industry with ¥1,758,953,481 or 42.1 per cent, which was followed by the transportation business with ¥510,985,216 or 12.2 per cent, the mining industry with ¥23,967,100 or 0.6 per cent and fishery with ¥5,000,000 or 0.1 per cent in the order named. It may be noted in this connection that agriculture did not share in the debentures.

According to a survey which covered a total of 139 classes of enterprises, the outstanding debentures in 1935 involved 53 classes of enterprises. Banking business took the lion's share, accounting for ¥1,640,602,459, which was followed by electrical industries with ¥1,260,708,592. These two items took 69.4 per cent of the total amount of debentures. The following is a table showing the proportionate amounts of the various enterprises which accounted for more than ¥50,000,000 out of the total debentures :

	Amount of Debentures	Proportional percentage
Banking	¥1,640,602,459	39.2
Electricity	1,260,708,592	30.2
Railways	473,727,716	11.3
Commerce	191,551,505	4.6
Spinning	93,700,000	2.2
Fertilizer manufacturing	92,635,000	2.2
Rayon manufacturing	67,000,000	1.6
Paper manufacturing	60,352,314	1.4

CHAPTER XI

FOREIGN TRADE

History of Development

Four Periods Japan's foreign trade for the last 70 years can be divided into four periods, the first, before the Sino-Japanese War; the second, after the Sino-Japanese War to the outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War; the third, after the Russo-Japanese War to the outbreak of the World War; and the fourth, the period following the World War. In the early part of the Meiji Era the little foreign trade that was done was mostly done through foreign firms, but soon several Japanese trading concerns were founded, among them being the Mitsui Bussan Kaisha, established in 1876, the Osaka Gumi, Morimura Gumi, Kwansai Boyeki Shokwai and others. The Yokohama Specie Bank was founded in 1880 to serve as a monetary organ for traders engaged in foreign trade. The Nippon Yusen Kaisha and Osaka Shosen Kaisha were established in 1875 and 1874 respectively to carry on overseas marine transportation. The Tokyo Marine Insurance Company was founded in 1878. Thus important organizations for foreign trade were brought into being. During this first period Japan's economic conditions were primitive and her pursuits mostly agricultural. Her export volume between the first year of Meiji, 1868, and the 18th year was small —an average of one yen of exports per head of population. The import value was about the same. Even in 1893 the export and import totals were not more than ¥80,000,000 each. The Sino-Japanese War was an epoch in the national destiny of Japan. Foreign trade received a great fillip and considerable development was made. In 1894, when the war broke out between Japan and China, exports and imports were each more than ¥100,000,000, and in 1903, the end of the second period, exports amounted to ¥289,000,000 and imports ¥317,000,000.

The Navigation Law The navigation encouragement law which was promulgated in 1896 accelerated the inauguration of overseas navigation by Japanese shipping companies. In connection with a revised tariff policy export duties were abolished and import duties on industrial materials were either abolished or reduced. Bar silver (Japan did not become a gold standard country until 1897) experienced a sharp drop before and after the War and the export trade was greatly stimulated thereby. In 1899, as a result of repeated efforts of the Government over many years, the existing trade conventions with foreign Powers were revised and the foreign settlement system for foreigners was replaced by one of mixed residence. Until 1887, about 87 per cent of Japan's export trade and 88 per cent of her import trade was handled by foreign merchants. In 1900, the foreigners' transactions in exports were 63 per cent and Japanese transactions 37 per cent, the former's import transactions had decreased to 61 per cent and Japanese transaction increased to 39 per cent. There was an excess of imports for every year of the period (1894–1903). The Russo-Japanese War imparted a far greater impetus to the country's foreign trade than the Sino-Japanese War had done, and foreign capital flowed into the country. Exports attained the ¥300,000,000 mark in 1904, and in 1913 they reached ¥632,000,000 and imports amounted to ¥729,000,000. One of the noteworthy events during the period was that the treaty revision of 1899 was carried still further in 1901, the result being that Japan acquired perfect tariff autonomy and was able to establish the foundation of a protective tariff policy. Industrial development resulted. In 1901, exports that went through foreign merchants were only 48 per cent, while those through Japanese merchants were 52 per cent, and imports handled by the former in the same year were 36 per cent, while those by Japanese were 64 per cent—a complete reversal of the conditions that had existed during the early part of the reign of Meiji.

The World War The greatest effects on economic circles of Japan, qualitatively and quantitatively, resulted from the World War. Between 1914 and 1918, when the War was going on, Japanese economy and finance went through a sweeping change for the better and the unprecedented business boom lasted until March, 1920, when a great reaction took place. The suspension of imports

into Japan by the War prompted the country to become self-sufficient in various lines of industry. Heavy demands for stores came in rapid succession from European countries. Japan became one of the principal countries of export to China, the South Seas and India, taking the place of Europe and America. The export activities and trade markets for Japanese commodities were considerably enlarged, increasing in proportion to the length of the war. Exports which totalled only ¥600,000,000 in 1914, the first year of the fourth period of the trade development of Japan, went above ¥1,100,000,000 in 1916, and in 1919 the amount exceeded ¥2,098,000,000, setting an all-time record. Imports which in 1914 were less than ¥600,000,000, increased to more than ¥1,000,000,000, in 1917 and finally reached ¥2,336,000,000 in 1920. Special mention must be made that for four years from 1915 to 1918, Japan witnessed a great excess of exports the combined export excess for the period totalling ¥1,408,000,000. This trade prosperity naturally stimulated the shipping business. With the continued favourable trade balance, an influx of gold into Japan took place. For the seven years from 1915 to 1922 the influx of gold amounted to ¥1,180,000,000, and in addition Japan came to hold an enormous amount of specie abroad. The amount held by the Government and the Bank of Japan at the end of 1920 was ¥2,178,000,000, a record high amount for Japan. When the armistice was concluded in 1918, the heavy demand for munitions came to an end, and with the gradual restoration of European industries to their former conditions, the collapse of the Russian market through the Revolution, the exhaustion of European countries and the consequent sinking purchasing power, Japan's export trade turned for the worse during the latter half of 1920. The 1920 reaction threw Japanese economy into a great panic. Exports in 1921 made a sudden and substantial decrease to the ¥1,000,000,000 mark from the record level of ¥2,098,000,000 for 1919. Imports also went off remarkably. To make matters worse, trade reverted to the adverse balance of import excess after 1919, the largest adverse balance being in 1924 and 1925 consequent on the great Kanto earthquake and fire of 1923. Imports for 1924 totalled ¥2,400,000,000 going above the previous record of ¥2,336,000,000 for 1920, and in 1925 the amount attained the considerable height of ¥2,500,000,000. This remarkable gain was due to heavy imports of materials needed for reconstruction work after the earthquake and fire. The Government exempted these imports from tariff duties. Due to the adverse trade balance, specie accumulated by Japan during the War boom was taken back by foreign countries. During the years from 1868, the first year of Meiji, to 1936 only 21 years have seen an excess of exports over imports and the remaining 47 years have experienced an excess of imports over exports.

The Trade Returns The annual foreign trade figures from 1897 to 1936, taken from the Ministry of Finance reports and excluding the foreign trade of Korea and Formosa, follow. It may be added that the values of exports prior to 1904 represent the price at ports of destination, and those for that year and subsequent years, the price and packing charges. The values of imports prior to 1899 represent the original price only and those for that year and subsequent years, the cost, packing charges, freight, insurance and all other incidental expenses incurred up to the time of the arrival at the port of destination.

Foreign Trade in 1936 and 1937

Foreign trade of Japan in 1936 amounted to ¥5,726,000,000, the highest in Japan's history. Exports increased 7.5 per cent while imports increased 11.8 per cent as compared with the previous year, and the excess of imports over exports amounted to ¥130,000,000, in 1936, against ¥14,700,000 in 1935, the increases being due not to the advance of unit prices but to the quantitative swelling in both imports and exports.

The exports of rayon cloth, woollen textiles, canned and bottled provisions, and machinery and iron, all increased greetly, particularly remarkable were the shipments to Great Britain, the United States, Manchoukuo and the Kwantung Leased Territory. The most outstanding item among the increased imports was raw cotton. Other principal items included crude petroleum, heavy oil, raw rubber, ammonium sulphate, and pulp. British India, China, the Dutch Indies, Canada, British Malay and the Philippines were the leading origins of the increased imports.

It is anticipated that the export trade will further increase during 1937 because of the better economic conditions prevailing in the United States, China and other agricultural nations. Imports will expand because of increased exports and armament expansion. There is a possibility, however, of imports being further restricted by the strengthened licensing system for import exchange.

Issues of 1936 Defeating to some extent the pressure brought to bear upon their expansion by various countries Japanese exports, because of their cheapness, continued to increase in 1936, but there were two problems to be faced at home, one concerning the decrease in export profits and the other the aggravation of labour conditions in the export industry. In connection with imports, there existed a serious question of how to deal with the inconsistencies of the situation arising from the upward trend of the excess of imports over exports on account of the growing demand for munitions and the aggravating balance of international payments in the face of the necessity of a rapid accumulation of capital.

The pressure brought to bear upon the expansion of this nation,s export trade during 1936 was characterized by the greatly increased customs duty which Australia imposed on Japanese cotton and rayon cloths on May 22. In retaliation, Japan invoked the trade protection law against Australia on June 25. The enforcement of the trade protection law was discontinued on January 1, 1937, in accordance with a compromise reached with Australia toward the end of 1936.

Further, special mention must be made of the fact, from the standpoint of the quasi-war time system in force here, that the Hirota Government intended to enact various laws, in compliance with a resolution adopted by the Tariff Inquiry Commission on December 22, 1936, for the adoption of a double tariff system, a revision of the tariffs in general and the imposition of a trade control tax and a trade statistic tax. This intention, however, failed to be realized because the Hirota Government resigned during the 70th session of the Imperial Diet to be succeeded by the Hayashi Cabinet.

Increase of Exports Japan's exports during 1936 amounted to ¥2,693,000,000, which represents an increase of ¥194,000,000 over the figures for the preceding year. The amount of increase would remain over ¥181,000,000 if re-exported goods were excluded. Detailed figures for the 1936 exports of Japan proper are tabulated in comparison with similar figures for the overseas territories of the nation as follows :

Exports of Japan Proper

(In yen)

	1936	1935	Increase
First Six Months	1,218,000,000	1,173,400,000	44,900,000
Second Six Months	1,475,000,000	1,325,700,000	149,300,000
Total	2,693,000,000	2,499,000,000	193,900,000

Exports of Overseas Territories

(In yen)

	1936	1935	Comparison
First Six Months	45,700,000	47,900,000	2,200,000
Second Six Months	59,100,000	56,100.000	3,000,000
Total	104,800,000	104,000,000	800,000

Note:—The underlined figures under the item "Comparison" represent a decrease and those not underlined, increase.

It is clear from the above table that the increase in the exports of Japan proper was particularly remarkable during the latter half of 1936. This increase is attributable to the improved business conditions in the old market for Japanese exports, which centres around the United States and Great Britain.

Increase of Imports The total amount of the imports of Japan proper during 1936 was ¥2,764,000,000, showing an increase of ¥291,000,000 as compared with similar figures for the preceding year. Even with re-imports excluded from the figures, there was still an increase of ¥288,000,000. It is to be noted that the increase in the imports during the year was more remarkable than that in the exports. Detailed figures are given in the following table with the figures for overseas Japanese territories also tabulated for reference :

Imports of Japan Proper

(In yen)

	1936	1935	Increase
First Half-Year	1,489,700,000	1,344,200,000	145,500,000
Second Half-Year	1,274,000,000	1,128,000,000	146,000,000
Total	2,763,700,000	2,472,200,000	291,500,000

Imports of Overseas Territories

	1936	1935	Increase
First Half-Year	88,300,000	71,500,000	16,800,000
Second Half-Year	76,000,000	74,200,000	1,800,000
Total	164,300,000	145,700,000	18,600,000

As is clear from the above table, the imports of overseas Japanese territories also showed a slight increase during 1936 but it is to be mentioned specially that the increase in the imports of Japan proper amounted to upwards of ¥140,000,000 for each half of the year. That the imports of Japan proper during the second half of 1935 amounted to only ¥1,128,000,000 rising only ¥4,000,000 over the figures for the corresponding period of the preceding year was a rather exceptional phenomenon, though some explanation can be sought in a difference in the method of computation. In connection with the imports during the first half of 1936, there was a great deal of laying off buying because of an anticipated weakening in the prices of merchandise.

The factors accountable for the increase in the imports during the second half of 1936 were the increased demand for munitions and the hastened purchases motivated by signs of an upward trend in prices of commodities in general.

Excess of Imports The balance of foreign trade, which became favourable in 1935 for the first time in 17 years, again proved unfavourable in 1936, as shown in the following table :

Balance of Trade

(In yen)

	1936	1935
Japan proper:		
First Half-Year	271,700,000	170,800,000
Second Half-Year	201,000,000	197,600,000
Total	70,700,000	26,800,000
Overseas Territories:		
First Half-Year	42,600,000	23,600,000
Second Half-Year	16,900,000	18,000,000
Total	59,500,000	41,600,000

Note:—All the above figures represent an increase of imports over exports except those underlined which show an increase of exports over imports.

While the unfavourable balance for the overseas territories during 1936 amounted to only ¥59,500,000 or an increase of ¥17,900,000 over the unfavourable balance for the preceding year, the conditions of the foreign trade of Japan proper were so aggravated during 1936 that the favourable balance amounting to ¥26,800,000 for the preceding year was replaced with an unfavourable balance amounting to ¥70,700,000

Destinations of Exports When considered from the standpoint of destinations, the increase in the exports of Japan during 1936 was especially notable in regard to the Asiatic Continent, Northern American Continent and Europe. This means that the greater part of the increased exports went to the old markets where business conditions improved, notably on account of the abnormal munitions boom.

Origins of Imports The Asiatic Continent heads the list of origins of the increased imports of Japan during 1936 and is followed with a wide margin by South America, North America and Africa in the order named. The increase in the imports is to be attributed chiefly to purchase of raw materials. In this respect, mention must be made of the fact that the imports from South America and Africa increased on the strength of the Japanese policy of buying similar goods from several places of origin as well as the necessity of meeting the demand for a regulation of one-sided trade.

Further, the Japanese-Australian trade war arising from the raising of the import duty on Japanese goods by the Australian Government caused a decrease in the imports of wool from Australia, which is also reflected in the increase in this nation's imports from South America and Africa as well as in the decrease in the imports from Oceania.

To go into details, the United States of America took the lion's share in the

increased exports of Japan during 1936, the share amounting to ¥59,000,000, and was followed by the Kwantung Leased Territory with ¥47,000,000. Next came Britain with ¥28,000,000, Manchoukuo with ¥25,000,000 and China with ¥11,000,000. The Straits Settlements and Hong-Kong each took ¥10,000,000.

The list of decreased export of Japan during 1936 was headed by British India which imported ¥17,000,000 less than the preceding year. The share of Egypt in the decreased exports amounted to ¥12,000,000 which was ¥2,000,000 less than the share of the Dutch Indies. All these lands placed Japanese exports under restrictions.

To return to the subject of increased exports, it must be noted that the United States imported more Japanese goods during 1936 because of the increased business activities there which were brought about by various factors including the higher prices of agricultural products, enormous payments of ex-servicemen's pensions, and inflated national expenditure. With reference to Manchoukuo, it may be noted that the demand there for Japanese cotton cloth, iron manufactures and machinery, increased in return for Japanese investments. The exports to the Kwantung Leased Territory increased on account of the boom in that land as an entrepôt to Manchoukuo and China and also as an area of expansion for the chemical industry.

The increase in the imports of Japan during the year under review was the most remarkable in the case of imports from British India which increased by ¥66,00,000, raw cotton accounting for ¥56,000,000. It is interesting to note that the Brazilian share in the increased imports of Japan amounted to as much as ¥43,000,000, which is to be attributed chiefly to the activities displayed by the Japanese mission to Brazil in connection with the recovery of the frozen export credits.

The increased amount of imports from the United States was ¥38,000,000, including ¥22,000,000 in mineral oils, ¥9,000,000 in pulp and ¥4,000,000 each in motor-car parts and timber. The exports of the Dutch Indies to this country increased by ¥35,000,000, including ¥7,000,000 in mineral oils, ¥5,000,000 in unrefined sugar and ¥11,000,000 in raw rubber, which greatly improved the conditions of the trade of the Dutch Indies with Japan in favour of the former.

Detailed figures of the foreign trade of Japan during 1936 compared with the preceding year are tabulated as follows (the figures being in units of ¥1,000) :

Japan's Trade in 1936

	Exports		Imports	
	1936	1935	1936	1935
Asia	1,370,970	1,304,433	1,060,152	869,871
Manchoukuo	150,859	126,045	205,567	191,005
Kwantung Leased Territory	347,165	300,269	33,848	25,517
China	159,690	148,788	154,838	133,818
Russian Asia	22,992	26,181	6,808	3,401
Hong-kong	58,445	49,732	3,282	2,836
Siam	43,028	40,258	8,756	5,457
Straits Settlements	58,770	48,536	41,174	40,648
British India	259,107	275,637	372,009	305,646
Iraq	19,019	22,073	2,882	1,258
Philippines	51,840	48,058	36,266	23,948
Dutch Indies	129,495	143,041	113,546	78,186
Europe	307,718	262,705	330,123	352,276
England	147,309	119,458	72,941	82,160
France	43,475	42,468	19,898	19,798
Germany	35,054	26,766	115,499	120,828
Belgium	16,230	15,393	16,019	24,562
Sweden	8,820	6,784	23,109	23,074
North America	608,857	543,526	920,784	862,183
United States	594,252	535,515	847,490	809,644
Canada	14,553	7,979	73,179	52,531
Central America	41,240	36,026	21,791	8,033
South America	68,761	73,361	112,190	42,908
Argentine	22,712	28,601	29,989	16,371
Africa	197,702	183,527	108,143	69,186

	Exports		Imports	
	1936	1935	1936	1935
Egypt	40,907	53,800	45,736	51,305
Canea, Uganda & Tanganyika	30,602	25,083	29,865	2,955
South Africa	41,534	32,769	22,561	4,761
Oceania	97,727	95,492	210,498	248,916
Australia	68,763	74,793	181,914	235,128

There is a growing demand for "importing in return for exporting," but technically it is rather difficult to maintain a balance in value between the exchangeable merchandise of different nations. Following is a table showing the balance of trade between Japan proper and various countries :

Balance of Trade (In yen)

	1936	1935
Kwantung Leased Territory	313,400,000	274,800,000
England	74,400,000	37,300,000
Hong-Kong	55,100,000	46,900,000
Siam	34,200,000	34,800,000
France	23,600,000	22,700,000
French Morocco	19,600,000	18,200,000
South Africa	18,900,000	28,000,000
Straits Settlements	17,600,000	7,900,000
Russian Asia	16,200,000	22,800,000
Iraq	16,100,000	20,800,000
Dutch Indies	16,000,000	64,800,000
Philippines	15,500,000	24,200,000
United States	*253,200,000	*274,100,000
Australia	*113,100,000	*160,300,000
British India	*112,100,000	*30,000,000
Germany	*80,400,000	*94,000,000
Canada	*58,600,000	*44,500,000
Manchoukuo	*54,700,000	*65,000,000
Brazil	*38,500,000	*1,900,000
British Malaya	*36,700,000	*26,100,000
French Indo-China	*15,500,000	*11,000,000

Note:—All the above figures represent an increase of imports over exports except those marked with* which show an increase of exports over imports.

It is to be noted that the most unfavourable balance has hitherto been recorded in the trade of this country with the United States.

Trade in 1937 With reference to exports, encouraging signs are found in various factors such as the increased purchasing power of the agricultural villages, the activities in the automobile industry, the increase in national expenditure, particularly the increased expenses for national defence, and the resultant activity in business in the United States, the largest crops in 30 years which were recorded in China in 1936, and the increased income promised to farmers by the higher prices of agricultural products. Further, there is an increasing demand for rubber and other products of tropical countries, which, coupled with the upward trend in the prices of materials due to the armament race, also serves to give rise to an expectation of active business. All these combine to promise an increase in the exports of this country.

What deserves more attention than the promised increase in exports, however, is the fact that the imports of this coutry will inevitably increase, not only as a result of the increased exports but also in line with armament expansion.

Practical returns for the first quarter have shown an increase in value in both directions over the corresponding 1936 period. Exports were ¥734 million, or 21% more, and imports ¥1,057 million, or 28.6% more than in the first quarter of 1936. The import balance of trade at ¥323 million was 50.1% larger than for the same quarter a year previous. Much the same trend is discernible in the trade of Japan proper for which, compared with the corresponding period of 1936, the first quarter's exports increased by 20% at ¥701 million and imports gained by 30.3% at ¥1,007 million, leaving an imports surplus of ¥306 million, a rise of 62.4%. The figures show that imports increased for Japan proper at a much faster pace than for the possessions.

A combination of factors was responsible for the increase in foreign trade value. They were a raise in unit values of the commodities of export trade and the fact that the worst in trade obstruction tactics had been reached in many overseas outlets. For imports, as in the case of exports, there was a rise in unit values of numerous industrial raw materials, and in addition there was an accelerated inflow anticipating far distant needs.

VALUE OF EXPORTS AND IMPORTS
(Japan Proper and Karafuto)

Year	Exports	Imports	Total	Excess of Imports over Exports
		(In ¥1,000)		
1897	163,135	219,300	382,435	56,165
1898	165,753	277,502	443,255	111,748
1899	214,929	220,401	435,331	5,472
1900	204,429	287,261	491,691	82,831
1901	252,349	255,816	508,166	3,467
1902	258,303	271,731	530,034	13,428
1903	289,502	317,135	606,637	27,633
1904	319,260	371,360	690,621	52,099
1905	321,533	488,538	810,071	167,004
1906	423,754	418,784	842,539	4,970 (Export exc.)
1907	432,412	494,467	926,880	62,054
1908	378,245	436,257	814,503	58,011
1909	413,112	394,198	807,311	18,913 (Export exc.)
1910	458,428	464,233	922,662	5,804
1911	447,433	513,805	961,239	66,371
1912	526,981	618,992	1,145,974	92,010
1913	632,460	729,431	1,361,891	96,971
1914	591,101	595,735	1,186,837	4,634
1915	708,306	532,449	1,240,756	175,857 (Export exc.)
1916	1,127,468	756,427	1,883,896	371,040 (Export exc.)
1917	1,603,005	1,035,811	2,638,816	567,139 (Export exc.)
1918	1,962,100	1,668,143	3,630,244	293,956 (Export exc.)
1919	2,098,872	2,173,459	4,272,332	74,587
1920	1,948,394	2,336,174	4,284,569	387,780
1921	1,252,837	1,614,154	2,866,992	361,317
1922	1,637,451	1,890,308	3,527,760	252,856
1923	1,447,750	1,982,230	3,429,981	534,479
1924	1,807,034	2,453,402	4,260,437	646,367
1925	2,305,589	2,572,657	4,878,247	267,068
1926	2,004,727	2,377,484	4,422,212	332,756
1927	1,992,317	2,179,153	4,171,471	186,836
1928	1,971,955	2,196,314	4,168,270	224,359
1929	2,148,618	2,216,240	4,364,858	67,621
1930	1,469,852	1,546,070	3,015,923	76,218
1931	1,146,981	1,235,675	2,382,656	88,693
1932	1,409,992	1,431,461	2,841,453	21,469
1933	1,861,045	1,917,219	3,778,266	56,174
1934	2,171,924	2,282,601	4,454,526	110,677
1935	2,499,072	2,472,235	4,971,307	26,837 (Export exc.)
1936	2,692,976	2,763,681	5,456,657	70,705

TOTAL VALUE OF EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF GOLD AND SILVER BULLION AND SPECIE

	Exports	Imports	Excess of Exports over Imports	Excess of Imports over Exports
		(In ¥1,000)		
1897	19,219	81,466	—	62,247
1898	86,987	42,563	44,237	—
1899	11,178	20,163	—	8,985
1900	56,707	11,517	45,189	—
1901	14,049	10,960	3,088	—
1902	2,028	32,161	—	30,132
1903	19,001	27,807	—	8,806
1904	107,795	33,946	73,849	—
1905	19,354	31,506	—	15,152
1906	25,784	47,211	—	21,426
1907	18,759	8,256	10,503	—
1908	3,772	17,544	—	13,772
1909	6,584	79,587	—	73,003
1910	25,175	17,671	7,504	—
1911	24,398	6,168	18,230	—
1912	28,325	11,544	16,781	—
1913	27,093	1,021	26,072	—
1914	29,649	9,107	20,542	—
1915	44,566	24,296	20,270	—
1916	28,079	101,029	—	72,950
1917	153,736	392,224	238,488	—
1918	937	5,016	—	4,079
1919	5,053	327,476	322,423	—
1920	3,897	404,726	400,829	—
1921	—	138,621	—	138,621
1922	2,180	1,672	508	—
1923	5,465	196	5,269	—
1924	6	4,109	—	4,103
1925	22,305	173	22,132	—
1926	35,897	1,628	34,269	—
1927	49,680	8,515	41,165	—
1928	3,436	2,696	740	—
1929	3,490	613	2,877	—
1930	311,007	9,686	301,321	—
1931	421,400	11,177	410,223	—
1932	121,378	140	121,238	—
1933	28,608	125	28,483	—
1934	13,924	331	13,594	—
1935	225,405	142	225,263	—
1936	36,021	915	35,106	—

RATE OF TRADE EXPANSION OF JAPAN PROPER IN THE PAST 5 YEARS

	Export Amount in ¥1,000	Rate of Increase as compared with the Previous Year	Imports Amount in ¥1,000	Rate of Increase as Compared with the Previous Year	Excess of Imports (−) or Exports (+)
1932	1,409,992	23%	1,431,461	16%	(−) 21,469
1933	1,861,046	32	1,917,220	34	(−) 56,174
1934	2,171,925	17	2,282,602	19	(−) 110,677
1935	2,499,073	15	2,472,236	9	(+) 26,837
1936	2,692,976	7.5	2,763,681	11.8	(−) 70,705

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF THE EMPIRE IN 1936

(In ¥1,000)

	Exports Amount	Comparison with the Previous year	Imports Amount	Comparison with the Previous year
Japan Proper	2,692,976	+193,903	2,763,681	+291,445
Chosen	75,516	+ 10,614	112,861	+ 12,768
Taiwan	29,054	— 7,490	48,854	+ 3,875
South Seas	304	— 2,328	2,629	+ 2,028
Total	2,797,850	+194,699	2,928,025	+310,116
		Gold and Silver		
Japan Proper	36,021	—189,384	915	+ 773
Chosen	2,108	+ 2,097	7,221	— 62,150
Taiwan	54	— 1,871	1,582	— 9,581
Total	38,183	—189,158	9,718	— 70,958

Important Commodities

(Japan Proper)

Exports	Amount in Yen	Compared with the Previous Year	
Foodstuffs total	203,707,000	in.	6,597,000
Rice and paddy	2,367,000	de.	2,859,000
Beans and peas	7,060,000	in.	338,000
Aquatic products	22,216,000	in.	1,481,000
Other raw food stuffs	18,362,000	de.	756,000
Wheat flour	17,622,000	de.	16,078,000
Tea	13,130,000	in.	1,712,000
Sugar	20,977,000	in.	3,400,000
Comestibles in tin and bottle	71,077,000	in.	13,947,000
Other manufactured foods	30,896,000	in.	5,413,000
Raw materials total	126,585,000	in.	16,122,000
Dried plants for insecticides	3,207,000	de.	3,193,000
Coal	10,356,000	in.	635,000
Lumber	24,703,000	in.	1,521,090
Others	88,319,000	in.	17,159,000
Manufactured materials total	716,366,000	in.	43,953,000
Vegetable oils and waxes	35,496,000	in.	2,445,000
Raw silk	392,809,000	in.	5,777,000
Cotton yarns	38,345,000	in.	2,472,000
Rayon	29,173,000	in.	6,320,000
Iron bars, etc.	76,437,000	in.	10,601,000
Copper	9,860,000	de.	2,398,000
Brass	6,679,000	de.	1,824,000
Others	127,567,000	in.	20,560,000
Manufactured goods total	1,563,439,000	in.	112,109,000
Silk tissues	68,027,000	de.	9,417,000
Rayon tissues	149,170,000	in.	20,910,000
Cotton tissues	483,591,000	de.	12,506,000
Woollen tissues	45,956,000	in.	13,555,000
Knitted tissues	49,988,000	de.	278,000
Hats	19,736,000	in.	3,452,000
Buttons	11,635,000	in.	1,493,000
Papers	27,545,000	in.	4,460,000
Cement	8,002,000	de.	80,000
Potteries	43,192,000	in.	457,000
Glass and manufactures	25,627,000	in.	2,290,000
Iron manufactures	40,275,000	in.	2,771,000
Rubber tyres	9,939,000	de.	7,000
Machines	82,094,000	in.	18,198,000

Exports	Amount in Yen	Compared with the Previous year
Toys	36,459,000	in. 2,607,000
Others	462,243,000	in. 64,204,000
Miscellaneous	31,392,000	in. 2,395,000
Production in Japan proper	2,641,489,000	in. 181,176,000
Re-exports	51,487,000	in. 12,727,000
Grand total of exports	2,692,976,000	in. 193,903,000
,, imports		
Foodstuffs total	231,164,000	in. 38,559,000
Rice and paddy	5,098,000	in. 1,749,000
Wheat	33,651,000	de. 9,548,000
Beans and peas	82,601,000	in. 10,952,000
Other raw foodstuffs	47,417,000	in. 18,118,000
Sugar	20,928,000	in. 8,227,000
Beef	8,401,000	in. 2,286,000
Others	33,068,000	in. 6,775,000
Raw materials total	1,737,716,000	in. 230,096,000
Materials for oils	44,873,000	in. 1,785,000
Crude oil and heavy oil	129,688,000	in. 22,862,000
India rubber	72,957,000	in. 21,321,000
Sulphate of ammonium	33,930,000	in. 12,861,000
Phosphorous rock	22,393,000	in. 2,333,000
Oil cakes	35,790,000	de. 2,888,000
Cotton, ginned	850,452,000	in. 136,190,000
Wool	200,898,000	in. 9,137,000
Coal	50,887,000	in. 1,917,000
Ores	51,151,000	in. 6,609,000
Lumber	55,548,000	in. 5,773,000
Wheat bran	8,724,000	in. 1,236,000
Others	180,425,000	in. 10,960,000
Manufactured materials total	476,566,000	in. 7,950,000
Leather	24,386,000	in. 3,030,000
Synthetic colours	11,404,000	in. 2,065,000
Pulp for paper making	67,107,000	in. 12,006,000
Iron, pig, plater, etc.	192,040,000	de. 15,119,000
Aluminium	13,229,000	de. 5,133,000
Lead	27,189,000	in. 6,699,000
Copper	36,221,000	de. 1,738,000
Tin	15,097,000	de. 504,000
Others	89,893,000	in. 6,644,000
Manufactured goods total	294,258,000	in. 7,966,000
Gasoline	37,753,000	in. 6,802,000
Automobiles and parts	37,036,000	in. 4,447,000
Machines	91,184,000	de. 13,824,000
Others	128,285,000	in. 10,541,000
Miscellaneous	13,642,000	in. 3,135,000
Foreign Praduction	2,753,346,000	in. 287,706,000
Re-imports	10,335,000	in. 3,739,000
Grand total of imports	2,763,681,000	in. 291,445,000
Excess of imports over exports	70,705,000	—

VALUE OF CHIEF COMMODITIES EXPORTED TO VARIOUS COUNTRIES

Japan Proper and Karafuto

(In ¥ 1,000)

	1934	1935	1936		1934	1935	1936
Cotton tissues	492,351	496,097	483,591	Kwantung L. T.	19,232	15,211	28,331
British India	66,815	85,182	72,517	Egypt	46,834	31,683	20,525
Dutch East Indies	82,829	66,578	55,391	Canea, Uganda and Tanganyika	15,601	15,956	18,724
Manchoukuo	40,238	35,733	47,221				

	1934	1935	1936
Hong-Kong	7,311	9,802	15,102
Argentine	13,956	20,126	14,780
Australia	14,784	17,176	13,986
U. S. A.	3,763	8,184	13,780
Siam	10,818	13,463	13,620
French Molucca	12,045	10,316	11,786
Iraq	11,432	13,609	10,449
Aden	7,524	10,110	9,520
Straits Settlements	17,395	8,494	9,188
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	7,293	9,671	9,004
Syria	7,449	7,205	8,344
China	13,029	11,912	7,861
Philippine Islands	13,206	14,492	7,680
Union of South Africa	4,458	6,341	7,358
Chili	6,073	5,191	6,027
Venezuela	1,021	2,031	5,376
Germany	1,248	1,362	4,086
Turky	1,393	3,132	4,074
France	494	867	3,302
Great Britain	751	2,286	2,985
New Zealand	742	1,291	2,838
Belgium	1,407	3,186	2,662
Hondurus	621	1,253	2,483
French Somali Coast	3,429	2,619	2,424
Palestine	2,284	3,107	4,414
Dominica	—	2,820	2,401
Mozambique	2,333	3,509	2,290
Arabia	—	3,348	2,045
Iran	—	7,934	1,941
Uruguay	2,071	846	1,930
Sweden	804	1,415	1,831
Portorico	—	694	1,701
Ceylon	7,318	971	1,681
Norway	397	1,110	1,416
Costarica	—	701	1,321
Hyde	6,934	2,822	1,245
Ecuador	—	2,535	1,146
Nigeria	1,176	1,095	1,011
Raw Silk	286,794	387,032	392,809
U. S. A.	239,568	328,911	333,949
Great Britain	14,237	21,451	23,628
France	20,334	23,765	21,772
Australia	4,017	4,233	5,231
British India	1,789	5,534	3,872
Canada	411	70	823
Rayon tissues	113,484	128,260	149,170
British India	22,422	22,455	26,221
Kwantung L. T.	7,532	11,158	21,494
Australia	16,937	22,306	11,415
Dutch East Indies	14,068	12,684	11,633
Philippine Islands	1,956	4,951	8,674
Hong-Kong	930	4,239	7,509
Union of South Africa	6,250	5,149	5,838
Uruguay	3,688	3,909	5,107
Siam	2,339	3,768	4,440
New Zealand	1,480	2,682	4,151
Egypt	8,076	5,449	2,941
Straits Settlements	3,542	1,844	2,848
Great Britain	961	717	912

	1934	1935	1936
Canea, Uganda and Tanganyika	607	765	851
Manchoukuo	736	825	842
Mozambique	876	622	795
Canada	158	133	725
U. S. A.	282	264	612
France	368	430	495
China	73	53	492
Machines and accessories	57,777	63,856	82,054
Kwantung L. T.	39,429	34,779	41,166
China	9,691	15,310	16,936
Asiatic Russia	1,129	1,106	8,042
Manchoukuo	3,337	5,607	6,370
British India	2,273	3,071	2,969
Dutch East Indies	427	803	968
Philippine Islands	269	389	505
Iron	53,029	65,836	76,420
Kwantung L. T.	38,853	36,747	26,023
China	4,957	7,498	13,870
Dutch East Indies	1,653	3,626	5,625
Siam	1,114	3,094	4,941
British India	1,378	3,126	4,445
Straits Settlements	619	1,295	3,823
Manchoukuo	1,842	2,562	3,320
Asiatic Russia	330	2,019	1,457
Hong-Kong	299	760	1,163
Comestibles in tin and bottle	50,304	57,130	71,077
Great Britain	24,712	20,488	32,384
U. S. A.	11,182	16,813	15,458
France	1,806	2,202	2,471
Belgium	1,272	2,509	2,465
Kwantung L. T.	1,198	1,528	1,916
Hawaii	829	951	1,092
Netherlands	490	911	1,040
Australia	797	881	946
Manchoukuo	326	414	670
Germany	271	475	551
Silk tissues	77,488	77,444	68,027
British India	20,087	18,074	13,203
Great Britain	10,588	12,063	8,306
U. S. A.	5,258	6,778	7,544
Australia	8,840	6,691	4,076
Union of South Africa	4,651	4,008	4,005
Straits Settlements	3,396	3,105	3,613
Kwantung L.T.	2,678	3,327	3,474
Egypt	3,601	2,559	2,333
France	2,373	1,666	1,443
Argentine	1,369	1,310	1,142
Dutch East Indies	1,014	1,362	1,089
Germany	706	868	851
Hong-Kong	425	724	851
Manchoukuo	404	824	681
New Zealand	730	755	651
French Indo China	317	741	567
Netherlands	687	1,447	687
Italy	439	500	369
Knitted goods	47,618	50,266	49,988
U. S. A.	1,514	3,871	6,784
Philippine Islands	3,432	4,734	5,475
Great Britain	7,672	7,345	5,206

	1934	1935	1936
Dutch East Indies	4,339	4,118	4,426
British India	8,350	7,510	4,256
Union of South Africa	1,884	1,701	2,711
Manchoukuo	899	1,034	1,813
Kwantung L. T.	1,014	1,300	1,600
Straits Settlements	1,321	1,441	1,496
Egypt	3,030	1,698	3,030
Canea, Uganda and Tanganyika	585	1,011	906
Mozambique	756	1,123	892
Hong-Kong	468	634	564
Woollen tissues	29,849	32,401	45,956
Kwantung L. T.	8,281	8,729	13,187
British India	8,219	4,921	5,254
Egypt	2,835	2,278	4,051
China	2,975	3,043	3,616
Manchoukuo	1,540	1,397	1,052
Dutch East Indies	1,586	1,213	333
Potteries and Porcelains	41,877	42,735	43,192
U. S. A.	14,314	15,776	15,530
British India	3,200	3,529	3,691
Dutch East Indies	3,169	2,120	2,364
Australia	2,331	2,805	2,291
Canada	1,508	1,458	2,025
Kwantung L. T.	1,768	1,794	1,641
Manchoukuo	1,239	1,180	1,363
Great Britain	1,161	1,187	1,275
Union of South Africa	904	849	1,144
Philippine Islands	579	919	1,135
China	1,388	1,209	1,066
Netherlands	761	499	608
Argentine	628	767	595
Straits Settlements	1,290	764	511
Egypt	627	489	495
Hong-Kong	375	494	480
Bragil	554	672	461
New Zealand	363	371	443
Iron manufactures	35,277	37,504	40,302
Kwantung L. T.	10,108	8,394	8,718
British India	4,985	5,466	4,309
Dutch East Indies	5,055	3,719	4,181
China	2,012	2,282	2,967
Manchoukuo	1,883	2,562	2,699
Straits Settlements	2,246	1,744	2,154
Philippine Islands	928	1,582	2,098
Siam	1,610	2,113	2,045
Union of South Africa	628	614	697
Hong-Kong	508	712	692
Canea, Uganda and Tanganyika	404	562	544
Mozambique	367	375	468
Australia	352	454	460
Cotton yarn	23,485	35,873	38,345
British India	11,112	20,093	18,051
Manchoukuo	3,632	4,628	6,391
Dutch East Indies	1,695	4,503	5,489
Hong-Kong	133	944	1,840
Philippine Islands	340	717	1,259
Siam	274	968	994
Kwantung Province	513	540	447
Australia	956	418	391
Vegetable oils	12,291	23,051	27,308
U. S. A.	8,860	27,473	32,511
Great Britain	891	1,196	1,018
Germany	636	487	701
France	272	250	386
Toys	30,386	33,852	36,459
U. S. A.	9,604	11,494	13,689
Great Britain	4,605	4,877	5,916
British India	3,063	2,751	2,784
Australia	1,766	2,010	2,137
Canada	627	758	1,081
Netherlands	1,184	1,068	982
Dutch East Indies	1,046	851	959
Union of South Africa	866	645	891
Egypt	349	449	644
Straits Settlements	642	501	643
China	665	647	507
Philippine Islands	281	354	435
Argentine	192	535	425
New Zealand	292	345	419
Rayon yarn	22,400	22,853	29,173
Kwantung L. T.	8,581	5,626	8,840
British India	8,367	7,593	8,747
Mexico	1,563	1,686	2,332
China	905	2,293	2,002
Australia	45	1,181	1,223
Papers	20,650	23,085	27,545
Kwantung L. T.	6,851	7,158	9,699
China	6,153	6,572	7,413
Manchoukuo	1,934	2,532	3,008
Hong-Kong	1,251	1,669	1,213
U. S. A.	636	845	1,116
British India	750	1,107	1,025
Dutch East Indies	514	747	916
Siam	741	512	565
Great Britain	323	409	515
Australia	67	205	477
Glass and manufactures	19,454	23,337	25,627
British India	5,474	6,226	5,817
U. S. A.	1,816	2,309	3,059
Dutch East Indies	1,932	1,983	2,206
Philippine Islands	881	1,060	1,330
China	1,191	1,389	1,319
Australia	832	1,048	1,114
Straits Settlements	1,042	939	1,087
Union of South Africa	757	785	831
Manchoukuo	517	698	822
Kwantung L.T.	509	637	799
Siam	567	712	728
Great Britain	357	511	483
Hong-Kong	318	445	407
Timber	23,915	23,182	24,703
Great Britain	5,089	5,629	8,301
Kwantung L. T.	4,142	4,746	3,856
China	2,704	2,987	2,460
Manchoukuo	2,355	1,096	1,313
British India	1,060	1,199	1,123
Dutch East Indies	1,072	879	1,082
Union of South Africa	971	816	1,016
Belgium	537	652	596

	1934	1935	1936
U. S. A.	387	814	521
Straits Settlements	1,031	519	469
Netherlands	253	322	462
Aquatic products	16,473	20,735	22,216
China	4,432	5,985	7,219
Kwantung L. T.	2,263	3,105	4,402
U. S. A.	1,713	2,665	2,811
Straits Settlements	2,640	2,208	2,459
Hong-Kong	1,792	3,968	2,436
Hawaii	487	558	689
Philippine Islands	574	532	634
Refined sugar	13,532	17,577	20,977
Kwantung L. T.	4,781	5,199	13,226
China	6,990	9,763	5,826
Manchoukuo	1,084	1,523	1,261
Hats and caps	1,084	16,284	19,736
U. S. A.	4,521	3,507	5,233
China	968	721	1,642
Great Britain	929	975	1,272
British India	1,587	1,338	1,247
Union of South Africa	217	533	913
Manchoukuo	803	935	786
Kwantung L. T.	505	562	560
Dutch East Indies	903	867	462
Hong-Kong	258	228	386
Lamps and accessories	15,696	16,747	18,587
U. S. A.	3,160	2,631	4,931
Great Britain	2,132	1,441	2,459
British India	1,292	1,448	1,148
Dutch East Indies	1,337	1,191	1,122
Kwantung L. T.	1,154	1,622	1,116
Straits Settlements	470	519	589
Australia	560	652	571
China	456	565	502
Philippine Islands	350	458	435
Hong-Kong	273	312	428
Wheat flour	28,452	33,700	17,622
Kwantung L. T.	18,558	16,314	8,832
Manchoukuo	9,083	14,450	6,013
Philippine Islands	387	1,116	934
China	109	223	620
Tea	9,557	11,419	13,130
U. S. A.	4,629	4,481	5,549
Canada	876	579	1,097
British India	460	424	588
U. S. S. R.	1,627	1,583	—
Clothing and accessories	10,086	11,924	11,853
British India	3,266	3,764	3,202
U. S. A.	1,664	1,686	2,249
Great Britain	1,026	1,336	695
Australia	354	423	493
Buttons	9,648	10,142	11,635
Great Britain	1,796	1,624	2,566
British India	1,303	1,263	1,116
U. S. A.	215	300	818
Netherlands	392	490	677
Australia	367	521	596
China	435	393	564
Germany	371	297	415
Belgium	214	302	414
Dutch East Indies	413	432	352
Argentine	488	479	306
Coal	10,376	9,721	10,356
Hong-Kong	3,638	4,079	4,023
Straits Settlements	2,503	2,320	2,806
Philippine Islands	1,447	1,683	2,448
China	2,015	1,199	828
Fish and whale oils	3,306	6,893	10,180
Germany	2,589	2,589	3,931
Netherlands	183	873	1,211
Great Britain	433	851	922
U. S. A.	154	285	864
Kwantung L. T.	303	418	450
Gum tyres	9,995	9,946	9,939
China	1,876	1,739	2,010
Kwantung L. T.	1,024	1,060	1,601
Dutch East Indies	3,323	2,980	1,449
British India	1,048	1,033	1,206
Straits Settlements	1,202	955	1,038
Manchoukuo	207	399	478
Hongkong	147	228	373
Cement	8,038	8,082	8,002
Kwantung L. T.	4,120	2,001	1,874
Straits Settlements	765	959	995
Dutch East India	667	549	607
Hong-Kong	669	716	581
China	264	238	251
Beans	9,051	6,722	7,060
Great Britain	6,223	4,231	4,463
U. S. A.	326	199	1,046
Germany	525	1,146	589
Cotton blankets	5,380	7,452	6,908
British India	853	1,390	1,894
Siam	1,175	1,935	1,087
Manchoukuo	81	538	693
Canea, Uganda and Tanganyika	200	179	552
Cotton towels	7,216	6,477	6,830
Union of South Africa	315	437	644
British India	1,101	771	563
Dutch East indies	844	502	536
Australia	720	526	496
Siam	425	552	444
Straits Settlements	476	337	418
Brass	7,817	8,503	6,679
British India	4,919	5,505	2,926
China	1,157	1,292	1,511
Hong-Kong	1,015	870	1,468
Kwantung L. T.	345	432	349
Beer	5,535	5,871	5,912
Kwantung L. T.	2,189	2,011	1,750
Manchoukuo	993	1,196	1,158
British India	528	639	650
China	587	545	555
Siam	327	253	290
Plaits for hat making	8,125	4,615	5,798
U. S. A.	4,947	1,833	3,593
Great Britain	1,064	976	624
France	452	375	474
Australia	396	327	220
Germany	280	361	220
Brushes	5,246	5,117	5,633

	1934	1935	1936
U. S. A.	1,808	1,663	2,063
Great Britain	1,038	722	744
Netherlands	122	194	238
Isinglass	3,215	4,262	5,574
U. S. A.	480	542	998
Great Britain	349	572	768
France	215	558	739
Germany	538	835	542
Dutch East Indies	648	366	441
Menthol	4,557	5,401	4,986
U. S. A.	2,575	3,139	2,406
France	784	804	700
Straits Settlements	91	172	462
British India	261	730	416
Germany	46	72	273
Camphor	4,603	5,039	4,843
U. S. A.	1,716	1,552	1,736
British India	1,228	1,632	1,415
France	407	405	350
Soap	3,541	3,981	4,246
Manchoukuo	782	920	1,300
Kwantung L. T.	680	1,038	1,138
China	346	528	535
British India	470	239	237
Silk handkerchief	4,308	3,953	4,192

	1934	1935	1936
U. S. A.	623	864	1,194
British India	1,370	840	835
Great Britain	544	646	705
Insecticide	7,447	6,400	3,207
U. S. A.	6,791	5,809	2,885
Waste cotton and silk	1,822	2,569	3,164
U. S. A.	78	393	699
Italy	541	428	471
France	892	449	284
Peppermint oil	1,838	2,282	2,963
France	505	689	977
Germany	543	702	919
Great Britain	550	564	532
Straits Settlements	37	89	253
Umbrellas	1,365	2,073	2,633
Union of South Africa	135	219	167
Siam	49	105	117
Rice and paddy	8,420	5,225	2,367
Hawaii	142	245	959
Canada	1,195	493	842
Kwantung L. T.	503	287	215
Matches	2,929	3,209	2,174
Hong-Kong	955	1,566	701
Straits Settlements	402	501	450
Kwantung L. T.	69	112	189

VALUE OF CHIEF COMMODITIES IMPORTED FROM VARIOUS COUNTRIES

Japan Proper and Karafuto

(In ¥ 1,000)

	1934	1935	1936
Cotton and ginned cotton	731,425	714,262	850,452
U. S. A.	400,919	371,952	372,415
British India	252,435	259,037	315,061
Egypt	39,787	43,009	36,417
Canea, Uganda and Tanganyika	13,235	677	27,500
China	15,693	20,705	22,778
Turkey	1,928	646	2,439
Dutch East Indies	578	968	701
Wool	186,455	191,761	200,898
Australia	159,241	182,007	147,493
New Zealand	9,904	4,007	18,316
Union of South Africa	5,781	1,872	17,389
Argentine	7,553	612	6,562
Chili	934	875	1,744
Great Britain	905	756	1,190
China	341	95	611
Manchoukuo	43	15	269
Iron	171,563	207,159	192,040
Pig iron	26,528	41,180	42,064
Manchoukuo	18,961	18,812	14,659
British India	7,292	12,728	14,570
Great Britain	110	195	220
Rails and finish plates	422	1,176	2,882
U. S. A.	363	991	2,826

	1934	1935	1936
Others	144,613	164,803	147,093
U. S. A.	67,467	87,901	75,200
Germany	23,593	18,692	12,120
British India	4,761	4,859	7,568
Belgium	11,940	16,903	7,447
Great Britain	11,491	11,535	7,100
Sweden	4,702	5,411	3,479
Dutch East Indies	1,551	2,280	4,305
Austria	2,561	2,989	3,031
Australia	2,243	2,844	3,017
Canada	1,159	851	1,889
France	2,281	1,912	1,203
Mineral oils	124,027	152,647	182,769
Crude and heavy oils	82,483	106,826	129,688
U. S. A.	54,475	81,336	99,348
Dutch East Indies	7,537	11,864	15,501
British Borneo	4,446	5,465	9,491
Manchoukuo	1,355	1,311	1,692
Others	33,359	37,185	42,705
Dutch East Indies	18,400	24,575	27,897
U. S. A.	10,099	6,267	9,987
Asiatic Russia	7	820	1,366
Machinery and parts	98,022	105,008	91,184
Motors and Transformers	1,309	2,332	1,805
U. S. A.	398	513	557

	1934	1935	1936
Great Britain	108	82	532
Germany	539	1,657	468
Sweden	152	32	152
Others and parts	69,713	102,676	89,379
U. S. A.	35,134	38,389	37,872
Germany	24,361	28,225	24,047
Great Britain	15,797	21,779	15,929
Sweden	5,244	5,919	4,611
Switzerland	3,499	2,699	3,701
France	3,282	2,974	1,910
Belgium	22	9	255
Italy	763	219	254
Canada	252	131	106
Beans	51,968	71,649	82,601
Manchoukuo	47,610	64,162	73,043
China	2,644	4,429	4,593
British India	1,371	2,295	4,249
Dutch East Indies	210	539	354
Kwantung L. T.	126	216	304
India rubber and gutta percha	57,338	51,636	72,957
Straits Settlements	37,818	24,125	23,662
Dutch East Indies	14,384	11,661	22,878
French Indo-China	1,080	1,771	4,075
British India	479	187	1,598
U. S. A.	39	27	143
Pulp for rayon and paper making	44,256	55,101	67,107
U. S. A.	16,321	22,812	31,758
Norway	10,464	13,201	14,621
Sweden	7,438	7,735	9,735
Canada	7,245	5,991	4,150
Czechoslovakia	127	45	391
Lumber	40,183	49,775	55,548
U. S. A.	20,967	28,227	32,184
Philippine Islands	4,301	5,095	7,330
Canada	9,470	8,258	6,217
British Borneo	1,375	2,542	4,306
Dutch East Indies	2,152	2,120	2,012
Siam	1,013	1,624	1,773
China	66	92	677
Manchoukuo	137	189	298
Asiatic Russia	624	1,410	107
Ores	27,806	44,542	51,151
China	6,804	11,839	12,015
British India	2,356	3,637	4,184
Australia	1,131	5,297	3,288
U. S. A.	1,074	677	778
Great Britain	2,144	8,728	641
Coal	47,193	48,970	50,887
Manchoukuo	30,554	30,906	26,660
China	6,818	7,610	12,426
French Indo-China	7,106	9,793	11,656
Seeds for oil making	25,257	43,088	44,873
Manchoukuo	10,456	18,709	23,508
China	11,215	17,631	14,332
Dutch East Indies	2,075	3,685	3,765
British India	78	82	1,129
Argentine	186	1,652	552
Straits Settlements	23	184	501
Hemp, jute and Manila hemp	27,462	27,795	37,301
Philippine Islands	10,914	13,513	20,680
China	10,170	7,386	7,556
British India	4,884	4,655	7,342
Dutch East Indies	109	435	546
Manchoukuo	508	645	298
Automobiles and parts	32,302	32,589	37,036
U. S. A.	31,553	31,255	34,929
Germany	105	270	810
Great Britain	402	406	674
Oil cakes	42,052	38,678	35,790
Manchoukuo	31,198	23,966	20,137
China	6,237	6,097	7,651
Kwantung L. T.	3,364	7,275	6,975
Dutch East Indies	171	486	485
British India	1,033	822	451
Sulphate of ammonium, crude	13,807	21,069	33,930
Germany	11,680	12,986	15,607
U. S. A.	0	285	6,757
Kwantung L. T.	—	395	5,718
Manchoukuo	293	5,837	4,110
Wheat	40,749	43,199	33,651
Australia	22,033	30,936	17,392
Canada	8,120	6,258	10,973
China	93	17	2,104
U. S. A.	9,870	284	495
Copper	26,171	36,444	32,873
U. S. A.	26,138	35,850	31,930
Lead	17,903	20,292	26,873
Canada	7,406	6,929	11,779
British India	3,049	4,635	3,765
U. S. A.	6,823	4,815	2,642
Australia	580	461	219
Hides and skins	16,320	21,356	24,386
China	5,472	5,126	9,177
U. S. A.	6,280	6,696	3,972
Argentine	364	1,036	1,391
Australia	907	2,295	1,124
Manchoukuo	705	1,041	926
British India	233	462	659
Great Britain	245	303	458
France	387	393	324
Straits Settlements	262	265	197
Phosphorite	16,677	20,060	22,393
Egypt	4,787	6,151	7,044
U. S. A.	3,999	4,519	5,499
Straits Settlements	2,090	1,497	3,292
Sugar	9,679	12,701	20,928
Dutch East Indies	9,658	12,576	19,767
Tin	15,317	15,581	15,082
Straits Settlements	10,913	9,895	8,676
China	2,731	3,194	3,362
Hong-Kong	1,281	2,395	2,291
Dutch East Indies	218	78	235
Aluminium	7,431	14,323	11,831
Canada	4,026	6,030	8,620
Switzerland	555	2,565	1,952
Norway	861	3,005	759
U. S. A.	0	0	489
Synthetic colours	9,147	9,339	11,404
Germany	5,980	5,717	6,983

	1934	1935	1936
U. S. A.	1,116	1,391	2,347
Switzerland	1,336	1,790	1,664
France	574	364	371
Zinc	7,228	8,503	10,997
Canada	3,420	2,814	3,836
Australia	2,293	2,729	3,439
U. S. A.	1,352	1,848	1,999
Printing paper	5,657	8,212	10,164
Canada	4,595	6,844	8,443
Great Britain	574	557	477
Sweden	45	30	326
Norway	17	267	249
U. S. A.	136	215	226
Woollen tissues	5,199	6,753	9,675
Great Britain	5,042	6,536	9,389
Germany	105	130	195
Wheat bran	8,885	7,488	8,724
China	8,712	7,088	6,376
Manchoukuo	139	263	1,733
Kwantung L. T.	28	137	616
Meats	6,877	6,115	8,401
China	5,010	4,026	6,204
Kwantung L. T.	713	513	435
Australia	277	515	406
Manchoukuo	332	167	385
Canada	115	172	182
Nitrate of soda, crude	3,494	5,423	7,158
Chili	2,273	2,777	4,398
U. S. A.	1,167	2,377	2,546
Norway	55	78	274
Leather	4,830	4,944	5,465
British India	2,763	2,519	2,346
U. S. A.	751	958	1,223
Germany	838	960	1,023
Great Britain	222	192	277
Rice and paddy	661	3,349	5,098
Siam	—	2,986	4,820
French Indo-China	333	162	212
Caustic soda, soda ash and natural soda	4,356	5,492	4,267
Great Britain	2,164	3,470	2,046
Canea, Uganda and Tanganyika	1,261	1,208	1,281
U. S. A.	473	704	803
China	276	110	135
Watches and parts	2,684	4,022	3,742
Switzerland	2,468	3,113	2,761
U. S. A.	185	364	413
Woollen yarn	1,708	1,931	1,873
Great Britain	1,669	1,922	1,864
Fats	3,380	2,340	1,644
Australia	2,588	2,201	747
China	0	19	140
U. S. A.	561	7	86

PERCENTAGE OF INCREASE OF EXPORTS BY CONTINENTS

	Actual Value (In ¥ 1,000)			Percentage of Increase as compared with the previous year		
	1934	1935	1936	1934	1935	1936
Asia	1,169,503	1,304,433	1,370,970	25	11.5	5.1
Europe	227,772	262,705	307,718	25	15.5	17.1
North America	407,614	543,527	608,857	— 19	33.3	12.0
Central America	43,295	36,027	41,241	175	— 16.7	14.4
South America	61,457	73,362	68,761	31	19.3	— 6.2
Africa	182,397	183,528	197,703	34	0.6	7.7
Oceania	79,885	95,493	97,727	28	28.4	2.3
Total	2,171,925	2,692,073	2,692,976	16.7	15.0	7.7

Important Foreign Trade Countries

Great Britian Early in the Meiji Era Great Britain, China, the United States and France were the most important countries for Japan's export trade. In the import trade Great Britain, China, France and the United States were the principal countries, in that order. With a rapid gain in the export of raw silk in 1879, the importance of export countries was changed to the United States, China, France and Great Britain, although no change was noted in their precedence as import countries. A change came over the precedence in import countries in 1893 and India became the largest exporting country to Japan, being followed by Great Britain, the United States and China in that order. This was due to the rapid growth of the Japanese spinning industry, for which Indian cotton was needed. At present Great Britain comes 6th in order of Japan's export trade and 9th in Japan's import trade. When British India is included, however, she stands next to the U.S.A. both in buying Japanese commodities and in selling her goods to Japan.

The U.S.A. America's economic condition and her financial and tariff policy have a direct bearing on Japan's export trade and domestic economy, for Japan's trade with the United States is far in excess of that with any other country. The close Japan-American trade relations trace back to the visit of Commodore Matthew Perry to Japan in the 6th year of Kaéi, 1853. In the early stage the trade volume was less than that Great Britain and France, but

in 1879 Japan's exports to that country gained to more than ¥10,000,000, and America became Japan's largest customer, a position she has since retained. In 1904 Japan's exports to America reached the ¥100,000,000 mark; in 1915 they amounted to ¥204,000,000, in 1919 to ¥828,000,000, and the record amount was ¥1,006,000,000 in 1925. In the following year the amount went off to ¥860,000,000, but this, as compared with the exports of ¥4,000,000 in 1874, was an increase by 215 times and was 40 per cent of Japan's total trade volume. Raw silk, silk textiles, refined tea, straw-braid, fancy mats and porcelain have been the principal exports from the very beginning. Imports from America increased in consonance with exports. In 1874 the value of imports was just over ¥1,000,000, but by 1905 this had advanced to ¥100,000,000, and in 1920 the amount set an all-time record of ¥873,000,000. The 1926 figure of ¥680,000,000 was 680 times the 1874 trade volume and was 26 per cent of Japan's total import value of that year. Imports from America consist of raw cotton, kerosene oil, wheat, machinery and iron. The most unique feature of the Japan-American trade is that the trade balance has been mostly in favour of Japan. In the last 65 years of trade relations the last five only, 1932 1933, 1934, 1935, 1936 have shown a continuous unfavourable balance to Japan, before that only five out of sixty were unfavourable, 1900, 1905, 1918, 1920–1921. In 1936 the total volume of Japan-American trade comprised 26.4 per cent of the total of Japan's foreign trade in that year.

China It is only natural that Japan, with its close proximity to China, should look to that country with its population of 400,000,000 persons and rich in natural resources as a market for its products and manufactures as well as for supplies of materials for its industries. The friction between this uncontrollable demand of Japan and the growing racial consciousness of the Chinese, however, brought about various political differences, and finally led to the Sino-Japanese War of 1894, the Manchurian Incident of 1931 and the Shanghai Affair of 1932. Boycotts of Japanese goods have been frequent.

Notwithstanding these political obstacles, the trade between the two countries steadily progressed and in 1925 the trade total reached the record amount of ¥701,000,000 including ¥486,000,000 in exports and ¥215,000,000 in imports, as viewed from the Japanese side. China thus became the second largest market for Japanese goods, the development of China as an important market for Japanese goods, as achieved by that time, may be illustrated by the following table :

China's Share in Japan's Foreign Trade

	Proportion of Exports to China to Total Exports	Proportion of Imports from China to Total Imports
1894	8.0	9.9
1908	16.0	11.7
1912	21.8	8.9
1916	17.1	14.4
1921	22.9	11.9
1926	20.6	10.1

A strong anti-Japanese sentiment began to sweep China about this time and trade began to fall off until it reached its climax after the northern expedition of the Nationalist armies in 1930. An illustration of these change may be obtained from the following table :

	Exports to China	Imports from China
	(In ¥)	
1926	421,861,000	239,410,000
1927	334,183,000	226,034,000
1928	373,141,000	234,556,000
1929	346,652,000	209,975,000
1930	260,825,000	161,666,000
1931	143,876,000	103,749,000

Even in 1930 when the Northern Expedition ended in success for the Nanking Government and the movement of the Chinese for their racial resuscitation was at its zenith, Asia still held an important position as a market for Japan's principal manufactures, chiefly cotton goods, consuming 42.6 per cent of Japan's total exports of this kind. In this consumption, China and the Kwantung Leased Territory and Hong-Kong shared 24.7 per cent. Furthermore, almost all the remainder consumed in other parts of Asia was handled by Chinese traders.

The Manchurian Incident, 1931, enabled Japan to get the lion's share in the foreign trade of Manchoukuo, about 71 per cent in the imports of the new State during 1935 and 51 per cent in the exports during the same year, but on the other hand, combined with the Shanghai Affair, it intensified the anti-Japanese movement in China. Increases in China's tariffs on Japanese goods were also effected in rapid succession, thus dealing a great blow to Japan's trade with China and at the same time furnishing a chance for the United States, Great Britain and Germany to recover their commercial influence of former years in that country. Details are as follows :

Imports of China

(In units of 1,000 yuan)

Origin	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936 (Jan.-Aug.)
Japan	231,256 (13.95%)	132,349 (9.71%)	126,886 (12.21%)	139,593 (15.03%)	89,753 (14.79%)
Britain	185,702 (11.20%)	154,041 (11.33%)	124,647 (12.00%)	98,232 (10.48%)	72,117 (11.89%)
America	419,375 (25.43%)	297,468 (21.86%)	271,732 (26.16%)	174,930 (18.93%)	119,107 (19.65%)
Germany	13,042 (6.75%)	108,016 (7.95%)	93,389 (8.99%)	103,385 (11.09%)	102,260 (16.86%)

Exports of China

(In units of 1,000 yuan)

Destination	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936 (Jan.-Aug.)
Japan	167,462 (21.80%)	95,807 (15.65%)	81,232 (15.16%)	82,059 (14.24%)	56,292 (12.54%)
Britain	58,556 (7.62%)	48,765 (7.96%)	49,806 (9.30%)	49,463 (8.58%)	41,482 (9.24%)
America	93,469 (12.17%)	113,146 (18.48%)	94,435 (17.63%)	136,410 (23.67%)	126,159 (28.10%)
Germany	46,479 (6.05%)	20,795 (3.40%)	19,159 (3.58%)	28,926 (5.02%)	28,870 (6.43%)

Note: The parenthesized figures indicate the proportion of each item to the total exports.

VALUE OF MERCHANDISE EXPORTED TO VARIOUS COUNTRIES

(In ¥ 1,000)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
ASIA:							
Manchoukuo	—	—	25,947	82,071	107,151	126,045	150,859
China	260,825	155,750	129,478	108,253	117,062	148,788	159,691
Kwantung	86,814	65,541	120,584	221,068	295,868	300,269	347,165
British India	129,262	110,367	192,492	205,154	258,220	275,637	259,108
Hong-Kong	55,646	36,754	18,141	23,419	33,497	49,731	58,445
Straits Settlements	26,930	19,119	25,549	46,133	63,320	48,536	58,770
Asiatic Russia	26,973	14,941	13,065	12,090	11,366	26,181	22,993
French Indo-China	2,412	1,709	2,343	3,680	2,654	4,020	—
Dutch East Indies	66,047	63,450	100,254	157,487	158,450	143,041	129,495
Philippines	28,369	20,425	22,362	24,050	36,460	48,058	51,840
Siam	9,476	4,721	8,581	18,124	28,048	40,258	43,028
Aden	6,136	4,809	8,307	7,193	9,353	13,208	13,851
Syria	—	—	—	—	11,699	12,559	13,078
Iraq	—	—	—	—	17,166	22,073	19,019
Ceylon	—	—	—	—	19,792	11,887	13,840
Others and total	704,030	505,018	677,613	930,636	1,169,503	1,304,433	1,370,970
EUROPE:							
Great Britain	60,682	51,830	59,658	87,849	109,269	119,458	147,309
France	26,302	15,774	21,358	38,736	38,813	42,467	43,475
Germany	11,106	8,102	9,098	12,411	19,677	26,766	35,054
Italy	6,120	3,204	5,660	6,167	9,579	6,988	—
Belgium	1,973	2,446	4,160	7,739	9,675	15,393	16,230
Netherlands	8,074	10,097	12,445	12,325	17,882	18,316	15,385
Russia	1,345	2,134	1,379	1,575	1,638	2,138	8,357

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Norway	911	309	465	1,608	2,828	4,482	6,172
Sweden	939	1,239	1,610	3,259	6,113	6,784	8,821
Spain	880	683	910	1,844	1,749	3,546	—
Turkey	3,949	3,790	5,964	2,431	2,194	3,241	—
Denmark	1,430	1,045	1,412	1,412	1,262	1,359	—
Greece	276	358	330	1,095	1,059	1,128	—
Portugal	69	59	344	529	572	1,062	—
Palestine	—	—	—	—	6,412	8,400	5,377
Czechoslovakia	23	55	31	26	40	78	—
Others and total	125,368	101,998	125,748	182,078	227,772	262,705	307,718
AMERICA:							
United States	506,112	425,330	445,147	492,237	398,928	535,515	594,252
Canada	17,884	13,067	8,562	6,580	8,666	7,977	14,553
Mexico	1,032	666	638	1,491	4,009	5,464	7,190
Cuba	1,248	641	962	3,328	9,986	5,047	—
Salvador	483	384	394	684	2,289	71	—
Colombia	—	—	—	—	9,005	7,832	—
Panama	376	449	551	1,110	4,250	6,150	9,546
Peru	2,234	800	841	3,899	6,879	6,961	6,156
Chile	2,471	804	286	1,475	7,459	6,647	7,426
Argentina	4,448	4,700	7,553	12,261	20,013	28,603	22,712
Brazil	958	642	1,330	2,765	3,064	5,925	8,840
Uruguay	4,114	1,150	422	2,451	6,964	5,676	7,891
Haiti	—	—	—	—	8,493	6,803	—
Venezuela	—	—	—	—	1,970	3,565	7,814
Others and total	545,069	452,392	472,229	545,710	512,367	652,786	718,859
ALL OTHERS:							
Australia	25,486	18,405	36,895	51,416	64,461	74,793	68,763
Union of South Africa	14,196	19,282	16,418	26,740	29,539	32,769	41,534
Canea, Uganda and Tanganyika	—	—	—	—	22,329	25,083	30,602
Anglo Egyptian Sudan	—	—	—	—	9,429	13,034	11,915
Mozambique	—	—	—	—	8,822	10,752	10,860
Belgian Congo	—	—	—	—	—	1,720	7,649
Nigeria	—	—	—	—	2,430	4,737	7,011
Egypt	28,997	22,829	41,876	55,607	72,988	53,800	40,907
Hawaii	6,392	5,623	6,676	6,484	5,526	7,242	9,299
New Zealand	3,226	1,966	2,993	6,452	8,587	11,304	16,740
French Morocco	—	—	—	—	19,076	18,813	20,512
Others and Total	92,671	85,460	132,973	206,618	262,282	279,021	295,430
Optional cargo	2,712	2,111	1,428	—	—	—	—
Total Exports	1,469,852	1,146,981	1,409,992	1,861,045	2,171,924	2,499,072	2,692,976

VALUE OF MERCHANDISE IMPORTED FROM VARIOUS COUNTRIES

(In ¥ 1,000)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
ASIA:							
Manchoukuo	—	—	25,999	147,897	164,211	191,005	205,567
China	161,666	145,697	102,746	113,357	119,573	133,817	154,838
Kwantung	121,405	90,165	76,719	20,161	27,279	25,517	33,848
British India	180,405	133,165	116,865	204,737	289,672	305,646	372,009
Hong-Kong	538	498	977	3,093	1,481	2,835	3,282
Straits Settlements	28,925	21,857	25,338	38,771	63,320	40,647	41,174
Asiatic Russia	37,218	30,864	31,078	31,042	32,753	3,401	6,808
French Indo-China	7,907	6,380	5,692	9,909	10,620	15,010	20,152
Dutch East Indies	59,983	46,080	40,409	55,709	63,464	78,186	113,546
Philippines	10,759	8,987	9,764	14,185	18,890	23,948	36,266

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Siam	18,843	6,792	11,198	12,255	1,540	5,457	8,757
Aden	76	22	1	10	27	364	39,125
British Malaya	—	—	—	—	—	28,495	15,717
Others and total	632,459	493,936	450,911	658,557	812,090	869,871	1,060,152
EUROPE:							
Great Britain	92,561	63,335	78,760	82,558	70,036	82,160	72,942
France	16,635	12,407	21,094	21,745	18,299	19,798	19,898
Germany	106,183	73,244	71,742	95,797	109,583	120,817	115,500
Italy	4,259	4,275	3,972	6,035	3,461	5,831	3,766
Belgium	8,024	4,726	6,133	14,693	17,226	24,562	16,019
Austria	1,423	935	1,549	2,473	3,542	4,409	4,263
Switzerland	15,231	10,396	12,105	9,185	10,925	13,455	14,000
Netherlands	2,938	2,884	3,879	3,717	3,652	5,873	4,556
Russia	2,582	3,787	1,357	5,717	8,055	14,503	14,526
Norway	5,502	3,292	5,956	11,624	14,279	19,940	17,853
Sweden	8,634	8,580	9,826	16,085	21,140	23,074	23,109
Spain	827	924	2,273	3,629	2,851	4,548	—
Turkey	54	374	139	976	1,973	1,036	4,475
Iraq	—	—	—	—	—	1,258	2,882
Finland	—	—	—	—	—	5,053	6,576
Portugal	853	873	1,303	1,515	1,448	1,474	—
Poland	5,388	4,999	1,638	947	267	1,287	3,824
Czechoslovakia	2,273	2,947	1,454	1,702	1,755	2,331	2,929
Others and total	279,773	199,768	225,261	282,812	295,623	352,276	330,123
AMERICA:							
United States	442,881	342,289	509,873	620,778	769,359	809,644	847,490
Canada	46,164	35,672	39,504	46,891	54,093	52,531	73,179
Mexico	327	90	319	188	189	6,443	18,680
Peru	253	17	41	1,553	1,822	11,414	13,000
Chile	3,100	2,942	761	2,962	3,438	4,472	9,953
Argentina	2,812	2,901	2,719	6,738	12,128	16,370	29,989
Brazil	306	452	754	1,008	3,291	4,006	47,352
Uruguay	315	686	173	317	2,630	4,494	9,528
Others and total	496,272	385,287	554,738	681,012	848,295	913,124	1,054,765
ALL OTHERS:							
Australia	94,308	113,337	134,277	204,586	197,757	235,128	181,914
Union of South Africa	1,618	1,332	2,635	4,312	8,233	4,762	22,561
Canea, Uganda and Tanganyika	—	—	—	—	15,188	2,955	29,865
Italian Somaliland	—	—	—	—	—	2,357	2,879
Society Islands	—	—	—	—	—	3,279	3,444
Egypt	16,222	13,567	19,737	26,455	46,259	51,304	45,737
New Zealand	389	1,439	1,470	2,399	11,594	6,363	21,973
Others and total	122,179	135,709	167,372	259,797	293,869	318,103	318,641
Bonded	15,387	20,973	33,180	35,039	32,723	18,861	—
Total Imports	1,546,070	1,235,675	1,431,461	1,917,219	2,282,601	2,472,235	2,763,681

CHIEF ARTICLES OF TRADE BETWEEN JAPAN AND OTHER COUNTRIES

(In ¥1,000)

Manchoukuo

From Japan	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Wheat flour	4,758	9,305	9,083	14,449	6,013
Refined Sugar	335	635	1,084	1,523	1,361
Beer	383	966	992	1,196	1,158
Cotton yarns	935	3,099	3,631	4,627	6,391
Silk and Rayon tissues	25	661	1,139	1,647	1,523

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Cotton tissues	3,263	21,626	40,253	35,733	47,221
Woollen tissues	171	1,360	1,539	1,396	1,052
Knitted goods	12	1,022	899	1,033	1,813
Paper	312	1,287	1,933	2,532	3,008
Iron	—	—	1,842	2,562	3,320
Iron manufactures	230	1,458	1,882	2,562	2,699
Machinery and parts	394	1,938	3,336	5,607	6,370
Hats and caps	6	698	803	935	786
Soap	174	651	782	919	1,300
Lumber	27	729	2,355	1,095	1,313
Potteries	87	531	1,238	1,179	1,363
Others and total	25,947	82,071	107,151	126,045	150,859
To Japan					
Beans and peas	21,076	45,342	47,609	64,162	73,043
Vegetable fibres	86	333	508	644	—
Oil-yielding seeds	1,492	9,294	10,456	18,708	23,508
Meats	42	316	332	166	385
Hides and skins	182	798	704	1,040	926
Oil cake	11,746	31,480	31,198	23,965	20,137
Coal	6,277	24,150	30,554	30,906	26,660
Pig iron	4,175	24,150	18,960	18,812	14,659
Wheat bran	85	25	139	262	1,733
Sulphate of ammonium, crude	—	—	293	5,837	4,110
Others and total	51,569	147,897	164,209	191,005	205,567

China

From Japan					
Wheat flour	6,153	3,340	109	223	620
Aquatic products	2,531	2,278	4,432	5,985	7,219
Sugar, refined	2,655	6,158	6,989	9,762	5,826
Beer	1,171	757	587	544	555
Cotton tissues	37,158	25,604	13,038	11,912	7,861
Woollen tissues	430	1,687	2,975	3,043	3,616
Paper	5,121	4,785	6,152	6,571	7,413
Rayon yarn	—	—	905	2,293	2,002
Coal	3,791	4,445	2,014	1,198	828
Glass and glass manufactures	809	1,047	1,191	1,389	1,319
Potteries	538	991	1,387	1,208	1,066
Iron	1,676	2,618	4,957	7,498	13,870
Iron manufactures	1,429	1,694	2,012	2,282	2,967
Brass	474	974	1,156	1,291	1,511
Soap	96	180	345	528	535
Machinery and parts thereof	3,848	4,951	9,691	15,310	16,936
Rubber tires	1,360	1,727	1,875	1,739	2,010
Lumber	2,362	2,702	2,704	2,987	2,460
Lamps and parts thereof	637	635	456	565	502
Hats and caps	194	507	967	721	1,642
Buttons	262	407	435	—	564
Others and total	129,478	108,253	117,062	148,788	159,691
To Japan					
Beans and peas	2,904	2,992	2,643	4,429	4,593
Oil-yielding seeds	6,873	9,477	11,215	17,631	14,332
Wheat bran	5,190	6,026	8,711	7,087	6,376
Wheat	—	—	92	—	2,104
Meats	2,548	3,964	5,009	4,026	6,204
Hides and skins	2,350	4,900	5,472	5,126	9,177
Oil cake	3,105	5,928	6,236	6,097	7,651
Caustic soda, etc.	116	376	276	110	135

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Seed cotton and ginned cotton	18,885	24,347	15,693	20,705	22,778
Vegetable fibres, excluding cotton	5,898	6,923	10,169	7,385	7,556
Coal	2,719	4,104	6,817	7,610	12,426
Ores	4,580	4,300	6,804	11,839	12,015
Tin	908	1,776	2,731	3,194	3,362
Others and total	77,175	113,357	119,562	133,817	154,838
Kwantung Leased Territory					
From Japan					
Wheat flour	9,435	21,808	18,557	16,313	8,832
Aquatic products	1,977	2,268	2,263	3,104	4,402
Sugar, refined	4,416	6,994	4,781	5,198	13,226
Beer	1,509	2,240	2,189	2,011	1,750
Comestibles in tin and bottle	942	1,447	1,197	1,528	1,916
Cotton yarns	670	614	513	539	447
Silk and Rayon tissues	1,169	3,574	10,209	14,483	24,968
Cotton tissues	16,107	18,822	19,217	15,211	28,331
Woollen tissues	2,925	5,944	8,281	8,729	13,187
Knitted goods	547	842	1,014	1,300	1,600
Paper	3,609	6,128	6,851	7,157	9,699
Cement	299	1,824	4,119	2,001	1,874
Potteries	756	1,193	1,768	1,794	1,641
Iron	8,415	27,555	38,853	36,746	26,023
Iron manufactures	2,662	6,059	10,107	8,394	8,718
Brass	143	271	1,156	—	349
Machinery and parts thereof	3,953	14,197	39,429	34,778	41,166
Rubber tires	437	1,065	1,023	1,059	1,601
Lumber	723	2,854	4,141	4,745	3,856
Lamps and parts thereof	567	1,023	1,153	1,622	1,116
Soap	486	555	679	1,037	1,138
Others and total	120,583	221,068	295,868	300,269	347,165
To Japan					
Beans and peas	16,463	102	125	—	304
Oil-yielding seeds	2,772	95	26	—	—
Oil cake	16,861	2,218	3,364	7,274	6,975
Coal	12,902	396	31	—	—
Gum	1,441	663	—	—	—
Meat	1,441	663	713	512	435
Sulphate of ammonium, crude	—	—	—	395	5,718
Others and total	76,720	20,161	27,222	25,517	—
British India					
From Japan					
Beer	694	900	528	639	650
Camphor	972	1,288	1,328	1,632	1,415
Menthol crystals	355	284	—	729	416
Cotton yarns	14,343	7,605	11,111	20,093	18,051
Rayon yarns	—	—	8,367	7,593	8,747
Silk and Rayon tissues	32,956	32,958	42,508	40,528	39,424
Raw Silk	—	—	1,789	5,534	3,872
Silk handkerchiefs	363	619	1,369	840	835
Cotton tissues	80,653	71,163	74,132	86,153	72,517
Cotton towels	877	1,005	1,110	771	563
Cotton blankets	314	314	853	1,389	1,898

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Woollen tissues	591	1,647	8,219	4,920	5,254
Knitted goods	6,698	9,628	834	7,509	4,256
Clothing and accessories	2,042	2,431	3,266	3,764	3,202
Paper	1,160	842	750	1,107	1,025
Cement	1,307	949	418	—	—
Glass and glass manufactures	4,106	5,506	5,473	6,226	5,817
Potteries	3,463	3,965	3,200	3,526	3,691
Iron	251	819	1,378	3,126	4,445
Iron manufactures	3,322	5,151	4,984	5,465	4,309
Brass	2,989	3,885	4,919	5,505	2,926
Machinery and parts	900	2,104	2,272	3,070	2,969
Toys	1,465	3,809	3,067	2,750	2,784
Lumber	1,529	1,884	1,060	1,199	1,123
Lamps and parts	909	1,233	1,219	1,448	1,148
Hats and caps	898	1,181	903	1,338	1,247
Soap	98	837	469	238	237
Umbrellas	265	669	97	—	—
Buttons	636	639	1,303	1,261	1,116
Gum tires	—	—	1,048	1,033	1,206
Others and total	192,491	205,154	258,011	278,524	259,108
To Japan					
Beans and peas	1,300	1,434	1,370	2,294	4,249
Oil-yielding seeds	781	299	78	—	1,129
Leather	1,483	1,956	2,762	2,518	2,346
Oil cake	2,048	1,184	1,032	822	451
Seed cotton and ginned cotton	91,746	168,796	252,434	259,036	315,061
Vegetable fibres, excluding cotton	3,669	5,400	4,883	4,654	7,342
Ores	1,107	1,612	2,355	3,636	4,184
Pig iron	3,027	5,802	7,292	12,728	14,570
Lead	1,866	2,011	3,048	4,634	3,765
Gum	293	364	478	187	1,598
Others and total	116,865	204,737	291,959	308,425	372,009
Hong-Kong					
From Japan					
Aquatic products	574	1,397	2,792	3,967	2,436
Cotton yarns	1,336	291	—	943	1,840
Silk and Rayon tissues	338	521	929	5,062	8,360
Cotton tissues	3,755	5,674	7,310	9,801	15,102
Iron	—	—	299	760	1,163
Iron manufactures	125	266	508	712	692
Coal	4,347	5,226	3,638	4,078	4,023
Brass	49	150	1,015	869	1,468
Cement	2,047	1,214	668	716	581
Matches	12	154	954	1,565	701
Paper	524	649	1,251	1,668	1,213
Others and total	18,041	23,419	33,497	49,731	58,445
To Japan					
Tin	673	1,738	1,280	2,395	2,291
Others and total	977	2,093	1,481	2,835	3,282
Straits Settlements					
From Japan					
Aquatic products	193	893	2,640	2,208	2,459
Silk and Rayon tissues	2,927	4,425	6,937	4,949	6,461
Glass and Glass manufactures	202	617	1,041	939	1,087

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Cotton tissues	11,229	17,607	17,394	8,494	9,188
Coal	2,431	2,183	2,503	2,319	2,806
Cement	823	597	764	958	995
Potteries	374	900	1,289	763	511
Iron	618	371	48	1,294	3,823
Iron manufactures	345	1,186	2,245	1,744	2,154
Rubber tires	233	684	1,291	954	1,038
Toys	445	490	641	501	643
Knitted goods	232	771	1,320	1,441	1,496
Lumber	274	703	1,030	518	469
Matches	119	234	401	501	450
Others and total	25,546	46,133	63,320	48,536	58,770
To Japan					
Ores	7,284	8,820	8,742	158	—
Tin	3,793	5,329	10,612	9,894	8,676
Gum	10,060	20,499	37,818	24,124	23,662
Phosphorite	—	—	2,090	1,497	3,292
Others and total	25,337	38,771	63,320	40,647	41,174

Asiatic Russia

From Japan					
Rice	457	412	483	525	—
Iron manufactures	1,497	1,183	941	601	—
Iron	—	—	330	2,019	1,457
Machinery and parts	1,179	1,328	1,129	1,105	8,042
Others and total	13,065	12,090	11,366	26,181	22,993
To Japan					
Coal	1,144	1,938	2,670	618	—
Lumber	3,531	2,597	826	1,410	107
Others and total	31,078	31,042	32,752	3,401	6,808

French Indo-China

From Japan					
Silk and Rayon tissues	787	1,018	—	741	567
Others and total	2,343	3,680	2,654	4,020	—
To Japan					
Coal	4,295	6,037	7,105	9,793	11,656
Rice	19	57	332	162	212
Others and total	5,691	9,909	10,620	15,010	20,152

Dutch East Indies

From Japan					
Isinglass	448	458	647	—	441
Beer	535	1,639	224	—	—
Cotton yarns	1,445	1,236	1,695	4,502	5,489
Silk and Rayon tissues	14,365	15,988	14,081	14,045	12,722
Cotton tissues	50,228	78,273	82,828	66,578	55,391
Cotton towels	749	894	843	502	536
Cotton blankets	369	682	892	522	—
Knitted goods	2,524	4,234	4,338	4,118	4,426
Paper	643	1,082	514	746	916
Cement	2,600	1,368	667	549	607
Potteries	2,414	3,728	3,168	2,210	2,364
Glass and glass manufactures	1,070	2,068	1,931	1,983	2,206
Iron	—	—	1,653	3,626	5,625
Iron manufactures	2,575	4,365	5,055	3,718	4,181
Rubber tires	1,223	2,498	3,323	2,980	1,449
Toys	803	1,924	1,184	850	959

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Lamps and parts	766	1,706	1,336	1,190	1,122
Lumber	894	1,264	1,071	879	1,082
Hats and caps	728	1,230	903	—	462
Soap	149	486	—	—	—
Buttons	228	461	413	—	352
Umbrellas	124	126	95	174	—
Matches	66	107	110	—	—
Others and total	100,254	157,487	158,450	143,041	129,495
To Japan					
Oil-yielding seeds	2,326	2,249	2,075	3,685	3,765
Sugar	3,133	12,786	9,678	12,575	19,767
Mineral oil, under 0.730 S.G.	353	41	317	11,863	15,501
Mineral oil, under 0.8762 S.G.	14,511	15,789	18,399	24,575	27,897
Tin	287	1,705	217	78	235
Lumber	681	1,609	2,152	2,120	2,012
Gum	4,995	7,267	14,383	11,660	22,878
Seed cotton and ginned cotton	257	269	577	967	701
Others and total	40,409	55,709	63,464	78,186	113,546

Philippine Islands

From Japan					
Silk and Rayon tissues	1,910	1,057	1,956	4,950	8,674
Cotton tissues	2,769	5,779	13,205	14,492	7,680
Cotton yarns	—	—	340	717	1,259
Knitted goods	3,744	2,670	3,431	4,733	5,475
Coal	1,568	1,651	1,447	1,683	2,448
Glass and glass manufactures	503	809	881	1,059	1,330
Potteries	635	959	—	918	1,135
Iron manufactures	469	932	927	1,581	2,098
Matches	98	136	111	—	—
Others and total	22,362	24,050	36,460	48,058	51,840
To Japan					
Vegetable fibres, excluding cotton	7,056	9,616	10,913	13,513	20,680
Lumber	—	—	4,301	5,095	7,330
Others and total	9,764	14,185	18,890	23,948	36,266

Siam

From Japan					
Cotton tissues	3,338	6,778	10,818	13,227	13,620
Rayon tissues	—	—	2,339	3,768	4,440
Cotton blankets	305	985	1,175	1,934	1,087
Iron	—	—	1,114	3,094	4,941
Iron manufactures	568	1,190	1,609	2,113	2,045
Others and total	8,581	18,128	28,048	40,258	43,028
To Japan					
Rice	10,127	10,882	—	2,985	4,820
Lumber	999	1,239	1,012	1,624	1,773
Others and total	11,197	12,255	1,540	5,457	8,757

Great Britain

From Japan					
Beans and peas	4,521	5,481	6,222	4,231	4,463
Comestibles in tin and bottle	6,157	13,136	24,711	20,488	32,384
Fish and whale oils	1,130	591	432	851	922

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Vegetable oil	769	510	890	1,196	1,018
Peppermint oil	278	672	557	564	532
Silk, raw	9,257	14,654	14,237	21,450	23,628
Silk and rayon tissues	4,761	8,726	11,548	12,779	9,218
Silk handkerchiefs	299	431	544	645	705
Knitted goods	3,837	6,560	7,672	7,344	5,206
Plaits for hat making	486	744	1,063	975	624
Potteries	825	1,296	1,161	1,186	1,275
Hats and caps	458	639	929	975	1,272
Lumber	2,865	3,837	5,089	5,629	8,301
Toys	2,288	4,053	4,604	4,877	5,916
Buttons	1,315	1,555	1,796	1,623	2,566
Brushes	505	693	1,038	721	744
Lamps and accessories	—	—	2,132	1,441	2,459
Others and total	60,536	87,849	109,269	119,458	147,309
To Japan					
Leather	342	404	222	191	277
Ammonium sulphate, crude	2,386	1,828	1,833	300	—
Caustic soda, etc.	3,872	1,902	2,163	3,470	2,046
Woollen yarn	3,132	2,168	1,669	1,921	1,864
Cotton tissues	2,080	1,212	735	909	—
Sheep's wool	375	1,051	904	756	1,190
Wool tissues	8,597	6,833	5,041	6,536	9,389
Printing paper	757	486	574	557	477
Irons	13,219	17,299	11,491	11,535	7,100
Aluminium	352	557	146	444	—
Automobiles and parts	469	452	401	406	674
Dynamos and electric motors	165	131	107	81	532
Other machinery and parts	12,419	12,204	15,797	21,778	15,929
Others and total	78,760	82,558	70,036	82,160	72,942

France

From Japan					
Peppermint oil	299	571	504	688	977
Menthol crystals	502	1,426	783	804	700
Camphor	227	414	406	405	350
Silk, raw	7,107	15,378	20,333	23,764	21,772
Waste silk and floss silk	427	656	891	448	284
Silk and Rayon tissues	2,064	3,524	2,373	1,665	1,938
Cotton tissues	—	—	494	867	3,302
Plaits for hat making	831	1,177	452	375	474
Potteries	311	643	—	—	—
Others and total	21,547	38,736	38,318	42,467	43,475
To Japan					
Synthetic colours	631	579	574	364	371
Aluminium	268	354	775	510	—
Other machinery and parts	4,448	3,422	3,324	2,973	1,910
Irons	—	—	2,281	1,912	1,203
Others and total	21,094	21,745	18,299	19,808	19,898

Germany

From Japan					
Cotton tissues	—	—	1,248	1,362	4,086
Silk and rayon tissues	252	362	706	867	851
Isinglass	532	480	537	834	542
Fish and whale oils	628	886	1,405	2,588	3,931
Peppermint oil	248	392	542	702	919
Plaits for hat making	477	691	—	—	220

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Buttons	804	739	—	—	415
Vegetable oil	275	414	636	486	701
Others and total	9,349	12,411	19,677	26,766	35,054
To Japan					
Leather	625	565	837	959	1,023
Ammonium sulphate, crude	4,187	6,942	11,680	12,985	15,607
Synthetic colours	4,959	5,217	5,979	5,716	6,983
Woollen tissues	1,541	297	105	130	195
Pulp for paper making	1,293	621	361	241	—
Irons	11,228	24,885	23,592	18,691	12,120
Aluminium	378	974	364	343	—
Rails and plates	454	37	—	—	—
Automobiles and parts thereof	394	92	105	270	810
Other machinery and parts	9,699	15,978	24,318	28,225	24,047
Dynamos and electric motors	722	984	538	1,657	468
Others and total	71,741	95,797	109,583	120,817	115,500
Italy					
From Japan					
Waste silk and floss silk	120	333	540	428	471
Others and total	5,672	6,167	9,579	6,988	—
To Japan					
Drugs, chemicals	577	463	—	—	—
Waste yarns and waste threads	239	1,018	—	—	—
Hats	408	249	—	—	—
Others and total	3,971	6,035	3,461	5,831	3,766
Poland					
From Japan					
Total	19	44	212	955	—
To Japan					
Woollen yarn	1,512	830	—	—	—
Others and total	1,638	947	—	1,286	3,824
Austria					
From Japan					
Total	54	93	198	308	—
To Japan					
Irons	909	1,776	2,560	2,989	—
Others and total	1,549	2,473	3,542	4,409	4,263
Belgium					
From Japan					
Comestibles in tin and bottle	—	—	1,272	2,509	2,465
Cotton tissues	—	—	1,407	3,186	2,662
Total	4,160	7,739	9,675	15,393	16,230
To Japan					
Irons	3,021	10,443	11,940	16,902	7,447
Others and total	6,133	14,693	17,226	24,562	16,019
Norway					
From Japan					
Cotton tissues	—	—	397	1,110	1,416

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Others and total	464	1,608	2,828	4,482	6,172
To Japan					
Pulp for paper making	4,115	7,577	10,463	13,201	14,621
Others and total	5,956	11,624	14,279	19,940	17,853
Switzerland					
From Japan					
Total	311	323	307	471	—
To Japan					
Synthetic colours	2,025	1,236	1,336	1,790	1,664
Cotton tissues	1,796	403	96	113	—
Aluminium	589	1,026	555	2,565	1,952
Watches and parts	2,684	1,993	2,468	3,112	2,761
Dynamos and electric motors	196	163	—	—	—
Other machinery and parts	2,139	2,005	3,499	2,699	3,701
Others and total	12,104	9,185	10,925	13,455	14,000
Holland					
From Japan					
Fish and whale oils	527	201	—	872	1,211
Potteries	848	981	761	—	608
Toys	597	1,211	1,184	1,068	982
Comestibles in tin and bottle	—	—	490	911	1,040
Others and total	12,444	12,325	17,882	18,316	15,385
To Japan					
Total	3,879	3,717	3,652	5,873	4,556
Sweden					
From Japan					
Cotton tissues	—	—	804	1,415	1,831
Total	1,610	3,259	6,113	6,784	8,821
To Japan					
Pig iron	36	541	—	—	—
Other irons	1,830	3,897	4,702	5,411	3,479
Machinery and parts thereof	1,862	3,721	5,395	5,919	4,611
Gum	1,792	3,571	—	—	—
Pulp for paper making	1,792	3,571	7,438	7,734	9,735
Others and total	9,826	16,085	21,140	23,074	23,109
Turkey					
From Japan					
Cotton tissues	5,574	2,024	1,392	3,130	4,074
Others and total	5,964	2,431	2,194	3,241	—
To Japan					
Cotton and ginned cotton	—	—	1,928	646	2,439
Others and total	139	976	1,973	—	4,475
The U. S. A.					
From Japan					
Beans and peas	132	200	—	—	1,046
Tea	4,752	5,083	4,629	4,481	5,549
Aquatic products	975	1,191	1,713	2,664	2,811
Isinglass	537	674	479	542	998

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Comestibles in tin and bottle	8,053	17,838	11,182	16,813	15,458
Vegetable oil	2,502	5,804	8,859	27,472	32,511
Dried plants for insectifuge	4,349	5,499	6,790	5,808	2,885
Menthol crystals	2,014	2,691	2,575	3,139	2,406
Camphor	1,217	1,568	1,716	2,551	1,736
Silk, raw	360,148	355,805	239,568	328,910	333,949
Waste silk and floss silk	141	73	78	392	699
Silk and rayon tissues	4,243	6,135	5,258	6,777	8,156
Silk handkerchiefs	200	579	623	864	1,194
Cotton tissues	264	1,298	2,863	8,184	13,780
Plaits for hat making	632	3,303	4,946	1,831	3,593
Knitted goods	510	879	1,514	3,871	6,784
Paper	735	943	636	845	1,116
Potteries	6,441	10,180	14,313	15,776	15,530
Toys	4,986	6,975	9,603	11,494	13,689
Hats and caps	3,032	4,143	4,521	1,831	5,233
Lamps and parts thereof	4,667	3,273	3,159	2,630	4,931
Brushes	1,256	1,679	1,807	1,662	2,063
Buttons	157	357	—	—	818
Glass and glass manufactures	491	802	1,815	2,308	3,059
Clothing and accessories	—	—	1,664	1,686	2,249
Others and total	445,147	492,237	398,928	535,389	594,252
To Japan					
Wheat	751	238	9,869	283	495
Rice and paddy	1,733	580	—	—	—
Hides and skins	3,396	4,320	6,280	6,695	3,972
Leather	982	766	750	958	1,223
Mineral oil, under 0.876 S.G.	18,702	14,568	10,099	81,336	99,348
Sulphate of ammonium, crude	2,996	2,718	3,999	6,266	6,757
Caustic soda, etc.	1,013	1,036	472	702	803
Synthetic colours	1,157	881	1,116	1,390	2,347
Seed cotton and ginned cotton	320,751	381,655	400,918	371,952	372,415
Cotton tissues	69	45	56	47	—
Pulp for paper making	3,951	7,801	16,321	22,812	31,758
Paper	98	75	135	214	226
Irons	11,239	27,395	67,466	87,901	75,200
Lead	3,275	4,011	6,823	4,815	2,642
Zinc	388	824	1,352	1,848	1,999
Copper	123	7,238	26,137	35,849	31,930
Aluminium	675	89	33	—	489
Rails and plates	410	262	362	990	2,826
Watches and parts thereof	131	55	184	364	413
Automobiles and parts thereof	13,838	13,288	31,553	31,255	34,929
Dynamos and electric motors	592	376	398	513	557
Other machinery and parts thereof	17,176	21,869	35,137	38,389	37,872
Lumber	20,225	23,744	20,966	28,226	32,184
Others and total	509,873	620,778	769,359	809,644	847,490
		Canada			
From Japan					
Rice	397	600	1,195	492	842
Tea	671	721	875	578	1,097
Silk, raw	1,164	208	411	—	823

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Potteries	1,317	1,399	1,508	1,458	2,025
Toys	—	—	627	758	1,081
Others and total	8,562	6,580	8,666	7,977	14,553
To Japan					
Wheat	8,762	10,243	8,119	6,257	10,973
Pulp for paper making	3,144	6,043	7,244	5,990	4,150
Printing paper	3,497	2,976	4,595	6,843	8,443
Coal	7,346	7,632	—	—	—
Lead	4,298	5,542	7,405	6,928	11,779
Zinc	2,618	3,957	3,419	2,813	3,836
Lumber	9,469	7,632	7,346	8,258	6,217
Aluminium	—	—	4,026	6,030	8,620
Others and total	39,504	46,891	54,093	52,531	73,179
Chile					
From Japan					
Cotton tissues	193	1,223	6,072	5,190	6,027
Others and total	286	1,475	7,439	6,647	7,426
To Japan					
Sheep's wool	22	464	934	875	1,744
Potteries	150	395	628	—	—
Crude nitrate of soda	706	2,464	2,272	2,776	4,398
Others and total	761	2,962	3,438	4,472	9,953
Argentine					
From Japan					
Silk and Rayon tissues	2,169	2,537	1,369	1,310	1,142
Cotton tissues	3,300	6,615	13,955	20,125	14,780
Buttons	269	291	487	479	306
Others and total	7,553	12,261	20,013	28,603	22,712
To Japan					
Sheep's wool	481	2,427	7,552	611	6,562
Hides and skins	—	—	364	1,036	1,391
Others and total	2,719	6,738	12,128	16,370	29,989
Uruguay					
From Japan					
Cotton tissues	55	553	2,071	—	1,930
Silk and Rayon tissues	232	1,573	4,337	4,498	5,107
Others and total	422	2,451	6,964	5,676	7,891
To Japan					
Total	173	317	2,630	4,494	9,528
Egypt					
From Japan					
Cotton yarns	325	259	—	—	—
Silk and Rayon tissues	9,182	7,704	8,076	8,006	5,274
Cotton tissues	27,068	38,351	46,833	31,683	20,525
Woollen tissues	—	—	2,835	2,278	4,051
Knitted goods	1,818	3,370	3,029	1,698	965
Potteries	408	438	627	—	495
Cotton towels	195	451	516	—	—
Others and total	41,876	55,607	72,988	53,800	40,907
To Japan					
Sulphate of ammonium, crude	3,664	5,960	4,787	—	—
Seed cotton and ginned cotton	15,300	19,084	39,787	43,009	36,415
Others and total	19,787	26,455	46,259	51,304	45,737

Union of South Africa

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
From Japan					
Silk and Rayon tissues	5,657	8,610	10,899	9,157	9,843
Cotton tissues	5,338	5,911	4,458	6,337	7,358
Knitted goods	1,314	2,565	1,884	1,700	2,711
Glass and glass manufactures	158	450	757	785	831
Lumber	291	878	971	816	1,016
Toys	116	391	865	645	891
Potteries and porcelains	—	—	904	839	1,144
Others and total	16,418	26,740	29,539	32,769	41,534
To Japan					
Sheep's wool	1,031	2,529	5,780	1,782	17,389
Others and total	2,635	4,312	8,233	4,761	22,561

East Africa

From Japan					
Total	15,760	23,174	37,454	25,083	—
To Japan					
Caustic soda, etc.	1,155	229	1,261	1,207	—
Others and total	3,414	14,356	21,305	2,945	—

Australia

From Japan					
Silk, raw	3,165	3,297	4,017	4,232	5,231
Silk and Rayon tissues	16,623	19,934	25,776	29,496	15,491
Rayon yarn	—	—	45	1,181	1,223
Cotton tissues	4,874	10,029	14,783	17,175	13,986
Cotton towels	383	656	720	525	496
Lamps and parts	433	606	559	651	571
Glass and glass manufactures	357	755	832	1,048	1,114
Potteries	1,768	2,707	—	2,804	2,291
Toys	861	1,811	1,765	2,010	2,137
Comestibles in tin and bottle	215	328	797	880	946
Others and total	36,895	51,416	64,461	74,793	68,763
To Japan					
Wheat	40,098	33,886	22,032	30,935	17,392
Meats	447	275	276	515	406
Beef tallow	2,437	3,250	2,588	2,200	747
Hides and skins	192	558	907	2,294	1,124
Sheep's wool	84,245	156,513	159,241	182,007	147,493
Zinc	1,594	2,102	2,293	2,729	3,439
Lead	322	249	579	460	219
Others and total	134,277	204,586	197,757	235,128	181,914

New Zealand

From Japan					
Silk and Rayon tissues	863	1,333	2,136	3,435	4,802
Cotton tissues	—	—	742	1,291	2,838
Others and total	2,993	6,452	8,588	11,304	16,740
To Japan					
Wool	—	—	9,904	4,007	18,316
Others and total	1,470	2,399	11,594	6,364	21,973

Hawaii

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
From Japan					
Aquatic products	720	560	—	557	689
Comestibles in tin and bottle	868	954	829	950	1,092
Others and total	6,676	6,484	5,526	7,242	9,299
To Japan					
Total	532	135	—	—	—

The Invisible Trade

The invisible foreign trade of Japan for 1935 showed an excess of payments according to the report of the Finance Ministry. For the three previous years an excess of receipts had been shown, but the change was phenomenal, showing excess payments of ¥193,326,000 compared with excess receipts of ¥8,747,000 in 1934. This loss was mainly due to the decrease in receipts from foreign investment in Japan and in collection of capital invested abroad. As compared with the previous year, receipts in total were higher, the only falling off in individual items being in insurance, about ¥10,000,000 and Government receipts from abroad ¥58,500,000. Payments were all larger with the single small exception of others, ¥9,000,000.

INVISIBLE FOREIGN TRADE OF JAPAN

(Compiled by the Ministry of Finance)

(In ¥1,000)

Items	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
I Assets (Invisible Exports):					
(a) Ordinary receipts:					
Interest and dividends on foreign securities	17,971	19,362	23,806	22,517	26,509
Profit from undertakings abroad and remunerations for services rendered abroad	89,979	157,244	167,378	186,913	213,512
Receipts in connection with shipping	166,911	181,843	227,930	251,520	303,180
Insurance	108,812	117,258	117,570	138,518	128,629
Receipts from foreign nationals in Japan, tourists, missionaries, etc.	43,166	55,478	69,458	89,232	95,266
Government receipts from abroad	7,647	4,964	7,218	5,800	18,253
Others	12,278	41,267	51,120	93,730	35,204
Total	446,764	577,416	664,480	788,230	820,553
(b) Extraordinary receipts.					
Foreign capital invested in Japan	152,624	84,475	119,556	93,317	159,437
Collection of capital invested abroad	286,950	105,988	174,287	218,635	225,688
Total	439,574	190,463	293,843	312,006	385,125
Grand total	886,338	767,879	958,323	1,100,236	1,205,678
II Liabilities (Invisible Imports):					
(a) Ordinary Payments:					
Interest and dividends on Japanese securities possessed by foreign nationals	90,355	108,330	138,914	124,632	134,781
Profit of foreign undertakings and remunerations for foreign services in Japan	11,895	19,857	9,466	9,621	11,298
Payments in connection with shipping	66,270	82,142	101,868	106,906	125,520
Payments in connection with insurance	105,896	108,359	108,876	115,080	118,222

		1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
	Expenditures abroad of Japanese tourists and travellers	44,897	39,852	68,462	65,791	68,942
	Government expenditures abroad	37,896	89,182	128,008	141,696	159,975
	Others	5,935	14,440	21,677	32,312	23,602
	Total	363,144	462,162	577,271	596,042	642,340
(b)	Extraordinary Payments:					
	Investment abroad of Japanese capital	303,154	100,954	215,775	398,537	579,990
	Collection of foreign capital invested in Japan	369,084	189,645	99,044	96,910	176,674
	Total	672,238	290,599	314,819	495,447	756,664
	Grand total	1,035,382	752,761	892,090	1,091,489	1,399,004
III	Balance:					
(a)	Excess of ordinary receipts	83,620	115,254	87,209	192,188	178,213
(b)	Excess of extraordinary payments	232,664	100,136	20,976	183,411	371,539
	Excess of receipts (+) or payments (−)	−149,044	+15,118	+66,233	+8,747	−193,326

Balance of International Payments

This table is based on the form required by the League of Nations and includes the figures for the foreign trade of Chōsen and Taiwan.

CURRENT ITEMS.

INWARD OR CREDIT MOVEMENTS (Exports)

		1934	1933
	I. Merchandise.	(In Million yen)	
1.	Merchandise, including silver bullion and coins other than gold, exported (according to trade returns)	2,339.0	1,992.2
2.	Adjustment of 1 in order to arrive at the commercial value f. o. b.	—	—
3.	Contraband exports	—	—
	Total	2,339.0	1,992.2
	II. Interest and dividends.		
4.	Interest received on intergovernmental debts n. e. i. (Inter-allied debts, etc.)	—	—
5.	Interest received on other foreign Government and municipal loans	14.0	13.8
6.	Yield of other long-term capital investments abroad:		
	a. interest	4.8	4.6
	b. dividends, profits. etc.	85.2	71.2
7.	Interest received from short-term capital invested abroad	0.8	3.0
	Total	104.8	92.6
	III. Other services.		
8.	Income of national ships on account of all foreign traffic (a):		
	a. ordinary freights	213.8	193.5
	b. charter money	0.3	0.5
	c. passage money	17.0	15.4
9.	Port receipts from foreign shipping in national ports	6.3	5.3
10.	Transport and other charges received for foreign goods transhipped or in transit (if not included in group I)	—	—
11.	Commissions, insurance, brokerage and similar receipts, n. e. i.	138.5	117.6
12.	Post and telegraph and telephone earnings, n. e. i.	1.6	1.6
13.	Funds brought in by immigrants and returned emigrants	116.7	110.3
14.	Emigrants' remittances and money gifts from abroad, n. e. i.		
15.	Receipts from foreign tourists and travellers	70.2	50.9
16.	Diplomatic, consular and similar expenditure in Japan	6.9	6.9
17.	Receipts for services in Japan for "persons" domiciled abroard, n. e. i.	—	—

	1934	1933
	(In Million yen)	
18. Government receipts in cash on account of reparation payments: a. amortisation b. interest	—	—
19. Counter-value of reparation receipts in kind, included in merchandise imports below	—	—
20. Government receipts from abroad, n. e. i.	4.2	5.6
21. Other current items	45.0	42.0
Total	620.6	549.5
IV. Gold coin and bullion.		
22. Gold bullion and gold specie exported (according to trade returns)	—	34.7
23. Adjustment of 22 in order to arrive at the commercial value f. o. b.	—	—
24. Decrease in the amount of gold earmarked abroad for domestic account, or increase in the amount of gold earmarked in the country for foreign account	—	—
Total	—	34.7
Grand Total	3,064.3	2,669.1
OUTWARD OR DEBIT MOVEMENTS (Imports)		
I. Merchandise.		
25. Merchandise, including silver bullion and coins other than gold, imported (according to trade returns)	2,430.7	2,045.6
26. Adjustment of 25 in order to arrive at the commercial c. i. f.	—	—
27. Contraband imports	—	—
Total	2,430.7	2,045.6
II. Interest and dividends.		
28. Interest paid on intergovernmental debts n. e. i. (Inter-allied debts, etc.)	—	—
29. Interest paid on other Government and municipal foreign debt	72.4	72.6
30. Yield of other foreign long-term capital invested in Japan: a. interest	24.8	40.6
b. dividends, profits, etc.	24.6	22.4
31. Interest paid on foreign short-term capital invested in Japan	9.4	10.0
Total	131.2	145.6
III. Other services.		
32. Payments to foreign ships on account of traffic between domestic ports: a. ordinary freights	—	—
b. charter money	6.7	2.9
c. passage money	—	—
33. Port expenses incurred by national shipping in foreign ports	59.8	58.4
34. Transport payments to foreign carriers, n. e. i.	—	—
35. Commission, insurance, brokerage and similar payments, n. e. i.	115.1	108.9
36. Post, telegraph and telephone payments, n. e. i.	4.3	5.5
37. Funds taken out by emigrants and returning immigrants		
38. Immigrants' remittances and money gifts sent abroad, n. e. i.	3.9	5.6
39. Expenditure abroad by national tourists and travellers	54.6	57.0
40. Diplomatic, consular and similar expenditure abroad	10.4	10.6
41. Payments for services rendered abroad for "persons" domiciled in Japan, n. e. i.	—	—
42. Government payments in cash on account of reparations: a. amortisation	—	—
b. interest	—	—

	1934	1933
	(In Million yen)	
43. Counter-value of reparation deliveries in kind, included in merchandise exports above	—	—
44. Government expenditure abroad, n. e. i.	137.4	122.5
45. Other current items	47.3	39.8
Total	439.5	411.2
IV. Gold coin and bullion.		
46. Gold bullion and gold specie imported (according to trade returns)	—	—
47. Adjustment of 46 in order to arrive at the commercial value, c. i. f.	—	—
48. Increase in the amount of gold earmarked abroad for domestic account, or decrease in the amount of gold earmarked in the country for foreign account	—	—
Total	—	—
Grand Total	3,001.4	2,602.4
Surplus (+) or deficit (−) on account of:		
(a) goods and services (I—III)	(+) 62.9	(+) 31.9
(b) gold (IV)	0	(+) 34.7
(c) goods, services and gold (I—IV)	(+) 62.9	(+) 66.6

Note: (1) "n. e. i." means "not elsewhere indicated."
(2) (a) Foreign shipping traffic here means all traffic other than that between domestic ports. Maritime freight on imported goods, which is included in group I of imports, is unknown.

CAPITAL ITEMS.

INWARD OR CREDIT CAPITAL MOVEMENT

	1934	1933
	(In Million yen)	
I. Long-term operations.		
1. Receipts on account of amortisation of intergovernmental debts n. e. i. (Inter-allied debts, etc.)	—	—
2. Receipts on account of amortisation of other foreign government and municipal loans	—	—
3. Receipts on account of amortisation of other loans	79.6	151.5
4. Existing domestic securities sold abroad	48.1	84.4
5. Foreign securities resold abroad	139.0	22.8
6. Real estate sold abroad { a. abroad	—	—
{ b. in Japan	—	—
7. Sale of new domestic securities on account of new loans floated abroad:		
a. Government and municipal loans	—	—
b. Other loans	—	—
8. Sale of new domestic securities on account of foreign participation in domestic capital issues	(a) —	(a) —
9. Other foreign long-term capital invested in Japan	—	—
Total	266.7	258.6
II. Short-term operations.		
10. Net increase in foreign short-term debts on account of credits raised and repaid	39.8	20.0
11. Net decrease in foreign floating assets on account of short-term credits granted and repaid	54.7	—
Total	94.5	20.0
Grand Total	361.2	278.6

OUTWARD OR DEBIT CAPITAL MOVEMENT

	1934	1933
	(In Million yen)	
I. Long-term operations.		
12. Payments on account of amortisation of intergovernmental debts, n. e. i. (Inter-allied debts, etc.)	—	—

	1934	1933
	(In Million yen)	
13. Payments on account of amortisation of other government and municipal foreign debt	24.5	24.6
14. Payments on account of amortisation of other loans raised abroad	36.0	45.4
15. Repurchase of national securities formerly held abroad	30.9	13.8
16. Purchase of existing foreign securities issued abroad	38.2	37.0
17. Real estate purchased from foreigners abroad { a. abroad	—	—
{ b. in Japan	—	—
18. New foreign capital issues subscribed in Japan:		
a. on acount of foreign Government and municipal loans	9.8	—
b. other capital issues	—	—
19. Participation of domestic capital in foreign capital issues	(b) —	(b) —
20. Other long-term capital investments made abroad	350.5	178.8
Total	489.9	299.6
II. Short-term operations.		
21. Net decrease in foreign short-term debts on account of credits raised and repaid	—	—
22. Net increase in foreign floating assets on account of short-term credits granted and repaid	—	225.2
Total	—	225.2
Grand Total	489.9	524.8
Net inward (+) or outward (−) movement of capital	(−) 128.8	(−) 246.2
Difference between the balances for goods, services and gold on the one hand and the capital items on the other, due to errors and omissions	(+) 65.8	(−) 202.2

Note:—(1) "n. e. i." means "not elsewhere indicated." (2) (a) Included in item 4. (3) (b) Included in item 16.

Trade Ports

On June 2 in the sixth year of Ansei, 1859, in the latter part of the Tokugawa Shogunate régime, Yokohama, Nagasaki and Hakodaté were opened to foreign trade. On December 7 in the 3rd year of the Keio Era (1867), Kobé was similarly opened and in the first year of the Meiji Era (1868) Osaka and Niigata were opened to international trade and commerce.

In 1936 the total number of open ports in the Empire was 62, of which 44 were in Japan proper, 4 in Formosa, 11 in Korea, 2 in Karafuto and one in the Kwantung Leased Territory. They are :

IN JAPAN PROPER : Yokohama, Nagasaki and Hakodaté (all opened in 1859), Kobé (1867), Osaka and Niigata (1868), Ebisu (Sado Island) (1869), Misumi (1890), Shimizu, Taketoyo, Yokkaichi, Shimonoseki, Moji, Hakata, Karatsu, Kuchinotsu, Izuhara, Sasuna, Shishimi, Naha, Hamada, Sakai (Tottori prefecture), Miyazu, Tsuruga, Nanao, Fushiki, Otaru, Kushiro and Muroran (all in 1899), Onomichi-Itozaki (1900), Wakamatsu (Fukuoka prefecture) (1902), Suminoé and Aomori (1904), Nagoya (1905), Miike (1906), Nemuro (1910), Kagoshima (1919), Imabari and Tokuyama (1922), Hagi (1928), Uno (1930), Funakawa (1932), and Shiogama and Kamaishi (1934).

IN KARAFUTO : Otomari (1907) and Maoka (1922).

IN FORMOSA : Keelung, Tamsui, Anping and Takao (all in 1895).

IN KOREA : Jinsen, Kunsan, Moppo, Fusan, Chinnampo, Shingishu, Ryugampo, Genzan, Seishin, Joshin and Yuki (all in 1910).

IN KWANTUNG LEASED TERRITORY : Dairen (1906).

In 1873 Yokohama came to the topmost in trade volume, next came Kobé, Nagasaki, Osaka and Hakodaté in the order mentioned. Since 1902 Osaka has outstripped Nagasaki and held the third most important position. Kobé overstepped Yokohama in 1893 and since then has occupied the premier position of all ports.

In 1934 Kobé led all others with 36 per cent of the total exports, Osaka 27 per cent, Yokohama 23 per cent, Nagoya 5 per cent and Moji 2 per cent. Kobé came first in imports too, with 35 per cent, Yokohama 24 per cent, Osaka 23 per cent, Nagoya 4 per cent and Moji 3 per cent.

VESSELS ENTERED AT FIVE PRINCIPAL PORTS

(Unit: Ton)

	Yokohama	Kobé	Nagasaki	Moji	Osaka
1929	22,361,753	41,206,119	4,166,665	21,596,141	16,548,746
1930	22,359,290	42,579,369	3,772,707	21,141,985	17,131,553
1931	22,373,155	42,723,674	3,502,425	19.965,693	18,842,627
1932	22,207,385	43,033,220	3,348,239	20,538,484	19,539,931
1933	23,114,760	46,382,542	3,567,460	22,282,866	23,099,688
1934	24,269,857	49,481,808	—	—	32,546,000
1935	26,785,289	52,359,980	—	—	35,822,282
1936	28,562,332	—	—	—	—

FOREIGN TRADE VESSELS ENTERED JAPANESE PORTS

(Steamers only)

Year	Japanese		Chinese		British	
	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons
1930	13,247	35,942,573	68	155,278	1,646	7,865,014
1931	13,172	37,019,321	51	96,664	1,390	7,093,160
1932	12,714	36,406,061	57	53,969	1,470	7,481,516
1933	13,464	39,694,785	155	328,199	1,633	8,068,360
1934	13,267	40,689,352	606	1,146,871	2,015	9,470,345
1935	13,935	43,932,000	920	1,806,000	2,359	10,656,000
1936	14,317	45,573,000	1,635	3,340,000	2,338	10,497,000

Year	French		German		Italian	
	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons
1930	108	703,752	367	1,579,774	63	272,276
1931	115	752,309	245	1,077,855	43	191,009
1932	70	551,684	212	944,703	28	106,962
1933	4	36,545	334	1,482,957	32	106,350
1934	46	364,149	374	1,667,367	39	139,350
1935	52	298,000	422	1,927,000	42	147,000
1936	56	310,000	357	1,687,000	28	105,000

Year	Russian		Danish		Swedish		Norwegian	
	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons
1930	10	23,036	80	313,193	61	215,739	320	952,169
1931	37	83,660	71	274,473	62	227,104	294	929,439
1932	15	42,489	87	335,316	49	190,519	341	1,130,881
1933	19	47,578	100	387,136	67	249,336	417	1,360,714
1934	7	12,264	152	601,567	115	415,262	599	1,883,055
1935	—	—	167	647,000	113	404,000	876	2,876,000
1936	—	—	146	552,000	122	434,000	946	3,138,000

Year	United States of America		Other Countries		Total	
	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons
1930	628	3,592,247	2,159	6,861,967	18,757	58,477,021
1931	530	3,215,153	1,877	5,847,847	17,887	56,807,994
1932	511	3,363,520	1,816	5,427,306	17,370	56,034,926
1933	534	3,443,765	2,068	6,421,570	18,827	61,627,290
1934	541	3,317,351	2,014	6,272,707	19,775	65,979,640
1935	611	3,750,000	2,427	7,524,000	21,904	73,804,000
1936	479	3,080,000	2,540	7,948,000	22,978	76,643,000

Customs Duties

It was in 1859, at the time when most of the early commercial treaties with the Western powers had been concluded, that custom-houses were for the first time established and customs duties were levied at a few open ports selected for

the purpose. The customs tariff of that time was entirely determined by treaty; but the term of its operation was exceedingly short and the whole tariff was revised by treaty in 1866. This revised tariff kept our customs duties unchanged until 1899 when the treaties of commerce and navigation with the foreign powers came into operation.

The coming into effect from 1899 of the revised commercial treaties with the foreign powers made it possible to bring into operation the general tariff which, combined with the conventional tariffs newly concluded, formed the customs tariff of our country. At the same time the export duties were entirely abolished.

In 1904 the urgent needs of the extraordinary fund in connection with the war with Russia led to the imposition of a special surtax on the customs duties as well as on the other taxes, and soon after the restoration of peace the entire customs tariff was revised and came into operation on October 1, 1906.

The Tariff Revision The Import Tariff Revision Bill passed the Imperial Diet in 1910 and was promulgated by Law No. 54 in April of the same year. The new tariff came into operation on July 17, 1911, but since then the tariff has been revised several times.

A new tariff convention was also concluded with Italy in June, 1913.

Tariff in Korea In conformity with the Imperial Declaration concerning the Annexation of Chosen in 1910, the tariff system of the former Korean Empire was left in force in the territory for ten years after the event. On expiration of the term of ten years on August 28, 1920, the tariff in force in Japan proper was applied to Chosen.

The Luxury Duties Under Law No. 24, promulgated on July 31, 1924, which regulates import duties on certain luxuries, a hundred per cent ad valorem import duty was imposed for the time being on about one hundred and twenty kinds of goods which were designated as luxuries.

A partial amendment of the import duties on luxuries was made on April 1, 1925, exempting articles imported for industrial use, materials for re-export and certain other materials from the 100% duties.

Kwantung L. T. With the object of encouraging the industries in Kwantung Leased Territory and of promoting exports to the home country, portland cement and twenty-nine other articls produced in the province were exempted from import duties by the Act of June 18, 1925.

The Revision of 1926 Although several amendments in minor details had been made from time to time, the customs tariff of the country remained practically unchanged from 1910 to 1926 when the Government introduced into the Imperial Diet a Bill proposing a general amendment embodying the following principles:

(a) Raw materials which are not produced or are scarce in this country are to be free of duties.

(b) Necessary protection is to be given to staple industries that have bright prospects for the future.

(c) Import duties are to be left untouched or are to be reduced with respect to foreign articles with which home produces is able to compete.

(d) Duties on the necessaries of daily life are to be reduced.

(e) In order to discourage consumption, high duties are to be imposed upon articles other than necessaries of daily life.

(f) The number of specific duties are to be increased and more minute classification of articles is to be made for convenience in the impostion of duties.

The Bill was passed by the both Houses of Imperial Diet without amendment, excepting the proposal concerning wheat, flour and eggs, and was put into effect on March 29, 1926.

Although not the direct object of the amendment, an increase in the customs revenue was expected as a result of the change in the rates of duties and the adjustment of the relation between specific duties and ad valorem duties in accordance with the rise of commodity prices.

Amendments During 1927 (a) Change of duties on sugar, etc.

The duties on sugar were amended on April 1, 1927. The duties on starch, butter, oxidized cobalt, oleine and cassava-root were also altered at the same time.

(b) Revision of the preferential tariff for Kwantung Leased Territory.

An amendment was made as to the articles exempted from import duties under the preference given to Kwantung L. T. by adding soy-bean oil and certain kinds of manufactured cloths to the free list. This amendment was put into effect on April 1, 1927.

Amendments During 1929 (a) Tea and twenty other luxury articles have been exempt from the luxury import duty since March 30, 1929.

(b) Import duties on wool and liquid gold were amended, and this amendment was put into effect on March 30, 1929.

(c) Cotton yarns and other goods

manufactured in Kwantung L. T. have been exempt from import duties since May 1, 1929.

(d) Abolition of exceptions in import duties applicable in Chosen.

Although the import tariff of Chosen is generally the same as that of Japan proper, there existed certain exceptions in the case of import duties on horses and four other articles. The exceptions in the case of import duties on horses and two other articles were, however, abolished on and after March 30, 1929. The exceptions in the case of salt and wood were also amended, the former being abolished on and after April 1, 1930 and the latter on and after April 1, 1932.

Amendments During 1930 A. Millet, "Kao-liang" (Andropogon vulgaris), were exempted from import duties.

B. Of cotton yarns :

(a) Special cotton yarns were exempted from import duties.

(b) The rate of import duties on cotton yarns gray, single or two fold, with the exception of special cotton yarns, was reduced per 100 kin as follows :

Not exceeding No. 24 English	from ¥ 5.80 to ¥ 3.75
Not exceeding No. 42 English	from 6.40 to 4.15
Not exceeding No. 60 English	from 9.50 to 6.15
Not exceeding No. 80 English	from 11.00 to 7.15
Others	from 11.30 to 7.35

C. The rate on cement was reduced to ¥0.15 or 50% per 100 kin.

D. Certain kinds of iron pipes and tubes were exempted from import duties.

The above amendments were effective from May 17, 1930.

Amendments During 1931 A. Of import duties on wood, those on Momi (Abies), Tauhi (Picea), Matsu (Pinus) and Karamatsu (Larix) were amended as follows :

(a) Formerly, the import duty on wood not exceeding 200 millimetres in thickness was ¥1.1 per cubic metre, but it was raised to ¥4.45 per cubic metre.

(b) An import duty was newly imposed at the rate of ¥2.7 per cubic metre on other woods (including logs and cants) which were formerly exempt from the duty.

B. Import duty on rayon was reduced from ¥125 to ¥75 per 100 kin.

The above amendments were effective from April 1, 1931.

Amendments During 1932 (1) An increase in import duties was effected as from June 16, 1932 in respect of 29 articles in the case of which circumstances either at home or in the countries of export demanded it. The principal articles, the rates on which were increased, were as follows :

Agricultural products and foodstuffs	Wheat, millet (Andropogon vulgaris), Indian corn, wheat flour, butter, and condensed milk.
Industrial products	Pig iron, wire, reed wires, barbed twisted wires, parts of watches, parts of automobiles, and internal combustion engines.
Forestry products	Certain kinds of wood.

(2) In view of the decline in exchange rates, it was decided to increase, for the time being, the specific duties as provided in the Import Tariff annexed to the Customs Tariff Law to 135 per cent. This increased rate was put into effect on and after June 16, 1932, but is not applicable to the articles mentioned in (1) above.

Amendments During 1933 A. Ephedra herbs, argol, amorphophallus tubers, and bone ashes were newly provided for in the Import Tariff. These articles, except amorphophallus tubers, had been exempt from import duties. In the case of amorphophallus tubers, the import duty was imposed on those in meal at the rate of ¥16 per 100 kin and on others at the rate of ¥5.5 per 100 kin.

B. The following amendments were made in import duties on wood on which no labour was expended after cutting, sawing or splitting :

(a) With respect to logs and cants of douglas fir, etc. under the head of conifers :

1. Those exceeding 18 metres in length and not exceeding 30 centimetres in diametre at the top end were exempted from import duties ;

2. On those exceeding 10 metres in length and not exceeding 30 centimetres in diameter at the top end duty was imposed at the rate of ¥2 per cubic metre ;

3. On others duty was imposed at the rate of ¥2.5 per cubic metre.

(b) With respect to timber of broad-leafed trees, but not provided for in the Import Tariff.

1. On those not exceeding 200 millimetres in thickness duty was imposed at the rate of ¥5.5 per cubic metre.

2. On others, including logs and cants,

duty was imposed at the rate of ¥2 per cubic metre.

These amendments were made by Law No. 26 of March, 1933, and put into effect as from March 29. It should, however, be noted that the provisions of Law No. 4 of 1932 are not applicable to the above articles on which specific duties are imposed.

Amendments from January to July, 1935 A. Luxuries and similar articles.

(a) The import duty on precious stones was reduced from an ad valorem duty of 100 per cent to 10 per cent.

(b) With the abolition of an ad valorem duty of 100 per cent on "shochu" included in the item of alcoholic liquors, such "shochu" became subject to the General Tariff.

B. Articles in general.

(a) On musk xylol under the heading of artificial musks duty was imposed at the rate of ¥125 per 100 kin, and on others an ad valorem duty of 35 per cent was imposed.

(b) Of bleached plain tissues of flax pure or mixed with cotton, articles which had hitherto been exempt from import duties became subject to the same duties as those on tissues of flax and tissues of flax mixed with cotton.

(c) On magnesium alloys the same duty as that on magnesium was imposed.

(d) Catalyzers contaning vanadium became exempt from import duties.

(e) On vulcanized fibres the duty was imposed at the rate of ¥26 per 100 kin.

These amendments were put into effect as from April 4, 1935.

For the customs tariff law and the customs duties on the principal commodities see Chapter VIII and Appendix.

Commerce Adjustment and Safeguarding Law

This law, intended to protect Japan's foreign trade, particularly against restrictive measures undertaken by other nations to which Japanese goods are exported, was adopted at the 65th session of the Imperial Diet and has been in force since May 1, 1934. According to a Foreign Office statement, the promulgation of this law was made necessary because of a growing tendency in other countries to ignore the fundamental economic principles of ministering to one another's wants and promoting through their cooperative offorts the progress and prosperity of mankind, reflected in their attempts to suppress importation of foreign goods by means of high tariffs, restriction of imports, etc., and particularly because of the increasing number of countries which set up barriers against Japan's export trade. The law is intended to enable Japan to adjust her trade to the above situation, to balance thereby her international payments, and at the same time to take, if necessary, appropriate measures for safeguarding her commerce. It is stipulated in the law that the Government, whenever they consider it specially necessary for the purpose of adjusting trade or safeguarding commerce in answer to the measures that have been, or are to be, taken by foreign countries, may, in accordance with provisions of an Imperial Ordinance and with the approval of the Tariff Investigation Commission, in respect of specified articles, and during a specified period of time, impose on such articles, in addition to the import duties enumerated in the Import Tariff annexed to the Customs Tariff Law, import duties not exceeding in amount their value; or reduce, or exempt them from, import duties; or prohibit or restrict the exportation or importation thereof.

(As to the first application of the Law to Canada and the second application to Australia see Chapter VI.)

CHAPTER XII

INSURANCE

General Survey

Marine Insurance Comes First In Japan, as in most maritime countries, marine insurance preceded life insurance, but the margin of time separating the two was much narrower in Japan, for there was a difference of two years only. Following the Restoration in 1868, the feudal lords or daimyo were dispossessed of their domains, but the Meiji Government undertook to compensate them for the lands confiscated. The condition of Government finance, however, did not permit of the payment of large sums of cash to the daimyo and pension bonds were issued to them instead. Hachisuka, Ikeda, Daté and other powerful and rich lords searched for an outlet for their energies and surplus funds and, deciding on insurance, advanced a plan to form a marine and fire insurance business after the British system. A company was incorporated in Tokyo in January 1879, with Eiichi Shibusawa as the person most intimately concerned with the consummation of the plan, and Yataro Iwasaki, the founder of the Mitsubishi interest, as his able lieutenant. The initial capital was ¥650,000. Marquis Hachisuka was president and Shibusawa and Iwasaki advisers.

Life Insurance Follows The late Taizo Abé was the originator of life insurance in Japan. Two years after the introduction of marine insurance he founded the Meiji Life Insurance Company in September, 1881, with a capital of ¥150,000. The promoters of this company were mostly graduates of the Keio Gijuku (present Keio University). In 1888 the Teikoku Life insurance Company was founded, and the Nippon Life Insurance Company was incorporated in Osaka in the following year. Zenjiro Yasuda was the founder of the Meiji Fire Insurance Company, the first of the kind in Japan.

The Present Status

The home insurance business at present consists of 13 kinds, namely, life, military conscription, accident, marine, fire including forest fire, transportation, autmobile, burglary, glass, fidelity, engine and boiler and re-insurance and from this year air insurance is being undertaken. Conscription insurance is interesting as it cannot be considered as pure insurance. The idea is to provide relief to the parents of young men who are called up to serve their time in the army. The insurance is taken out at any time from birth to 15 years of age, then, when the boy is conscripted at 20 years of age, the sum contracted for is paid to his parents. In case the boy is not called upon to serve his time in the army the premium only is repaid, and the assured persons who are enrolled in the army and participate in the forfeited and accrued interest of those not called up together with that of those who have died before being conscripted. It is 40 years since the business was first commenced and four companies engage in it.

Life Insurance in 1936 Life insurance business during 1936 was satisfactory. Both new contracts and the net increase reached a record high, contracts current at the end of the year amounted to as much as ¥14,50,000,000. Comparatively few contracts were allowed to lapse during the year, while expenditure showed no signs of an increase.

What has been said, however, only concerns the five big insurance companies and a few other leading organizations of the kind. More than 20 small companies continued in a state of depression, because of the tendency of insurance contracts to concentrate in the big companies. It is estimated that the life insurance funds at the end of the year stood at ¥2,800,000,000.

The greater part of the investments was in securities, especially in stocks. The total yield from assets seems to have declined by about 0.1 per cent.

Various plans were worked out during 1936, including those for the imposition of a tax on insurance money, and on premiums, for the enlargement of the scope of government-managed insurance, and for the compulsory possession of public bonds. These were important issues for the interested circles, particularly did the compulsory investment in public bonds plan constitute a subject for much discussion because it

would bring about a remarkable decline in the yields of estates and force a reduction of the estimated percentage of profits and the percentage of dividend. The plan to tax insurance money and premiums disappeared as a result of the change of Cabinet but the projects for enlarging the scope of the government-managed insurance and for a compulsory possession of public bonds are still pending.

It is anticipated that the conditions of insurance contracts during 1937 and the succeeding years will continue to be satisfactory. Needless to say, small insurance companies form an entirely different question because the tendency of insurance contracts toward concentration in big companies is expected to progress further. There is even a possibility of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry strengthening its policy toward life insurance and undertaking an adjustment of small insurance companies.

The amount of new contracts concluded during 1936 exceeded ¥3,000,000,000 and as about 33 per cent of this figure covered lapsed policies the net increase reached the neighbourhood of ¥1,900,000,000, setting the highest record since the inauguration of the life insurance business. The total contracts as they stood at the end of the year amounted to upwards of ¥14,500,000,000, which represents a really marvellous progress of the business.

Along with the increase in contracts, the amount of contracts which lost effectiveness and those which were cancelled also rose. The percentage of the latter, however, was far lower than that of the former. This may be attributed to inflation, the remarkable activities of the large strong insurance companies and the relatively advantageous position of the insurance companies in regard to savings compared with banks and trust companies.

The 1936 receipts in premiums amounted to the record figure of ¥550,000,000, more than double the amount for 1928. The remarkable progress achieved by the insurance business during 1936 is well illustrated by the fact that the receipts in premiums during the year showed an increase of more than ¥100,000,000 over the figures for 1934 when both the amount of contracts and the amount of premiums received made a rapid rise.

After deduting ¥167,000,000 for benefits paid and ¥130,000,000 for business expenditure, the receipts in premiums during 1936 still amounted to more than ¥250,000,000 which represented an increase of that amount in the legal reserves and assets of the companies.

The following is a table showing the business conditions of the insurance companies in regard to contracts during the past 10 years, the figures being given in units of one thousand yen :

LIFE INSURANCE CONTRACTS
During Past 10 Years

	At Beginning of Year	New Contracts	Lapsed or Cancelled Contracts	Percentage of Cancelled and Lapsed Contracts
1927	5,528,527	1,170,065	730,038	62.4
1928	5,969,131	1,330,593	750,278	56.3
1929	6,540,102	1,413,838	784,779	55.5
1930	7,182,427	1,364,860	829,799	60.8
1931	7,694,198	1,558,390	954,628	61.3
1932	8,241,553	1,627,619	1,130,026	69.4
1933	8,743,141	1,980,418	1,021,981	51.6
1934	9,613,182	2,393,696	931,456	38.9
1935	10,984,081	2,676,783	991,893	37.1
1936	12,648,802	3,021,280	1,000,322	33.1

Note: Figures in the table are based on the Insurance Year Book, except those for 1936 which are based on estimation.

Net Increase	Percentage of Increase	At End of Year	Premiums Received	Benefits Paid
440,598	37.7	5,969,125	252,568	69,282
570,972	42.9	6,540,103	274,633	78,290
659,674	46.7	7,199,776	318,658	86,897
511,771	37.1	7,694,198	317,883	94,793
561,527	36.1	8,255,725	331,579	109,110
501,588	44.4	8,743,141	346,761	116,299
870,041	43.9	9,613,182	376,315	126,341
1,370,895	57.3	10,984,077	450,290	139,570
1,551,662	58.0	12,535,743	484,233	146,623
1,877,242	62.1	14,526,044	551,888	167,288

The following table shows the percentage of business expenditure to the premiums received during the 9 years beginning with 1927, the figures being given in units of one thousand yen :

	Business Expenditure	Premiums Received	%
1927	68,434	252,568	27.1
1928	73,100	274,633	26.6
1929	77,065	318,658	24.2
1930	74,881	317,883	23.6
1931	78,894	331,579	23.8
1932	85,893	346,761	24.8
1933	95,554	376,315	25.4
1934	110,519	450,290	24.5
1935	115,837	484,233	23.9

The percentage of expenditure rose in 1931, 1932 and 1933 but declined in 1934 and 1935 until it was about on the 1931 level. For 1936 it is estimated that expenditure will be about ¥130,000,000 in which case it would represent 23.5 per cent of the premiums received. This means that the percentage of expenditure is expected to have dropped in 1936.

Although the total new contracts of all the life insurance companies throughout the country amounted to upwards of ¥3,000,000,000, the share of the more than 20 medium and small-size companies was only about ¥900,000,000, the remainder being taken by the five big life insurance companies and the insurance departments of the three big financial interests. The net increase in the contracts of the medium and small-size companies did not exceed ¥300,000,000 which was only about 30 per sent of the new contracts. The amount of contracts cancelled is estimated at more than ¥500,000,000 or as much as from 53 to 54 per cent of the new contracts.

The business expenditure of many of the medium and small-size companies represented from 40 to 60 per cent of the premiums received. In other words, the business conditions of these companies continued to be in an exceedingly depressed state. The Toyo Life Insurance Company was liquidated toward the end of 1936, with its contracts transferred to the Teikoku (Imperial) Life Insurance Company. The present conditions are such that unless the remaining medium and small-size companies are adjusted, it will be difficult to renovate the life insurance business.

Operation of Funds

The profit-yielding assets of the life insurance companies at the end of 1935 was estimated to total ¥2,500,000,000 and the amount must have increased to about ¥2,800,000,000 by the end of 1936. Some 60 per cent of the assets consists of securities, about 25 per cent consists of loans and the remainder, of deposits and immovable property. It may be said that the investments of the insurance companies during 1936 were centered on securities, particularly stocks which are estimated to have amounted to nearly ¥600,000,000. Details of the descriptions of the stocks selected are still unknown but it may not be amiss to include the gas, spinning, mining, machinery manufacturing and chemical industrial stocks.

The yields of the profit-yielding property in 1935 amounted to 5.48 per cent. In spite of the fact that the investments in stocks have of late increased remarkably under the low-interest tendency of public bonds and debentures as well as loans, it is believed that the yields have not declined by more than 0.1 per cent if at all. Compared with two or three years ago, however, there has been a considerable decline in the yields.

Under these circumstances, it is but natural that much discussion should have taken place regarding rates of interest and the percentage of dividend. Particularly heated discussions arose in regard to measures to be taken to cope with the low yields when the then Finance Minister, Mr. Eiichi Baba, made known his plan for a compulsory possession of public bonds by the life insurance companies. As a result, the Ministry of Commerce and Industry decided to cause new insurance to lower the rates of interest while authorizing a 3 per cent interest for the Meiji Life Insurance Company and a 3.5 per cent interest for other companies.

Plan for Control

The question has been raised as to whether the investments of the life insurance companies should be controlled in order that they absorb a fair quota of the deficit-covering loan bonds. It has also been proposed that the projected control should be enforced jointly by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry and the Ministry of Finance. The interest taken in this plan has been centered on the extent to which the projected control will be enforced because too strong a control is liable to minimize the characteristics of the private insurance business. How this question is to be settled remains to be seen.

Furthermore, the Ministry of Communications planned to enlarge the scope of the government-managed insurance business by raising the maximum limit of the amount of the simple insurance contracts and creating a fixed insurance under Government management. This plan has also created a sensation inasmuch as an enlargement of the scope of the government-managed insurance business will narrow the territory of the private insurance business, thus bringing conditions near to the line of so-called State-managed insurance.

In the meantime, a control of the insurance business has been realized in Manchuria. For the enforcement of this control, a Manchuria Life Insurance Company was organized in October.

1936, under the joint management of Japan and Manchoukuo. This company is capitalized at ¥3,000,000, half of the sum being paid by the Manchoukuo Government and the other half by the interested companies in Japan proper. Being scheduled to commence business in the near future, the company will monopolize all life insurance contracts amounting to less than ¥20,000,000 apiece in Manchuria.

It is not expected that there will arise any evil factors as will oppress the business conditions of the life insurance companies during 1937 now that the plan to impose a tax on insurance money has been dropped and inflation is expected to continue. Nevertheless, it is to be noted that the insurance companies are confronted with the necessity of curtailing their business expenditure. It is estimated that the new contracts in 1937 will total ¥3,300,000,000 or ¥3,400,000,000 against a net increase of around ¥2,100,000,000.

With reference to the assets of the life insurance companies, it is expected that the ¥3,100,000,000 mark will be passed, meaning an increase of approximately ¥300,000,000 in 1937. So far as the operatin of funds is left to the discretion of the insurance companies investment in stocks is expected to continue to increase.

Japan's grand total of insurance business for the last 12 business years, as prepared by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, follows :

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Business Year	Number of Concerns	Paid-up Capital and Funds	Liability Reserves at End of year	Contracts in Force at End of Year	
				No.	Amount
		(In ¥1,000 and 1,000 contracts)			
1921-22	93	91,176	510,869	8,952	10,670,858
1922-23	95	118,043	591,350	11,121	13,699,379
1923-24	96	119,043	670,003	11,467	13,971,965
1924-25	95	119,043	780,115	13,633	16,704,023
1925-27	95	122,018	890,457	15,876	19,269,426
1926-27	95	124,062	1,016,929	16,029	20,651,623
1927-28	93	123,757	1,130,869	17,517	22,268,970
1928-29	94	123,585	1,253,062	19,086	23,752,130
1929-30	93	124,335	1,408,520	22,199	25,949,943
1930-31	92	123,229	1,519,352	23,097	27,490,657
1931-32	91	122,170	1,637,178	22,693	27,469,633
1932-33	89	122,570	1,831,610	23,123	29,427,346
1933-34	84	150,925	1,985,929	25,443	33,108,786
1934-35	84	151,275	2,350,077	26,480	34,902,161
1935-36	83	160,272	2,442,402	27,065	37,480,859

CONTRACTS OF INSURANCE COMPANIES

(In ¥1,000,000)

Kind	New Contracts	Contracts at Year End	New Contracts	Contracts at Yer End
	1934		1935	
Life	2,072	11,059	2,706	12,650
Fire	49,064	33,750	50,825	35,113
Marine	14,431	3,070	16,037	3,106
Transportation	7,299	335	8,147	394
Accident	268	216	299	234
Automobile	104	91	138	105
Burglary	15	17	14	17
Fidelity	8	6	8	7
Engine and boiler	4	4	4	4

INSURANCE COMPANIES
1930–1935

(Amount in yen)

Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Number of Companies	Capital or Fund		Reserve Found	
			Authorized	Paid-up	Liability and Current	Others
Accident	1930-31				707,136	45,728,277
	1931-32				773,651	51,818,800
	1932-33				893,369	54,242,900
	1933-34				945,927	57,815,170
	1934-35				1,045,697	61,589,100
Fire	1930-31				104,127,232	64,889,160
	1931-32				105,263,129	64,726,756
	1932-33				110,585,848	67,391,681
	1933-34				114,713,943	71,726,746
	1934-35				116,393,087	76,173,940
Marine	1930-31				70,648,175	52,849,608
	1931-32				69,803,589	55,550,554
	1932-33				72,077,803	55,018,772
	1933-34				76,628,071	67,553,842
	1934-35				80,132,896	72,028,475
Transportation	1930-31				2,152,045	59,609,464
	1931-32	1930-31 5	294,000,000	100,915,000	2,059,980	60,555,454
	1932-33				1,871,347	62,739,172
	1033-34				2,043,729	66,808,842
	1934-35				2,176,179	71,174,239
Fidelity	1930-31				80,000	6,547,990
	1931-32				93,500	12,750,700
	1932-33				97,000	12,773,200
	1933-34	1931-32 51	290,500,000	99,900,000	95,000	18,118,800
	1934-35				93,000	18,514,800
Engine and Boiler	1930-31				41,324	55,203
	1931-32	1932-33 51	284,900,000	98,622,500	40,050	56,740
	1932-33				39,727	58,640
	1933-34				39,031	60,560
	1934-35				44,096	63,560
Automobile	1930-31				2,067,320	41,574,577
	1931-32	1933-34 51	329,900,000	128,088,645	2,102,260	47,612,200
	1932-33				2,190,315	49,950,200
	1933-34				2,274,918	53,494,800
	1934-35	1934-35 51	329,900,000	128,762,500	2,530,498	57,226,800
Burglary	1930-31				185,927	82,650,772
	1931-32				276,045	38,885,000
	1932-33				245,717	41,213,000
	1933-34				249,745	44,050,000
	1934-35				242,784	42,291,000
Glass	1930-31				07,417	21,875,881
	1931-32				42,674	28,370,000
	1932-33				153,877	30,220,000
	1933-34				58,199	32,600,000
	1934-35				62,398	34,385,000
Life	1930-31				1,263,134,591	117,345,902
	1931-32				1,371,312,737	115,323,750
	1933-33	1930-31 40	43,530,000	22,270,000	1,483,841,742	130,732,919
	1933-34	1931-32 40	46,030,000	22,895,000	1,609,662,549	147,526,178
	1834-35	1932-33 38	46,880,000	22,720,000	1,798,822,750	146,785,642
		1933-34 34	42,650,000	23,437,500		
		1934-35 33	45,800,000	22,512,500		
Conscription	1930-31				125,761,781	2,938,904
	1931-32				140,447,768	2,799,387
	1932-33				159,713,779	3,589,619
	1933-34				179,217,142	4,722,361
	1934-35				201,530,031	6,126,596

Conditions of Business
Earnings

Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Premiums	Interest	Others	Total
Accident	1930-31	641,479	—	10,138	651,617
	1931-32	623,425	—	16,861	640,286
	1932-33	726,101	—	94,810	820,911
	1933-34	952,702	—	111,581	1,064,283
	1934-35	—	—	—	905,167
Fire	1930-31	88,114,367	8,161,557	19,617,218	115,893,142
	1931-32	86,565,556	8,073,139	18,701,654	113,340,349
	1932-33	88,330,852	7,944,468	21,891,064	118,666,384
	1933-34	94,082,693	8,053,153	21,222,340	123,358,186
	1934-35	—	—	—	126,168,944
Marine	1930-31	29,428,116	12,273,210	8,077,114	48,778,440
	1931-32	24,821,774	12,224,926	0,383,383	47,430,083
	1932-33	26,689,037	12,848,842	19,960,740	49,498,619
	1933-34	31,101,512	13,786,286	8,257,452	53,145,250
	1934-35	—	—	—	57,449,315
Transportation	1930-31	878,012	—	20,517	898,529
	1931-32	692,539	—	24,370	716,909
	1932-33	791,657	—	11,515	803,172
	1933-34	1,021,082	—	25,243	1,046,325
	1934-35	—	—	—	1,212,326
Fidelity	1930-31	08,914	—	6,205	115,119
	1931-32	196,353	—	7,355	103,708
	1932-33	68,940	—	6,151	93,091
	1933-34	83,719	—	6,112	89,831
	1934-35	—	—	—	90,810
Engine and Boiler	1930-31	120,109	16,642	4,210	40,961
	1931-32	81,275	10,746	9,716	101,737
	1932-33	79,195	9,650	9,784	198,629
	1933-34	80,542	11,385	9,848	101,775
	1934-35	—	—	—	108,903
Automobile	1930-31	1,426,762	5,641	8,617	1,441,320
	1931-32	1,359,529	5,369	36,533	1,401,431
	1932-33	1,543,239	5,026	10,996	1,559,260
	1933-34	1,749,665	5,778	41,344	1,796,787
	1934-35	—	—	—	2,014,636
Burglary	1930-31	58,889	—	657	59,546
	1931-32	35,564	—	743	36,307
	1932-33	59,180	—	962	60,142
	1933-34	59,158	—	1,332	60,490
	1934-35	—	—	—	63,150
Glass	1930-31	4,138	—	168	4,306
	1931-32	3,998	—	205	4,203
	1932-33	6,983	—	237	7,220
	1933-34	7,680	—	460	8,140
	1934-35	—	—	—	12,702
Life	1930-31	294,288,980	79,245,861	13,137,302	386,672,173
	1931-32	309,473,125	83,809,213	12,707,823	405,990,161
	1932-33	320,137,748	92,551,304	19,583,430	458,872,225
	1933-34	350,372,780	99,973,149	26,522,160	476,868,089
	1934-35	—	—	—	553,713,646
Conscription	1930-31	23,593,777	8,043,992	1,042,661	32,680,430
	1931-32	22,106,176	8,401,764	2,855,319	33,363,259
	1932-33	26,628,705	12,462,744	6,254,506	45,340,955
	1933-34	25,939,982	11,057,417	5,254,869	42,252,268
	1934-35	—	—	—	50,851,063

Conditions of Business
Expenses

Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Claims Paid	Payment by Contract other than Claims	Business Expenses	Others	Total
Accident	1930-31	247,680	4,420	245,179	12,635	509,914
	1931-32	276,357	5,817	233,417	8,309	523,900
	1932-33	477,406	8,769	307,868	14,798	808,841
	1933-34	538,176	11,392	381,344	14,828	945,735
	1934-35	—	—	—	—	1,030,061

Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Premiums	Interest		Other	Total
Fire	1930-31	32,346,239	9,525,008	53,204,534	9,116,779	104,192,560
	1931-32	33,941,596	9,564,105	51,488,784	7,150,417	102,144,902
	1932-33	33,962,233	10,711,007	52,125,132	6,479,769	103,278,141
	1933-34	34,704,434	12,259,579	55,594,541	9,660,150	109,218,704
	1934-35	—	—	—	—	116,824,625
Marine	1930-31	20,502,206	1,843,089	6,736,109	10,360,640	39,442,046
	1931-32	17,988,187	1,759,847	6,026,539	12,119,924	37,894,497
	1932-33	18,128,982	2,053,878	6,080,650	9,116,202	35,379,712
	1933-34	19,602,005	2,317,516	6,823,090	7,605,849	36,348,460
	1934-35	—	—	—	—	39,697,384
Transportation	1930-31	178,552	96,725	211,078	3,325	489,680
	1931-32	142,850	80,640	179,152	10,439	413,081
	1932-33	122,169	77,475	185,420	3,949	389,013
	1933-34	100,487	99,038	215,810	7,894	423,229
	1934-35	—	—	—	—	705,761
Fidelity	1930-31	31,222	5,014	33,913	94	68,327
	1931-32	29,304	4,032	31,605	96	70,898
	1932-33	35,165	2,150	28,426	89	66,229
	1933-34	35,564	2,078	26,111	105	55,114
	1934-35	26,820	—	—	—	48,960
Engine and Boiler	1930-31	—	1,008	113,258	9,631	123,897
	1931-32	—	919	79,126	7,466	87,511
	1932-33	—	730	77,312	5,644	83,025
	1933-44	—	664	78,199	7,162	86,025
	1934-35	—	—	—	—	87,015
Automobile	1930-31	700,338	262,097	495,649	29,813	1,037,897
	1931-32	707,010	235,583	495,687	22,979	1,461,259
	1932-33	826,684	263,314	492,289	15,748	1,598,035
	1933-34	866,525	275,363	540,735	74,302	1,756,925
	1934-35	—	—	—	—	1,745,341
Burglary	1930-31	25,523	5,225	15,676	100	46,533
	1931-32	20,833	710	13,147	80	34,770
	1932-33	29,153	826	20,404	854	51,237
	1933-34	22,836	1,339	22,151	511	46,837
	1934-35	—	—	—	—	43,829
Glass	1930-31	2,040	408	775	10	3,233
	1931-32	2,335	266	888	11	3,500
	1932-33	3,753	319	1,452	19	5,543
	1933-34	5,339	559	1,826	13	7,737
	1934-35	—	—	—	—	8,644
Life	1930-31	93,874,841	53,585,432	68,463,909	59,305,724	275,229,906
	1931-32	108,033,944	69,521,359	71,609,063	30,844,607	280,008,973
	1932-33	114,600,140	77,059,835	75,293,331	26,098,902	298,052,208
	1933-34	124,659,486	78,516,055	83,935,600	22,959,150	310,070,291
	1934-35	—	—	—	—	356,324,141
Conscription	1930-31	918,577	3,749,397	6,417,199	9,491,906	20,577,079
	1931-32	1,076,070	4,811,537	7,284,566	5,359,134	18,531,307
	1932-33	1,698,627	7,593,676	10,599,968	5,877,887	25,770,158
	1933-34	1,681,245	5,831,146	11,618,262	2,753,896	21,884,549
	1934-35	—	—	—	—	27,544,203

Conditions of Business

Kind of Insurance	Business Year	New Contracts		Contracts in force at the End of Business Year	
		Number	Amount	Number	Amount
Accident	1930-31	111,069	100,145,000	105,814	78,694,000
	1931-32	96,318	113,015,000	88,004	89,274,000
	1932-33	115,844	132,700,000	97,907	104,977,000
	1933-34	224,595	199,925,000	206,709	172,879,000
	1934-35	186,198	204,813,000	174,057	160,728,000
Fire	1930-31	19,498,471	22,855,352,000	15,815,125	18,135,844,000
	1931-32	17,913,069	21,821,161,000	15,086,303	17,526,420,000
	1932-33	18,230,713	23,942,948,000	15,321,736	18,627,406,000
	1933-34	20,377,560	27,593,329,000	16,943,563	21,119,623,000
	1934-35	20,856,048	28,678,717,000	17,064,927	21,321,758,000

Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Number	Amount	Number	Amount
Marine	1930-31	4,158,871	6,473,136,000	707,156	1,338,530,000
	1931-32	4,437,864	5,962,947,000	773,466	1,359,601,000
	1932-33	4,509,510	7,044,774,000	805,934	1,619,671,000
	1933-34	5,140,252	7,874,981,000	884,104	1,796,231,000
	1934-35	5,983,524	9,676,112,000	975,081	2,056,947,000
Transportation	1930-31	1,637,266	3,648,717,000	76,887	180,731,000
	1931-32	1,603,594	3,303,935,000	72,783	175,673,000
	1932-33	1,638,537	4,156,334,000	75,037	258,971,000
	1933-34	1,744,067	5,521,416,000	82,913	334,900,000
	1934-35	1,921,886	6,067,066,000	96,020	295,399,000
Fidelity	1930-31	3,434	7,661,000	2,943	5,715,000
	1931-32	3,443	6,677,000	3,167	5,779,000
	1932-33	3,436	6,299,000	3,196	5,543,000
	1933-34	3,407	5,976,000	3,179	5,097,000
	1934-35	4,123	6,734,000	3,883	6,124,000
Engine and Boiler	1930-31	1,708	6,679,000	1,187	4,472,000
	1931-32	1,171	4,310,000	1,171	4,310,000
	1932-33	1,182	4,701,000	1,182	4,035,000
	1933-34	1,251	4,226,000	1,233	4,182,000
	1934-35	1,302	4,455,000	1,288	4,313,000
Automobile	1930-31	77,112	65,820,000	58,316	47,421,000
	1931-32	88,449	62,986,000	60,664	47,735,000
	1932-33	94,532	70,285,000	66,083	53,934,000
	1933-34	87,525	70,868,000	59,481	53,186,000
	1934-35	100,792	95,712,000	60,474	63,088,000
Burglary	1930-31	22,478	7,644,000	3,175	4,992,000
	1931-32	4,059	6,267,000	3,484	5,055,000
	1932-33	4,371	11,750,000	3,610	9,539,000
	1933-34	4,230	11,461,000	3,546	9,314,000
	1934-35	4,596	12,100,000	3,829	9,537,000
Glass	1930-31	242	66,000	227	60,000
	1931-32	234	62,000	229	61,000
	1932-33	298	136,000	278	129,000
	1933-34	345	129,000	326	120,000
	1934-35	397	199,000	391	192,000
Life	1930-31	704,167	1,254,493,000	5,310,878	7,113,828,000
	1931-32	793,909	1,430,738,000	5,492,808	7,643,858,000
	1932-33	842,215	1,438,364,000	5,668,350	8,065,173,000
	1933-34	1,056,220	1,756,493,000	6,029,271	8,806,589,000
	1934-35	1,286,437	2,144,302,000	6,702,346	10,049,122,000
Conscription	1930-31	146,688	110,367,000	1,016,055	580,370,000
	1931-32	155,493	127,652,000	1,023,636	611,867,000
	1932-33	226,217	189,255,000	1,080,047	677,968,000
	1933-34	268,296	223,925,000	1,229,857	806,593,000
	1934-35	317,963	249,392,000	1,398,454	934,953,000

Note: Business year covers the period from April 1 to Much 31 of the following year. Most companies have several kinds of insurance and accordingly capital is not given here separately.

PRINCIPAL FOREIGN INSURANCE COMPANIES IN JAPAN

Compiled by the Department of Commerce and Industry

(Amount in yen)

LIFE INSURANCE

Business Year	Number of Companies	Deposits with the Govt.	Premiums Received	Claims Paid	Business Conditions: New Contracts No.	New Contracts Amount	Contracts in Force at the End of Business Year No.	Contracts in Force at the End of Business Year Amount
1930-31	3	27,189,420	13,419,465	5,403,514	6,606	42,321,000	41,162	239,064,000
1931-32	3	31,643,125	13,749,202	5,983,207	5,834	33,209,000	41,894	243,397,000
1932-33	3	31,708,560	12,256,409	6,065,434	3,528	17,698,000	38,957	220,780,000
1933-34	3	30,750,399	10,629,538	4,994,645	2,177	11,260,000	34,822	189,614,000
1934-35	3	30,013,250	9,367,042	4,863,891	1,919	8,960,000	31,253	162,849,000

FIRE INSURANCE

Business Year	Number of Companies	Deposits with the Govt.	Premiums Received	Claims Paid	Business Conditions: New Contracts No.	New Contracts Amount	Contracts in Force at the End of Business Year No.	Contracts in Force at the End of Business Year Amount
1930-31	26	5,625,033	6,099,768	2,727,712	363,437	1,912,953,000	297,612	1,194,171,000
1931-32	26	5,677,337	5,008,450	2,346,005	287,047	1,516,256,000	235,557	974,365,000
1932-33	26	4,978,522	4,438,087	2,519,249	201,824	1,473,093,000	143,650	918,122,000
1933-34	26	5,192,902	5,164,637	1,944,304	291,280	1,648,619,000	197,786	1,009,489,000
1934-35	26	5,435,923	6,167,260	6,879,393	363,519	2,010,920,000	237,731	1,271,407,000

MARINE INSURANCE

Business Year	Number of Companies	Deposits with the Gov.	Premiums Received	Claims Paid	Business Conditions: New Contracts No.	New Contracts Amount	Contracts in Force at the End of Business Year No.	Contracts in Force at the End of Business Year Amount
1930-31	16	4,175,463	981,072	529,586	91,724	377,486,000	16,555	35,230,000
1931-32	16	4,111,716	808,237	422,664	91,454	258,240,000	18,767	34,648,000
1932-33	16	3,740,556	1,052,831	575,059	107,901	316,005,000	16,452	46,737,000
1933-34	16	3,954,937	1,474,722	807,466	137,684	386,125,000	20,883	76,146,000
1934-35	16	4,058,712	1,833,343	2,155,218	155,613	467,512,000	22,549	92,191,000

INVESTMENTS OF HOME INSURANCE COMPANIES

The Insurance Year Book by the Department of Commerce and Industry

(Amount in ¥1,000)

Year	Number of Companies	Advances: Mortgages on Real Estate	Mortgages on Factories, etc.	Mortgages on Vessels	Loans on Securities	Loans on Companies' Policies	Loans to Public Bodies	Other	Total
1930-31	92	69,484	82,228	15,313	84,758	153,994	42,399	6,060	454,239
1931-32	91	80,590	104,180	13,410	102,760	191,642	49,214	6,269	548,067
1932-33	89	82,070	118,836	12,288	126,151	220,418	64,964	3,842	628,572
1933-34	84	78,344	87,287	11,354	118,216	230,438	58,305	7,003	590,950
1934-35	84	77,377	76,675	10,900	105,885	242,695	54,676	4,180	572,386
1935-36	83	70,818	83,036	10,152	112,582	257,602	109,071	7,338	650,602

	Securities: Government Bonds	Local Governments Bond	Debentures	Shares	Foreign Bonds	Total	Deposits with Banks	Grand Total
1930-31	129,646	86,174	412,111	315,753	14,632	958,318	274,512	1,687,069
1931-32	120,586	94,026	460,749	305,498	17,744	998,604	261,370	1,808,041
1932-33	114,238	93,489	482,828	332,179	43,839	1,071,575	271,129	1,971,277
1933-34	128,469	130,871	513,099	441,031	49,196	1,262,669	335,077	2,188,696
1934-35	177,674	101,904	564,989	594,279	49,529	1,488,375	340,372	2,401,133
1935-36	218,693	82,953	593,811	679,294	82,992	1,657,743	360,320	2,668,664

(1) JAPANESE CONCERNS

Life Insurance Companies	Est'd.		Est'd.
Teikoku Life	1888	×Dai-ichi Life	1902
Meiji Life	1893	Taihei Life	1909
Yasuda Life	1894	Nisshin Life	1907
Aikoku Life	1896	Nippon Conscription	1911

	Est'd.
Nikka Life	1914
×Fukoku Conscription	1923
Taiyo Life	1896
Taisho Life	1913
Toyo Life	1900
Nippon Kyoritsu Life	1894
Fukutoku Life	1912
Yurin Life	1894
Yokohama Life	1907
Daido Life	1902
Katakura Life	1921
Nippon Dantai Life	1934
Fukuju Life	1908
×Showa Life	1931
Fuji Life	1909
Nippon Kyoiku Life	1896
Property Insurance Companies	
Tokyo Marine and Fire	1878
Meiji Life	1891
Teikoku Morine and Fire	1893
Nippon Marine	1896
Nippon Movables Fire	1898

	Est'd.
Tomei Fire and Insurance	1907
Toho Fire	1911
Chiyoda Fire	1913
Taisho Marine and Fire	1918
Japan Automobile	1928
×Nippon Life	1889
Jinju Life	1894
Dai-ichi Conscription	1898
×Chiyoda Life	1904
Sumitomo Life	1907
Mitsui Life	1914
×Japan Physicians' Mutual Relief	1919
Tokyo Life	1888
Nippon Fire	1892
Osaka Marine and Fire	1883
Yokohama Fire and Marine	1897
Kobé Marine Transport and Fire	1907
Okura Fire and Marine	1911
Teikoku Fire	1912
Fuso Marine and Fire	1917
Mitsubishi Marine and Fire	1919

× Represents companies on a mutual basis.

(2) FOREIGN INSURANCE CONCERNS

Sun Life Assurance Co. of Canada, Montreal (Tokyo Office)
The Manufacturers Life Insurance Co., Toronto (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The New York Life Insurance Co. (Japan Office Tokyo)
The London and Lancashire Insurance Co., Ltd. (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The London Provincial Marine and General Insurance Co., Ltd. (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The Northern Assurance Co., Ltd., London (Japan Office Tokyo)
The Phoenix Assurance Co., Ltd., London (Japan Office Tokyo)
The Guardian Assurance Co., Ltd., London (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The New Zealand Insurance Co., Ltd., Oakland, N. Z. (Japan Office Tokyo)
Royal Exchange Assurance Corporation, London (Japan Office Tokyo)
Union Insurance Society of Canton, Ltd., Hongkong (Japan Office, Yokohama)
The North China Insurance Co., Ltd., Shanghai (Japan Office Yokohama)
The Yangtze Insurance Association, Ltd., Shanghai (Japan Office, Yokohama)
Union Assurance Society, Ltd., London (Japan Office, Yokohama)
The London Assurance Corporation (Japan Office, Yokohama)
L'Union Fire, Accident and General Insurance Co., Paris (Japan Office, Yokohama)
The Palatine Insurance Co., London (Japan Office, Yokohama)
Royal Insurance Co., Ltd., Liverpool (Japan Office, Tokyo)
Norwich Union Fire Insurance Society, Ltd., Norwich (Japan Office, Tokyo)
Caledonian Insurance Co., Edinburgh (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The Netherlands Insurance Co., The Hague (Japan Office, Yokohama)
The Liverpool & London & Globe Insurance Co., Ltd., Liverpool (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The North British Mercantile Insurance Co., Ltd., London (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The Yorkshire Insurance Co., Ltd., New York and London (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The Sun Insurance Office, Ltd., London (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The Law Union and Rock Insurance Co., Ltd., London (Japan Office, Yokohama)
The Home Insurance Co., New York (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The Continental Insurance Co., New York (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The Hong-Kong Fire Insurance Co., Ltd. (Japan Office, Yokohama)
The Canton Insurance Office, Ltd. (Japan Office, Yokohama)
The Alliance Assurance Co., Ltd. (Japan Office, Yokohama)
The Commercial Union Assurance Co., Ltd., London (Japan Office, Yokohama)
The South British Insurance Co., Ltd., Oakland, New Zealand (Japan Office, Tokyo)

ASSOCIATIONS

Association of Life Insurance Companies of Japan, Tokyo (President, Mr. S. Hirosé)
Joint Fire Insurance Association of Japan, Tokyo (Prosident, Mr. K. Kagami)
Foreign Fire Insurance Association, Yokohama (President, Mr. James A. Dixon)
Marine Insurance Association of Japan, Tokyo (President, Mr. K. Kagami)

Post Office Life Insurance

With a view to promoting the welfare of the middle and lower classes of the community, the Post Office Life Insurance Law (Law No. 42) and the Post Office Life Insurance Special Account Law (Law No. 43) were promulgated on July 8th, 1916, the former being put into effect on October 1st and the latter on August 20th of the same year. The main features of the life insurance schemes may be summarized as follows :

1. This insurance is the work of the Government and is to be dealt with at the post offices.

2. The amount of insurance for a person will be from ¥20 up to ¥450.

3. The insured need not be subjected to any physical examination.

4. If the insured die within one and a half years from the conclusion of the insurance contract by some causes other than the calamities or the infectious diseases specified in law, a portion of the amount insured will not be paid.

5. This insurance is divided into Whole Life, Endowment and Infantile. Endowment policies are divided into seven kinds of the terms of 10 years, 15 years, 20 years, 25 years, 30 years, 35 years and 40 years. Infantile policies are, at present, either 15 years or 20 years endowment.

6. The age of a person to be newly insured must be between 3 and 60 years.

7. The Mortality Table constituting a basis for the computation of premium was compiled by adding 20% to the Male Mortality-Rates to the Japanese Population Table No. 2 published in 1912 by the Government Statistics Bureau. The rate of interest assumed is 3½% per annum.

8. The premium are to be paid monthly. Those who have difficulty in monthly payment of the premiums, such as seamen, emigrants and farmers, are allowed to pay the premiums in advance. In such case, the prescribed premiums are reduced.

9. The period within which premiums should be paid is fixed at one month. Two months' grace is allowed.

10. Within one year after the lapse of the policy, it may be revived.

11. When, after the conclusion of the contract, the insured either loses one or both of his limbs or becomes blind of both eyes, future premiums need not be paid.

Whenever a policy has been in force for a period of thirty years and the insured person has reached the age of 70, the policy holder concerned may propose to have his future premiums paid up.

12. When, after the lapse of five years from the conclusion of the contract, the payment of the insured sum or the repayment of the paid-in premium is made, the beneficiary shall receive an additional sum as a divided.

13. A loan may, on the application of the policy-holder, be granted within the limits of the amount which is to be paid back on the cancellation of the insurance contract, provided, however, that such loan shall not exceed 50/100 of the amount of insurance.

14. In order to maintain and promote the health of the insured, 197 Health Consultation Stations have, in pursuance of the Health Consultation Service Regulation, 1922, so far been established in the principal cities.

15. Beneficiaries or policy-holders are required to ask the judgment of the Post Office Life Insurance Committee of Inquiry prior to legal action against the Government for their contracts.

Post Office Life Annuities While the history of the Post Office Life Annuities may be traced to as far back as 1897, the authorities concerned thought it wise to introduce Post Office Life Insurance first and see how this would work. In 1926, changed social conditions and with the maturing of the first Post Office Life Insurance Endowment Policies gave favourable indications that the Annuity business would be successful, and a bill was introduced into and approved by the Diet in March.

The main features of the system which came into operation on October 1st of the same year may be summarized as follows :—

1. The annuity business is to be administered on the same system as that of the Post Office Life Insurance.

2. Annuities that may be purchased are divided into :

(1) Immediate Life Annuities.

(2) Deferred Life Annuities.

(a) Annuities commencing at the age of 50.

(b) Annuities commencing at the age of 55.

(c) Annuities commencing at the age of 60.

(d) Annuities commencing at the age of 65.

3. Post Office Life Annuities may be purchased either with or without provision for the return of the purchase money, and purchasers must select one of these two plans when they make their application.

4. The ages of persons entitled to become annuitants under this system must fall, in the case of Immediate Life Annuities between 40 and 80 inclusive and in the case of Deferred Life Annuities between 12 and 60 inclusive.

5. The premium rates are calculated on the mortality rates by deducting 20 per cent for males and 30 per cent for females from the general mortality rate of the Japanese population.

The rate of interest allowed in the calculation of the value of annuities under the instalment payment plan is 4 per cent. And under the single payment plan, the rate shall be determined, from time to time, by the Minister of Communications upon the basis of the current market price of public bonds. The rate is fixed at 4¼ per cent for the present.

The reserves to be maintained against policies are worked out by the net premium method.

6. The maximum annuity that can be purchased on the life of any one person is ¥2,400, and the minimum is ¥120 under the instalment premium plan or ¥12 under the single premium plan.

7. Premiums are payable either in a single sum or by instalments; in the latter case, the premium payment is divided into four periods, namely, 10 year payment, 15 year payment, 20 year payment and ordinary payment, and the premium may also be paid yearly, half yearly or quarterly. All premiums are payable at any post office designated by the purchaser or at his residence to the collector.

8. In the case of an Immediate Annuity, the payment of annuity will begin on the date of application and continue until the death of the annuitant. In the case of a Deferred Annuity, the payment of annuity will begin on the date the annuitant reaches a specified age and continue until the death of the annuitant.

9. Annuitants are given the right, subject to certain conditions, to claim change in their contracts.

10. Should events stipulated as reasons for the return of purchase money actually occur, such return is to be made according to prescribed conditions.

11. Provided a contract reserves the right for the purchaser or the annuitant to claim refund of premiums paid, such person may avail himself of a cash loan of not more than 50% of the premiums paid, provided that the sum is not less than ¥20 per cotract or, if the proceeds are to be applied to the payment of the premium, a sum equal to one year's premiums.

12. Annuitants or purchasers are requested, before bringing a civil action against the Government in respect of their contracts, to submit their cases to the Post Office Life Insurance Committee of Inquiry.

13. A special account is established for this business.

POST OFFICE LIFE INSURANCE.

Compiled by the Bureau of the Post Office Life Insurance, the Department of Communications

Financial Year	New Contracts			Revivals			Death		
	Number	Pre-miums	Sums insured	Number	Pre-miums	Sums insured	Number	Pre-miums	Sums insured
			(In yen)						
1926-27	2,507,116	1,908,997	339,637,009	64,185	44,845	8,305,391	107,082	80,124	14,188,785
1927-28	2,453,705	1,897,319	313,045,666	88,363	63,433	11,580,250	129,540	99,123	17,342,697
1928-29	2,502,585	2,332,353	369,607,993	97,080	71,469	12,808,561	150,617	116,572	20,092,944
1929-30	2,157,554	2,305,921	355,829,271	104,827	79,282	14,027,873	170,551	136,191	23,168,608
1930-31	2,434,292	2,308,475	357,792,091	131,351	103,096	17,871,493	186,446	153,736	25,691,415
1931-32	2,800,819	2,453,427	388,633,808	166,531	129,941	22,318,260	200,888	168,270	27,915,317
1932-33	2,883,356	2,412,635	371,027,797	177,317	139,218	23,617,173	213,314	178,651	29,538,679
1933-34	3,096,872	2,647,667	417,989,686	114,736	93,231	15,618,365	238,634	201,423	33,086,754
1934 35	3,150,881	2,827,243	453,306,719	78,796	65,403	10,842,614	257,899	216,506	35,608,107
1935-36	2,939,911	2,777,355	479,154,048	61,724	52,210	8,583,431	288,684	243,699	40,123,014

Financial Year	Expirations			Surrenders, Lapses and from other Causes		
	Number	Premiums	Sums insured	Number	Premiums	Sums insured
				(In yen)		
1926-27	10,235	6,138	589,757	716,217	572,159	100,435,851
1927-28	17,032	8,750	851,818	780,518	601,778	106,512,817
1928-29	21,461	12,891	1,251,261	788,359	626,070	109,665,482
1929-30	19,560	13,506	1,293,451	849,912	789,929	133,290,431
1930-31	25,413	19,962	1,918,265	1,255,103	1,194,688	196,626,198
1931-32	55,302	43,466	4,487,420	1,544,375	1,362,097	221,778,654
1932-33	113,022	105,125	10,719,540	1,344,635	1,174,803	194,729,177
1933-34	133,608	144,528	14,808,962	964,867	869,666	144,322,939
1934-35	202,282	249,120	25,283,853	804,643	762,455	129,779,382
1935-36	283,968	313,664	31,894,560	685,807	692,050	120,202,244

Financial Year	Net Increase			Contracts in Force at the End of the Financial Year		
	Number	Premiums	Sums insured	Number	Premiums	Sums insured
				(In yen)		
1926-27	1,737,767	1,385,421	232,728,007	10,051,455	7,235,071	1,286,507,900
1927-28	1,614,978	1,251,041	199,918,584	11,666,423	8,486,172	1,486,426,484
1928-29	1,639,228	1,648,289	251,406,866	13,305,661	10,134,461	1,737,833,350
1929-30	1,222,358	1,445,578	212,104,654	14,528,019	11,580,039	1,949,938,004
1930-31	1,098,681	1,043,185	151,427,706	15,626,700	12,623,224	2,101,365,710
1931-32	1,166,785	1,009,535	151,770,677	16,793,485	13,632,759	2,253,136,387
1932-33	1,389,702	1,093,274	159,657,564	18,183,187	14,726,033	2,412,793,951
1933-34	1,874,499	1,525,281	241,389,396	20,057,686	16,251,314	2,654,183,347
1934-35	1,964,853	1,664,565	273,477,991	22,022,539	17,915,879	2,927,661,338
1935-36	1,743,176	1,580,152	295,517,661	23,765,715	19,496,031	3,223,178,999

POST OFFICE LIFE ANNUITIES

Compiled by the Bureau of the Post Office Life Insurance the Department of Communications

Financial Year	Kind of Annuities	New Contracts			Deaths		
		No.	Premiums	Amt. of Annuities	No.	Premiums	Amt. of Annuities
				(In yen)			
1931-32	Immediate Annuities	3,398	4,272,465	343,952	417	418,408	38,648
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	12,998	2,828,411	896,390	811	77,951	37,048
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	16,751	561,973	2,271,458	458	13,764	51,454
1932-32	Immediate Annuities	4,609	5,536,318	437,472	476	445,484	40,759
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	15,235	3,524,888	1,093,903	1,047	134,418	49,017
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	16,077	544,602	2,170,603	426	15,948	51,929
1433 34	Immediate Annuities	5,413	6,536,965	501,012	560	628,061	56,891
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	16,587	4,771,335	1,327,205	1,148	124,324	51,645
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	19,642	827,549	2,751,437	551	21,118	66,900
1934-35	Immediate Annuities	4,718	5,089,198	358,611	725	725,571	65,443
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	11,825	3,370,317	684,037	1,213	152,323	56,722
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	28,215	1,577,225	4,212,438	634	22,454	75,795
1935-36	Immediate Annuities	5,868	5,435,903	383,765	851	788,337	71,509
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	15,467	4,179,067	864,840	1,414	217,169	73,493
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	18,364	962,777	2,491,939	710	27,488	86,496

Financial Year	Kind of Annuities	Surrenders No.	Surrenders Premiums	Surrenders Amt. of Annuities	Cancellation of Contracts by Statutes No.	Cancellation of Contracts by Statutes Premiums	Cancellation of Contracts by Statutes Amt. of Annuities
				(In yen)			
1931-31	Immediate Annuities	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	2,852	328,619	127,687	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	8,202	224,190	995,121	3,624	58,160	444,652
1932-33	Immediate Annuities	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	2,780	281,530	112,070	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	7,765	204,255	926,668	3,381	59,845	420,221
1933-34	Immediate Annuities	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	2,132	239,415	86,066	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	5,929	155,830	700,918	2,821	49,845	348,068
1934-35	Immediate Annuities	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	1,889	257,792	87,122	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	5,804	178,479	696,713	2,887	59,464	357,193
1935-36	Immediate Annuities	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	1,630	266,116	81,672	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	5,246	175,965	617,640	2,727	53,671	335,140

Financial Year	Kind of Annuities	Increase (+) or Decrease (−) from other Causes No.	Increase (+) or Decrease (−) from other Causes Premiums	Increase (+) or Decrease (−) from other Causes Amt. of Annuities	Contracts in Force at the End of the Financial Year No.	Contracts in Force at the End of the Financial Year Premiums	Contracts in Force at the End of the Financial Year Amt. of Annuities
				(In yen)			
1931-32	Immediate Annuities	+ 70	+ 31,610	+ 1,813	15,104	17,016,800	1,394,604
	Deferred Annities under the Single Premium Plan	− 68	− 70,547	− 13,250	142,451	16,672,213	6,894,915
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	− 76	− 91,490	−301,699	70,659	2,244,567	8,800,552
1932-33	Immediate Annuities	+114	+ 81,760	+ 5,610	19,351	22,219,474	1,796,918
	Deferred Annuitites under the Single Premium Plan	− 90	− 76,205	− 13,953	153,769	19,704,948	7,813,778
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	− 87	− 98,568	−281,697	75,077	2,410,553	9,290,640
1933-34	Immediate Annuities	+ 90	+ 65,371	+ 4,630	24,294	18,193,749	2,245,669
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	− 69	− 68,424	− 14,227	167,007	24,044,120	8,989,045
	Deferred Annutites under the Instalment Premium Plan	− 55	− 71,131	−228,148	85,363	2,940,178	10,698,043
1934-35	Immediate Annuities	+186	+145,119	+ 10,681	28,473	32,702,495	2,549,518
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	− 79	−119,445	− 19,838	175,651	26,884,877	9,509,400
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	−152	−176,762	−342,460	104,101	4,080,244	13,438,320
1935-36	Immediate Annuities	+159	+117,048	+ 8,430	33,649	37,467,109	2,870,204
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	− 88	−148,081	− 21,859	187,986	30,432,578	10,197,216
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	−104	−222,721	−489,983	113,678	4,563,176	14,400,998

Note: Premiums for the Deferred Annuitites under the Instalment Premium Plan indicate the amount of yearly payment.

LOANS AND INVESTMENTS OF THE P.O.L.I. FUND

At the end of March, each year

(In yen)

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Free lodging houses	624,952	599,584	571,561	538,941	409,657
Cheap eating houses	147,582	141,248	133,668	128,414	32,608
Public markets	5,369,456	5,136,193	5,274,586	5,031,142	4,928,921
Services for lowering cost of living	4,514	24,336	23,297	18,014	332,281
Cost Price Medical Service Work	2,305,582	2,438,280	2,356,453	2,230,100	1,105,803
Maternity hospitals	255,881	252,184	248,309	242,554	228,152
Public tuberculosis Sanatoriums	271,910	1,099,182	941,557	1,643,152	922,710
Redemption of old debts incurred for the running of public tuberculosis sanatoniums	30,031	30,031	172,987		
Labour exchanges	304,542	255,416	242,211	225,549	206,314
Public Pawn shops	1,470,060	1,570,545	1,530,751	1,582,612	1,231,910
Loans for the public pawnshop funds	37,000	44,198	120,172		
Day nurseries	268,308	258,922	240,959	222,123	193,680
Public bath-houses	101,263	95,227	101,030	90,983	101,760
Establishment and maintenance of peasant farmers	72,993,015	85,068,173	97,407,642	110,788,262	124,294,493
Local improvement & adjustment of boundaries	598,796	1,620,648	1,594,312	1,943,123	1,852,775
Petty amount industrial fund	80,000	578,048	933,324	133,306	127,561
Building schemes and private dwelling-houses	10,752,860	10,009,401	9,390,534	8,424,216	6,303,541
Redemption of old debts incurred for the building of dwelling houses	13,025	11,985	10,388		
Epidemic hospitals	3,095,918	2,921,332	2,827,729	2,214,257	1,754,615
Redemption of old debts incurred for the building of epidemic hospitals	549,452	494,587	453,578		
Sewerage	11,256,492	12,120,728	12,951,452	14,905,991	11,347,278
Redemption of old debts incurred for the aforesaid purpose	9,053,517	8,933,587	8,524,231		
Garbage equipment	1,215,470	1,321,748	1,477,951	613,968	446,484
Cooperative use of farm tools	2,300,863	2,113,861	2,127,529	2,124,705	1,244,861
Primary schools	41,781,120	36,589,071	33,886,447	20,959,879	13,914,558
Redemption of old debts incurred for the aforesaid purpose	4,477,763	3,928,192	3,316,921		
Business continuation schools	36,800	28,837	48,666	42,843	76,308
Public hospitals	562,046	509,826	523,749	558,163	549,348
Redemption of old debts incurred for the aforesaid purpose	65,231	117,590	196,029		
Water-works	27,592.835	32,101,736	33,914,413	16,818,483	8,421,714
Redemption of old debts incurred for the aforesaid purpose	16,254,453	19,594,863	18,724,771		
Cooperative equipment for aquatic industry	1,180,489	1,219,122	1,339,670	1,525,936	179,282
Adjustment of arable lands	313,211	132,125	70,161	79,506	122,369
Office buildings in cities, towns and villages	334,063	316,900	404,822	378,094	246,682
Advance against the insurance policies	50,046,822	67,871,575	85,452,269	97,525,839	107,977,639
Others and Total	268,995,585	302,973,321	333,173,405	295,139,511	294,944,061
Investments in Government bonds	69,769,984	87,913,050	105,700,088	116,480,821	140,585,131
Investments against other securities	71,186,405	126,029,787	142,200,252	265,581,610	406,895,647
Deposits at the Deposits Bureau	44,045,235	38,911,752	74,245,436	80,832,164	37,315,003
Cash on hand	70,000	1,776,000	1,121,700	370,000	475,000
Grand total	454,067,209	557,603,910	656,440,881	758,413,106	881,076,864

State Live-Stock Insurance

The live stock insurance business is making steady progress. In March, 1930 there were only 6 societies engaged in the live stock insurance business, and only 1,304 head were insured for an aggregate amount of ¥127,622. The amount had increased to ¥19,491,871 in March, 1934 and to ¥27,423,940 in March, 1936 with premiums received increasing from ¥2,166 in March, 1930 to ¥642,962 in March, 1935. The following shows the business results of the last 5 years :

LIVE STOCK INSURANCE

March of	Insurance Societies	Insured Animals	Insured Amount	Premiums Received (In yen)	Claims Paid
1931	102	41,474	4,156,117	83,277	20,749
1932	173	96,450	8,207,310	165,042	104,814
1933	209	173,450	13,024,819	279,630	167,002
1934	234	263,550	19,491,871	424,650	278,808
1935	241	367,542	27,542,940	642,962	365,603

LIVE STOCK INSURANCE CLASSIFIED BETWEEN HORSES AND CATTLE

March of		Insured Number of Animals	Insured Amount	Premiums
1931	Cattle	30,899	2,947,205	49,179
	Horses	10,572	1,208,912	34,098
1932	Cattle	66,939	5,470,796	88,423
	Horses	29,511	2,736,514	76,619
1933	Cattle	108,818	8,005,867	129,488
	Horses	65,073	5,018,952	150,142
1934	Cattle	165,356	12,306,058	203,019
	Horses	98,194	7,185,813	221,631
1935	Cattle	237,950	18,088,118	222,162
	Horses	129,592	9,335,822	320,800

State Health Insurance

On March 31, 1934, the number of labourers holding policies in the State Health Insurance was 2,001,481, an increase of 281,282 as compared with the previous year. Of the total, 1,965,026, or 98 per cent were compulsorily insured ; the number of contracts under Government control was 1,294,926 (65%) as against 706,555 (35%) of contracts under the control of 345 health insurance associations.

In 1933–34, the amount paid out to the beneficiaries reached ¥26,636,928 for 6,495,694 cases, an increase of ¥2,872,623 and 819,324 cases as compared with the previous year. Of the total number sickness accounted for as many as 88 per cent of the cases while injuries made up another 10 per cent.

In the same fiscal year the premiums collected totalled ¥29,304,218, an increase of ¥3,184,697 as compared with the previous year. For full particulars figures follow :

HEALTH INSURANCE

March of	Total	Persons Insured Compulsorily	Persons Insured Voluntarily	Persons Insured in Continuation Voluntarily
1929	1,933,613	1,901,550	31,847	216
1930	1,899,893	1,871,236	28,317	340
1931	1,547,780	1,518,476	28,868	436
1932	1,633,237	1,599,230	33,823	184
1933	1,720,199	1,684,509	35,530	160
1934	2,001,481	1,965,026	36,455	—
1935	2,326,694	2,306,322	20,372	—

UNDER GOVERNMENT CONTROL

March of	Total	Persons Insured Compulsorily	Persons Insured Voluntarily	Persons Insured in Continuation Voluntarily
1929	1,160,953	1,158,740	2,024	189
1930	1,146,258	1,143,997	1,921	340
1931	933,683	930,072	3,180	431
1932	1,047,553	1,043,702	3,667	184
1933	1,122,141	1,117,478	4,503	160
1934	1,294,926	1,290,439	4,487	—
1935	1,503,550	1,497,075	6,475	—

UNDER CONTROL OF HEALTH INSURANCE ASSOCIATIONS

March of	Number of Associations	Total	Persons Insured Compulsorily	Persons Insured Voluntarily	Persons Insured in Continuation Voluntarily
1929	343	772,660	742,810	29,823	27
1930	349	753,635	727,239	26,396	—
1931	345	614,097	588,404	25,688	5
1932	345	585,684	555,528	30,156	—
1933	347	598,058	567,031	31,027	—
1934	345	706,555	674,587	31,968	—
1935	349	823,144	809,247	13,897	—

PREMIUMS COLLECTED & INSURED MONEY PAID OUT

During	Total		Under Government Control		Under Control of Health Insurance Associations	
	Premium	Insured Money Paid Out	Premium	Insured Money Paid Out	Premium	Insured Money Paid Out
1928–29	36,817,377	33,149,373	18,735,541	16,654,838	18,081,831	16,493,535
1929–30	37,128,306	34,050,430	18'864,142	17,664,505	18,264,164	16,395,925
1930–31	33,213,428	32,723,084	17,754,974	17,593,322	15,458,454	15,129,762
1931–32	27,582,195	26,512,962	15,598,925	14,854,272	11,983,270	11,658,690
1932–33	26,119,521	23,557,575	15,177,291	13,648,413	10,942,230	9,909,162
1933 34	29,304,218	26,565,469	17,370,322	15,218,077	11,933,896	11,347,392
1934–35	34,849,101	31,259,688	20,421,257	17,697,443	14,427,844	13,562,245

CHAPTER XIII

AGRICULTURE

General Survey

Shogunate to Meiji Era Under the Tokugawa Shogunate farmers were restricted as to the kinds of crops they might grow while a favoured few were given special licenses for the cultivation of sugar cane and some other products. Not only did the statutory ban come direct from the Shogunate, but feudal clan governments, in their turn, put on their own restrictions and handed out their own favours. The farmers were unable to escape from these restrictions, one feudal government might be less strict than another and the tendency would be for an efflux of farmers from the areas with stringent regulations to the areas more lenient, but the Government prevented such migration by prohibiting the sale of cultivated land. As each feudal clan tried to raise enough food-stuffs for its own needs the majority of the farmers were compelled to centre their energies on the production of rice and barley, the main foods of the Japanese people.

Export Ban Raised Like the Tokugawa régime, the Meiji Government concentrated its energy on agricultural development, but in a more informed manner. The export of rice and barley, which was banned by the Tokugawas, was permitted by the Meiji Government from January, 1872, the fifth year of Meiji, and since then the free export of rice has been allowed in principle, although limits have been imposed occasionally, and for short times, because of the need of regulating the price of rice. The reason for the Government initiating rice exports was that it had decided to break away from the centuries' old custom of having taxes paid in rice, and accept monetary payments only. It possessed a large amount of rice in its warehouses, an amount which was ever increasing, and this fact prompted it to dispose of its stocks abroad to prevent the drop of rice prices and avert the consequent blow to Government finance. Th Government consigned the rice to a British trading concern, Walsh and Hall. The export lasted for two years, to January, 1874, and during this period 1,197,843 koku were shipped to Hongkong, Amoy, Shanghai, Swatow, Fukien, Sydney, Melbourne, London and San Francisco. By this sale, the Government obtained ¥4,925,-905. Trade conditions abroad at the time were very bad and the amount the Government received was about ¥1,420,000 less than might have been realized by selling the rice at home, but it had the desired offect of preventing a fall in domestic prices. After all, the greater part of the rice had been taken over without payment from the Tokugawa Shogunate and feudal clans, so the Government was by no means a loser on the transaction, and the farmers benefited as farm products were emancipated from all restrictions on trading. The Tokugawa ban on the sale of land was removed in part in 1872. By removing the ban the Meiji Government recognized the private ownership of land and, furthermore, made the sale and mortgaging of it easy by adopting a system of land certificates.

Relief of Unemployed Samurai The majority of samurai were naturally thrown out of employment by the Restoration of Meiji, and as they were the warrior class this situation was a great menace to the new Government. In order to give them proper employment the Government decided to encourage them in agricultural pursuits and as Hokkaido, the Ogasawara (Bonin) Islands, Sambongahara (Aomori prefecture) and Koganegahara (Chiba prefecture) required developing, the Government, in concert with former feudal lords, sent batches of samurai immigrants to these districts. A liberal subsidy was given to them, and as the results proved satisfactory the Government was successful in tiding over the possible crisis coming form a sudden increase of jobless samurai.

The Komaba School Toshimichi Okubo, one of the greatest figures of the Restoration, concentrated his energy on agricultural development. The Komaba Agricultural School, Tokyo, predecessor to the College of Agriculture of the Tokyo Imperial University, was founded in 1877 through his efforts. The Government protection for agricultural development was thoroughgoing. The appropriation of funds, establishment of agricultural schools and

experimental stations, importation and application of Western agricultural technique, plantation of beet sugar, sheep-raising, cattle-breeding and sundry other necessary steps for agricultural improvement were adopted.

Government Activities George A. H. Hall, an American agricultural expert, was engaged by the Government in 1871 as an adviser on live-stock breeding and farming. The importation of cotton seeds from the Netherlands, the opening of the Komaba Agricultural Experimental Station, and sundry other enterprises were undertaken. In 1875, the Government sent abroad officials and students to study agriculture. A sheep-raising industry was sanctioned and an eight year plan to bring the industry to an advanced stage of efficiency was devised. Farms were selected in three villages in Chiba prefecture and the enterprise was under the supervision of American experts. Sheep were imported from Australia, America and China. The Senju Woollen Cloth Manufacturing Co., still in existence under Government management, was established in September, 1879. Beet sugar cultivation was started with the creation of a sugar refining mill at Mombetsu, Hokkaido, in 1879, with Government support. The expenses were¥136,460. Work was started in 1881. The plantation area was 120 cho, and this was divided and allotted to 440 farm houses. Due to inexperience only 15,000 kin of sugar were produced and the plan to manufacture 700,000 kin of sugar yearly ended in failure. All these protective steps of the Government came to an end with the death of Okubo and the farming industry was left to look after itself until 1890.

New Ministry Created The Government in April, 1881, established the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, against public opinion, but its general policy seemed to be one of laisser faire and, in consequence, various Government enterprises were transferred to private management. For the ten years from the Sino-Japanese War, 1894–95, to the Russo-Japanese War, 1904–5, a policy of protection was resorted to, and various protective measures were adopted, such as enforcement of the Japan Hypothec Bank Law, Agricultural and Industrial Bank Law, Arable Land Readjustment Law, Agricultural Society Law, Co-operative, Society Law, Staple Produce Traders' Association Law, and the Prefecture Agricultural Experimental Station Treasury Subsidization Law.

Purpose of Measurers Taken Not only were these measurers intended to protect the farmers from troubles peculiar to their own industry but also to protect them from difficulties arising from the growth of other industries and competition of foreign farm products. Farm products in Japan were diminishing in quantity and quality for various reasons, such as the climate, labour wages and Japan's changing social and international relations. With the promotion of foreign trade, cheaper-priced farm products from abroad such as raw cotton, indigo and beans began to be imported in large quantities and, when the occupation of Formosa as the result of the Sino-Japanese War resulted in a rapid expansion of sugar cultivation in that region, large-scale enterprises at home were rendered unnecessary. The import tariff on raw cotton was concelled in April, 1896, and domestic plantations ceased to exist.

Subsidies and Tariff After the Sino-Japanese War bankruptcy was very rife among the farmers and relief was given to them by the passing of the Agricultural Society Law in 1899, by which agricultural societies were to be given an annual subsidy of ¥150,000. In 1906, rice and unhulled rice were taken off the free list and a duty of 64 sen per 100 kin was imposed on their importation, the tariff on barley was raised to 57 sen from 10.1 sen per 100 kin and that on wheat raised to 47 sen from 15.3 sen per 100 kin and, in 1911, the tariff on rice and unhulled rice was raised to one yen and that on wheat to 77 sen.

Other Encouragements During the first decade or so of the century the Government also paid much attention to agriculture in other directions, for instance, the Treasury was authorized to subsidize sericultural research and relieve farmers whose silk-worms had suffered from disease. An Increased Mulberry Growth Encouragement Fund, Land Improvement Encouragement Fund, Insect Ravage Prevention Fund and certain other funds and subsidies were paid out of the Treasury. As foreign rice and wheat were heavily imported agricultural interests suffered, a suffering that was not mitigated by the inflow of new capital, for capital was now being centralized in the cities, and farmers, ever in constant financial difficulties, wer compelled to borrow from money lenders at high rates of interest. Educated landlords found it advisable to give up farming and rural communities lost their leadership while urban industry gained.

The World War The World War promptly affected agriculture. Production in foreign countries fell, and as the prices of agricultural products rose

Japanese foodstuffs were exported in large quantities. In 1914 the export value of cereals, flour and starch totalled ¥9,000,000, in the following year it increased to ¥24,000,000, in 1916 it was ¥36,000,000, in 1917 it was ¥79,000,000, and in 1918 passed the ¥100,000,000 mark. There was also an increased home demand, the cities were enjoying unprecedented prosperity and while the prosperity lasted the farmers benefited; but with the termination of the war reaction set in, prices dropped, and agriculture found itself in the well of depression from which it has not yet extricated itself. The largest area under cultivation was 6,162,000 chobu, in 1921, but since then the area has steadily decreased.

Gold Embargo The replacement of the gold embargo enabled Japan to dodge the immediate settlement of its most important domestic problem, that of the farmers. The factors entering the equation were many and complicated, bearing directly not only upon the living standards of the agricultural community, which constitutes 46 per cent of Japan's population, but upon the solvency of the banks. Before the re-imposition of the gold embargo, rice was selling at ¥17 per koku, against a cost of production estimated at about ¥30. The factors in this high cost of production were dear money (the farmer paid 10 or 11 per cent on his borrowings), high taxes (where a profit was shown the farmer paid more than double the amount paid by the merchant, and where there were no profits the disproportion was infinitely greater), the cost of fertilizers, and the cost of living forced upward over a period of years by a rising tariff wall. Inability of the farms to pay taxes and interest had forced down the prices of real estate. Between the financial panic of 1927 and the replacement of the gold ban in December, 1931, such prices had fallen between 30 and 50 per cent, depending on locality. Lenders on rural real estate were carrying paper losses of between ¥500,000,000 and ¥625,000,000 the figure representing the difference between the current market price of the land and the amounts due, including defaults in interest and instalments. The losses represented between 20 and 25 per cent of the value of the total agricultural mortgages outstanding.

Land Value According to the investigation of the Hypothec Bank of Japan in March, 1936, the average value of land, which had kept declining since 1926 became stationary in 1933 and then began to rise in 1934, reached ¥435 per tan with paddy fields, a rise of ¥20 or 4.8 per cent and ¥259 with farms, a rise of ¥12 or 4.8 per cent, as compared with the previous year.

The reasons for this rise in land value may be found in the stability of agricultural industry because of the fixing of the minimum price of rice by the Rice Control Law, high price of rice in the year, the low interest rate which quickened the demand for arable land, gradual effect of the measures taken for the economic improvement of agricultural villages and the increased income of farmers from side-work stimulated by the general boom of industries in cities.

Farm Households and Arable Land

Farm Households Number of farm households totalled 5,610,607 at the end of 1935, which is 42% of the total number of households in Japan proper. Comparison with that of the previous year indicates a decrease of 6,879 (0.12%).

As classified into those engaged wholly or in part in agriculture, the figure consists of 4,164,035 (74%) of the former, and 1,446,572 of the latter.

Farm households cultivating their own lands numbered 1,732,086; the number of tenant-farmers and households cultivating their own lands together with those leased being 1,518,181 and 2,360,340 respectively.

During the past ten years there has been a noticeable increase of those farmers who cultivate their own land only, and also of those cultivating both their own land and some leased land as well: purely tenant-farmers show a tendency to decline in numbers.

Classified by size of area cultivated, farm-households cultivating less than 0.50 ha number 1,908,642, those between 0.50 and 0.99 ha, 1,919,073, between 0.99 and 1.98 ha 1,254,818, and those over 1.98 ha, 530,075.

Farmers operating on a small scale have decreased in numbers, while those on a medium and large scale have increased.

Owners of Arable-lands The number of owners of arable-lands totalled 5,147,412 at the end of 1935 increasing from that of the previous year by 51,217. When classified according to area owned, those who own less than 0.50 ha. number 2,555,398, and those owing from 0.50 ha. to under 0.99 ha. number 1,304,482. In this way the greater the areas, the less number of owners, and so those owning 49.59 ha. and over are only 3,415 (0.1%) in number. In the light of the tendency during the pre-

vious ten years uninterrupted increase is traceable in the total number, while by reference to the tendency of number fluctuation according to area owned, those under 2.98 ha. are pursuing a steady upward course, those owning more than 2.98 ha. showing the reverse trend.

Area of Arable-lands Area of arable-lands at the end of 1935 was computed at 6,008,680.40 ha., occupying 15% of the total area of Japan proper. This figure consists of 3,192,719.88 ha. (54%) of rice-fields and 2,815,960.55 ha. (46%) of upland-farms. Comparison of these figures with those of the previous year indicates increase of 878.26 ha. on the part of the former and increase of 20,054.67 ha. in the latter.

Classified into those cultivated by owners of lands and those by tenant-farmers, area cultivated by the former was 3,172,579.93 ha.(53%), increasing by 13,391.00 ha. (0.4%), the latter being 2,815,167.57 ha. (47%), lower by 4,583.40 ha. (0.2%), both as against the figures of the previous year.

FARM HOUSEHOLDS AND ARABLE LANDS IN JAPAN PROPER

(Compiled by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

FARM HOUSEHOLDS

Year (At the Year End)	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Total	5,633,800	5,642,509	5,621,535	5,617,486	5,610,607
Households principally engaged in agriculture	4,090,585	4,116,678	4,126,052	4,144,218	4,164,035
Households partly engaged in agriculture	1,543,215	1,525,831	1,495,483	1,473,268	1,446,572
Classified by the mode of tenure of the lands					
Households cultivating their own lands	1,756,399	1,754,537	1,745,847	1,740,219	1,732,086
Tenant-farmers	1,495,310	1,498,596	1,499,855	1,508,319	1,518,081
Households cultivating their own lands together with leased land	2,382,091	2,389,376	2,375,833	2,368,948	2,360,340
Classified by the size of agricultural area under operation					
Under 0.5 ha.	1,941,488	1,936,419	1,920,943	1,918,507	1,908,642
0.50 ha. — 0.99 ,,	1,933,172	1,933,219	1,927,660	1,921,420	1,919,073
0.99 ,, — 1.98 ,,	1,236,380	1,242,863	1,247,517	1,250,818	1,254,818
1.98 ,, — 2.98 ,,	319,747	324,294	319,351	321,088	322,583
2.98 ,, — 4.96 ,,	130,078	129,523	129,529	129,209	129,920
4.96 ha. and over	72,935	76,191	76,835	76,444	77,572

Excluding owners of arable-lands not engaged in cultivation.

OWNERS OF ARABLE-LANDS

Year (At the Year End)	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Total	5,095,447	5,120,338	5,119,936	5,096,195	5,147,412
Under 0.50 ha	2,535,438	2,546,089	2,550,437	2,519,322	2,555,398
0.50 ha. — 0.99 ,,	1,273,214	1,286,050	1,284,076	1,289,449	1,304,432
0.99 ,, — 2.98 ,,	899,128	903,41	899,506	900,677	905,956
2.98 ,, — 4.96 ,,	224,983	222,327	222,779	223,977	221,245
4.96 ,, — 9.92 ,,	112,869	112,449	113,104	112,681	111,128
9.92 ,, — 49.59 ,,	46,052	46,270	46,400	46,542	45,788
49.59 ha. and over	3,763	3,738	3,634	3,547	3,415

ARABLE LANDS

Year (At the Year End)	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Total ha.	5,904,607.83	5,942,563.44	5,978,939.90	5,987,747.50	6,008,680.43
Cultivated by owners of the lands ,,	3,120,478.81	3,138,032.93	3,159,188.93	3,172,579.93	3,192,719.88

Year (At the Year End)	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Cultivated by tenant-farmers ha.	2,784,129.02	2,804,530.51	2,819,750.97	2,815,167.57	2,815,960.55
Rice-fields ,,	3,185,312.92	3,193,345.89	3,198,970.21	3,191,841.62	3,192,718.88
Cultivated by owners of the lands	1,484,729.55	1,490,420.73	1,496,365.29	1,493,518.41	1,504,573.82
Cultivated by tenant-farmers ,,	1,700,583.37	1,702,925.16	1,702,604.92	1,698,323.21	1,688,145,06
Upland-farms ,,	2,719,294.91	2,749,217.55	2,779,969.69	2,795,905.88	2,815,961.55
Cultivated by owners of the lands ,,	1,635,749.26	1,647,612.20	1,662,823.64	1,679,061.52	1,689,278.21
Cultivated by tenant-farmers ,,	1,083,545.65	1,101,605.35	1,117,146.05	1,116,844.36	1,126,683.34

Value of Production

The total value of production by 5,610,607 farm-households in 1935 amounted to ¥3,265.762,832 (¥582 per household) including farm products, minor industries, live stock, cocoons, raw silk and forestry production. (For details of the last three items see following chapters.)

PRODUCTION BY FARMERS IN 1935

(In yen)

Principal cereals	1,886,616,749
Sweet potatoes	76,556,739
Vegetables	206,541,163
Fruits	77,565,914
Other agricultural products	203,655,853
Live stock production	191,318,928
Cocoons	350,860,428
Wood and bamboo	272,746,058
Total	3,265,762,832

Rice Circles

The production of rice in 1935 amounted to only 57,460,000 koku but the continued poor crops did not cause any unrest because there were stocks carried over from the bumper year 1933. New rice was used to supply the shortage. And the rice stocks of the Government were gradually disposed of until November, 1936, when the remainder amounted to less than 4,000,000 koku.

On the other hand, the rice production in Chosen during the same year amounted to 17,890,000 koku, greater by 4 per cent than usual. The production in Taiwan reached 9,532,000 koku, showing an increase of 626,000 koku over the figures for the preceding year. Both in the peninsula and the island, however, the demand advanced along with the increase in production with the result that in spite of the increased production, the rice exports from Chosen to Japan proper during 1936 amounted to only 8,400,000 koku, about the same as in the preceding year, and the exports from Taiwan even showed a slight decrease, amounting to only 4,500,000.

Under these circumstances, the price of rice continued firm throughout the year, and brought about some improvement in the conditions of the agricultural villages. The highest price of middlings was ¥32.80 and the lowest was ¥28.90. The official quotations for 1937 have been fixed at ¥33.90 at the highest and ¥24.90 at the lowest, in consideration of the rise in price of commodities in general.

The rice crop in 1936 was unusually good, amounting to 67,340,000 koku. Against this, the domestic consumption of rice this year is expected to reach to somewhere about 16,000,000 koku, an increase of 2,000,000 koku over the consumption in the preceding year, in view of the decrease in the quantity of rice purchased by the Government for storing and the decline in the consumption of poorest quality rice, as well as the early use of new rice. With such relations of demand and supply, coupled with the business boom and the rising tendency in the prices of commodities, it is expected that the quotations of rice this year will be at a high level.

Demand and Supply in 1936

The demand and supply of rice during 1936 were, as generally anticipated, fairly well balanced, in spite of the poor crops in 1935 and 1934, because large stocks amounting to nearly 10,000,000 koku were carried over from the bumper year 1933. Besides these large stocks, 8,970,000 koku of Chosen rice and 4,760,000 koku of Taiwan rice were imported as the crops in the peninsula and the island were both larger than usual. The supply under the circumstances reached 8,150,000 koku, with 8,000,000 koku of the rice produced in 1935 being carried over.

With reference to the consumption of rice in 1936, it is to be noted that scarcity

of rice was felt during the year at various places on account of the successive poor crops in the preceding two years. The rice stocks were particularly short during the between-seasons period and there was an increase in the consumption of poorest quality rice which was abundant due to the poor crops. Further, as the rice crop in 1936 was large, new rice arrived on the market earlier than usual. It is estimated that a considerable amount of new rice was thus consumed.

Such being the situation, the rice coconsumption in 1936 as shown by statistics amounted to only 72,000,000 koku despite the improvement in general economic conditions. The consumption per capita was 1.034 koku which represents a decrease of 0.009 koku the figures for the preceding year and shows the lowest figures since 1932.

Rice Production The production of rice in 1935 amounted to 57,460,000 koku. As the area planted in that year covered a total area of 3,204,000 chobu, the production per one tan was 1.793 koku. When compared with the preceding year, which recorded a poor crop, the 1935 production showed an increase of 0.159 koku per one tan. Nevertheless, it was smaller than usual by about 6 per cent against a decrease of 17 per cent for 1934 and of 10 per cent for 1931.

According to a recent announcement, the rice produced in 1936 amounted to 67,340,000 koku, representing an unusually large crop. Though less than the bumper crop of 1933, which reached 70,820,000 koku, it showed a gain over the figures for the good year 1930, when production amounted to 66,000,000 koku. The production per one tan in 1936 was 2.1 koku, compared with 2.23 koku for 1933 and 2.06 koku for 1930. Compared with the average annual production, the quantity produced in 1936 gained 14 per cent.

The area planted and crops since 1925 are shown in the following table :

	Area Planted (Chobu)	Yield (koku)	Yield per One Tan	Average in Preceding Five Years
1925	3,154,000	59,704,000	1.893	58,339,000
1926	3,158,000	55,593,000	1.760	57,639,000
1927	3,174,000	62,103,000	1.957	57,721,000
1928	3,192,000	60,303,000	1.889	58,008,000
1929	3,211,000	59,558,000	1.855	58,975,000
1930	3,239,000	66,876,000	2.064	59,452,000
1931	3,249,000	55,215,000	1.700	60,886,000
1932	3,257,000	60,390,000	1.854	60,811,000
1933	3,173,000	70,829,000	2.232	60,468,000
1934	3,173,000	51,840,000	1.634	62,574,000
1935	3,204,000	57,457,000	1.793	61,030,000
1936	3,205,000	67,343,000	2.101	59,125,000

Movements of Rice Figures prepared by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry based on a survey conducted between 1927 and 1931, place the average annual sales of rice at 60,811,000 koku. Of this amount, 34,157,000 koku reach the market while the remaining 26,654,000 koku are consumed by the rice-growers themselves and their landlords. Further, 7,587,000 koku of the rice sold in the market is purchased by rice-growers.

The average annual amount of rice shipped out of the rice-growing prefectures throughout the country during the five years beginning with 1931 is 13,943,000 koku. This means that of the average annual sales of rice as shown by the Agriculture Ministry's figures, 20,200,000 koku are consumed by the rice-growing prefectures in addition to the 26,654,000 koku which are consumed by the rice-growers and landlords without being handled through the market.

During 1936, 13,517,000 koku of the rice produced in 1935 were shipped out of the rice-growing prefectures, which shows an increase of 1,290,000 koku over similar figures for the preceding year. The fact that the shipments were near the average level in spite of the poor crop in 1936 is attributed to the efforts made by the farmers to hold back as much rice as possible for sale at higher prices and to the increased comsumption of poor quality rice.

The rice crop in 1936 increased by 9,890,000 koku but it is not expected that shipments of rice out of the rice-growing prefectures will increase by any considerable extent, for as a result of the early use of the new rice, no large stocks of rice are being held there. The amount of poor quality rice on hand is also small. In view of these facts, coupled with the very slight possibility of the Government selling any considerable amount of rice during the year due to low stocks, it is estimated that the shipments of rice out of the rice-growing prefectures in 1937 will be limited to about 13,400,000 or 13,500,000 koku.

Chosen Rice The production of rice in Chosen during 1935 amounted to 17,890,000 koku, representing an increase of about 4 per cent over the average annual yield and gaining by more than 1,000,000 koku over the figures for the preceding year, when there was a poor crop.

The rice-exporting capacity of Chosen is decided by a combination of various factors including the amount of production in the peninsula, the amount of imports from other parts of Japan and

foreign countries, the amount of domestic consumption and the amount of consumption of such substitutes as millet, kaoliang and maize. While the yields in 1935 increased, the imports showed a slight decrease and the amount of supply increased by approximately 1,000,000 koku.

This increase in the amount of supply, however, did not affect the exporting capacity of the peninsula because the increased amount was alloted to domestic consumption. The exports from the peninsula during that year amounted to only slightly over 8,400,000 koku, about the same as in the preceding year. Further, the imports of millet showed an increase. The principal reason for this is found in the fact that the amount of consumption during 1934 was too small. The average annual consumption during the five years ending in 1934 was less than 9,310,000 koku while the consumption in 1935 merely showed a return to the normal-year level.

Another factor accountable for the increased consumption in Chosen was the improvement in economic conditions in the peninsula which was reflected in the increased receipts of the farmers and the higher prices of rice there.

The production in 1936 reached 19,411,000 koku, which increased production was, according to statistics, recorded in spite of a decrease in the area planted. The fact, however, is that the changed relations between consumption and the area planted were brought about by a change in the method of surveying the rice situation. In actuality, the yields in 1936 were very poor when compared with the preceding year. In other words, the rice produced in Chosen during 1936 would amount to only 15,427,800 koku when based on the old method of investigation, and would represent a decrease of 2,457,000 koku from the figures for the preceding year.

Supposing the consumption of rice in the peninsula during 1936 amounted to as much as in the preceding year, the rice-exporting capacity of Chosen in that year would be only around 5,800,000 koku. In view, however, of the fact that 7,200,000 koku were exported during 1931, when there was a poor crop, it may be more reasonable to estimate the exports of rice from the peninsula during 1936 at some 7,000,000 koku.

The changes in the conditions of rice consumption in Chosen form a puzzling question to us. The consumption of rice by the inhabitants of the peninsula has long been on a downward trend in spite of the development of paddy-fields and the increase in the yields. The per capita consumption which was 0.7 koku at the time of the annexation of the peninsula by Japan declined to 0.6 koku during the early years of Taisho, to 0.5 koku after 1921 and to 0.4 koku in 1934. A further decline was recorded in 1935 when the amount was only 0.385 koku.

Whether this strange phenomenon is a fact or not and if so, how it has been brought about will only be determined by the employ of the new method of investigation into the conditions of the rice situation in the peninsula.

Taiwan Rice The rice production in Taiwan during 1936, that is to say the second crop in 1935 and the first crop in 1936, because there are two crops every year in the island, amounted to 9,532,000 koku. This showed an increase of 626,000 koku over the figurers for the preceding rice year. Both crops in the rice year gained. Production in the island has been increasing every year, that during 1936 represented a gain of as much as 1,110,000 koku over the average annual production during the preceding five years.

The consumption of rice in the island is around 0.7 koku per capita. In other words, the total consumption of rice there amounts to about 4,000,000 koku annually in a normal year and ranges between 4,900,000 and 3,700,000 koku. Consumption in 1936 reached the neighbourhood of 4,950,000 koku, which was an unusually high amount, with the result that the exports of Taiwan rice to Japan Proper and Chosen during the year amounted to 4,460,000 koku and 118,000 koku respectively, showing a decrease in both cases when compared with the preceding year.

The rice exports of Taiwan have been continuing on an upward trend. This fact is reflected in the exports during 1935 which, although showing a slight decrease, were still greater by 520,000 koku or more than 30 per cent as compared with the average annual exports during the preceding five years. The rising tendency of the exports is to be attributed to the increased production of the improved variety known as Horai rice chiefly intended for export to Japan proper.

The share of Horai rice in the rice production of Taiwan is usually greater in the first crop of every year than in the second crop, being at the present time about 66 per cent of the first crop and only about 34 per cent of the second, while some ten years ago it was only 41 per cent of the first crop and as little as 3.4 per cent of the second.

The second crop in 1936 recorded an increase of about 30,000 koku in Horai rice over the figures for the second crop of the preceding year,amounting to 4,820,000 koku. Although it is still premature to estimate the first crop in 1937, an increase over the first crop in 1936 is expected. Thus, the rice exports of the islands to other parts of Japan during 1937 will be between 4,600,000 and 5,000,000 koku.

Rice Stocks According to figures released by the Government, rice stocks at the end of 1936 were smaller, on account of the poor crops in the preceding two years, than the stocks at the end of 1935, which were about the same as the average annual stocks for recent years. To go into details, the stocks at the end of 1935 amounted to 9,900,000 koku showing a decrease of 6,500,000 koku as compared with the stocks at the end of the preceding year. The stocks at the beginning of March, 1936, were lower by 2,800,000 koku than at the same time in 1935, but this difference was reduced to 2,500,000 koku at the beginning of May and to 1,500,000 koku at the beginning of July, compared with same time in the previous year.

The stocks on August 1 amounted to 2,000,000 koku less than the stocks at the end of 1935 but the margin was reduced to 1,800,000 koku on September 1, and remained the same at the beginning of November. This is attributable to the increase in the rice imports during the latter half of the year and the early use of new rice. Details are shown in the following table (in units of one thousand koku) :

	1934	1935	1936	Average in 5 Years
March 1	54,066	46,487	43,686	46,603
May 1	45,676	37,423	34,899	37,402
July 1	35,507	27,131	25,593	27,901
August 1	30,090	22,367	20,421	22,921
September 1	25,171	17,596	15,711	18,150
November 1	16,430	9,936	8,006	10,458

The Government's share in these stocks is shown in the following table :

RICE STOCKS OF THE GOVERNMENT
(In koku)

1936	Produce of Japan Proper	Produce of Overseas Territories
March 1	5,931,000	269,000
May 1	6,375,000	269,000
July 1	5,463,000	269,000
August 1	5,172,000	266,000
September 1	4,844,000	244,000
November 1	4,071,000	223,000
November 1, 1935	5,617,000	305,000
November 1, 1934	10,889,000	1,671,000

The rice stocks of the Government fell to the 4,000,000 koku level by November 1 on account of sales made during the year. The stocks were further reduced to below the level by the end of the same month, amounting to 1,630,000 koku less than the stocks on November 1 of the preceding year and to 8,270,000 koku less than the stocks on November 1,1934. This decrase was caused chiefly by the poor crop in 1935 and the increased stocks brought about by the bumper crop in 1933 were nearly exhausted.

Rice Quotations The rice quotations during 1936 were very firm. The highest quotation of medium-grade rice, ¥32.80, was recorded in August and the lowest price, ¥28.90, was recorded in October. Futures were quoted at ¥34.-56 in June, and the all-year low of ¥28.64 was recorded in October. The average quotations for the year was ¥31.64 for futures and ¥30.69 for middling. The ¥30 level as the average quotation of middling was the highest since 1928. In this respect, it is to be noted that the average quotation in 1931 following the panic was ¥18.46.

The average quotation in 1935, when an unprecedentedly poor crop was reaped, was ¥29.87 and a further rise was recorded in 1936. This is attributable partly to the poor crops in the preceding two years, but the rise in prices of commodities in general during recent years has been no small factor.

According to the Bank of Japan index of commodity prices, the index of rice was the lowest in recent years in October, 1931, when the number was 148 against 146.9 for general commodity every year, in 1935 it reached 252 against 183.6 general commodity prices. In 1936, it further rose to 258.5 as compared with 193.9 for the prices of commodities in general. This high index number showed a gain by 67 per cent over that of 1931,while the advance of the index number of commodity prices was only 25 per cent.

In this connection, mention must be made of the fact that rice quotations during 1931 were particularly low. It is also to be noted that while the prices of commodities in general have not yet reached the pre-panic level, the quotations of rice have already risen above that level. Accountable for this phenomenal gain are the poor crops in the preceding two years and the economic recovery of the agricultural community. Details are shown in the following table :

RICE QUOTATIONS

	Futures on Tokyo Rice Exchange			Fukagawa Middling		
	High ¥	Low ¥	Average ¥	High ¥	Low ¥	Average ¥
January, 1936	31.91	31.25	31.62	29.90	29.40	29.62
February ,,	31.70	31.34	31.48	30.00	29.40	29.81
March ,,	31.90	31.37	31.61	30.30	29.90	30.08
April ,,	32.52	31.82	32.18	30.80	30.20	30.49
May ,,	33.61	32.18	33.22	31.50	30.49	31.10
June ,,	34.56	33.87	34.21	32.40	31.60	32.05
July ,,	34.05	33.25	35.55	32.10	31.70	31.88
August ,,	32.56	31.74	32 27	32.80	31.90	32.51
September ,,	31.99	29.61	30.64	32.70	30.80	31.99
October ,,	30.03	28.64	29.12	30.80	28.90	29.61
November ,,	29.90	29.36	29.69	30.00	29.50	29.67
December ,,	31.25	29.45	30.13	29.90	29.10	29.43
1936	34.56	28.94	30.41	31.90	28.50	29.87
1935	31.65	28.94	30.41	31.90	28.50	29.87
1934	30.99	22.74	26.79	31.10	22.30	26.05
1933	26.94	22.52	24.10	24.20	19.80	21.46
1932	26.75	21.09	23.86	22.90	18.00	21.17
1931	23.49	15.94	19.61	21.60	17.00	18.46
1930	29,98	14.03	24.25	31.60	17.20	25.55
1929	31.50	25.25	28.98	31.40	27.00	29.12

Official Quotations The official quotations of rice during 1936 were ¥24.80 at the low and ¥33.20 at the high. For 1937, the official quotations have been fixed at ¥24.90 at the low and ¥33.90 at the high. In fixing the official quotations for 1937, the Government estimated the lowest production cost of rice at ¥18.00 and the highest at less than ¥38, averaging ¥24.73, which is the same as in the preceding year. Freightage and other charges were estimated at ¥1.17 and the relations between the prices of commodities in general and the prices of rice were also taken into account.

Prospects in 1937 It is not difficult to judge the prospects of the relations of the demand and supply of rice in 1937 from the relations in the past as already described. The Government has announced its forecast through the press as follows :

	Forecast for 1937 koku	Actual Results in 1936 koku
Supply		
Stocks Brought Over from Previous Year	8,007,000	9,936,000
New Production	67,343,000	57,457,000
Imports of Chosen Rice	8,000,000	8,971,000
Imports of Taiwan Rice	5,000,000	4,761,000
Imports of Foreign Rice	—	412,000
Demand		
Exports to Overseas Territories and Foreign Lands	466,000	559,000
Domestic Consumption	74,000,000	72,971,000

Although there is no question concerning the forecast about the stocks brought over from the previous year and new production, the forecast amount of the imports of Chosen rice at 8,007,000 koku seems to be too high in view of the poor crop of the year. It would be wiser to estimate the imports of Chosen rice at around 7,000,000 koku and the imports of Taiwan rice at around 4,800,000 koku.

As regards domestic consumption, it is expected that an amount of 2,000,000 koku more than the Government estimate will be recorded. The amount of rice that will still be held unused at the end of the year is expected to be about 9,000,000 koku. In view of this fact, it is felt that no remarkable decline in the quotations of rice will be recorded in the course of 1937.

Rice Statistics

Supply and Demand of Rice The supply and demand of rice in Japan proper for the past 10 years were as follows :

SUPPLY

(In koku)

Rice Year	Brought over from the Previous Year	Production of the Year Before	Imports including those from Colonies	Total
1927	5,967,771	55,592,820	12,670,239	74,230,830
1928	5,765,541	62,102,541	11,255,519	79,123,601
1929	7,840,192	60,303,089	8,909,410	77,052,691
1930	7,027,557	59,557,694	8,602,411	75,187,662
1931	5,719,241	66,875,535	11,486,145	84,080,961
1932	9,140,247	55,215,263	11,602,116	75,957,626
1933	8,907,000	60,390,098	12,747,000	82,045,000
1934	9,007,000	70,829,000	13,744,000	93,582,000
1935	16,431,000	51,840,000	13,018,000	81,289,000
1936	9,936,000	57,456,000	14,195,000	81,588,000

DEMAND

	Exports idcluding those to Colonies	Carried forward to Next Year	Consumption	Total Population in Japan Proper	Per capita Consumption
1927	1,284,285	5,765,541	67,181,004	61,190,000	1.098
1928	985,164	7,840,192	70,298,245	62,127,000	1.132
1929	539,307	7,027,557	69,485,827	63,078,000	1,102
1930	539,963	5,717,117	68,930,582	64,450,000	1,076
1931	1,963,389	9,140,247	72,977,325	64,366,000	1,124
1932	631,613	8,907,430	66,418,583	66,296,000	1,007
1933	623,000	9,007,000	72,413,000	67,238,000	1,090
1934	681,000	16,389,000	76,510,000	68,194,000	1,142
1935	790,000	9,936,000	70,538,000	69,251,000	1,042
1936	550,000	8,006,000	73,031,000	70,258,000	1,039

Each rice year begins with November of the previous year and ends with October, and production of the year before in 1927 represents the crop in the autumn of 1926.

RICE CONDITIONS IN KOREA

Year	Production	Foreign Rice Imports	Exports to Japan Proper
	(In 1,000 koku)		
1924	13,219	926	4,428
1925	14,773	804	5,213
1926	15,300	821	5,903
1927	17,298	361	7,068
1928	13,511	429	5,377
1929	13,703	386	5,167
1930	19,183	17	7,929
1931	15,873	233	7,197
1932	16,346	106	7,100
1933	18,192	—	7,990
1934	16,554	—	8,955
1935	17,884	—	8,434
1936	19,410	—	8,970

RICE CONDITIONS IN FORMOSA

Year	Production	Foreign Rice Imports	Exports to Japan Proper
	(In 1,000 koku)		
1926	6,101	403	2,437
1927	6,637	799	2,703
1928	6,841	287	2,387
1929	6,451	551	2,172
1930	7,111	68	2,071
1931	7,516	5	2,663
1932	8,072	149	3,338
1933	8,666	43	4,123
1934	9,088	—	5,123
1935	9,122	—	4,511
1936	9,558	—	4,823

1936 Rice Crop The yield of rice in the autumn of 1936 was 67,342,723

koku. When this is compared with the yield of 1935, it shows an increase of 9,885,747 koku (13.9 per cent). The acreage of plantation was 3,206,983.4 cho and the average yield per tan in the whole country was 2.1 koku. The acreage of plantation and the yield in Japan proper in the last 7 years follow :

(The units are cho and koku)

Year	Acreage of Plantation	Yield
1931	3,247,719.5	55,215,263
1932	3,257,009.4	60,390,098
1933	3,173,203.3	70,827,117
1934	3,172,810.6	51,840,182
1935	3,204,105.2	57,456,976
1931-1935 average	3,211,181.6	59,146,327
1936	3,206,983.4	67,342,723

VALUE OF CEREAL PRODUCTION IN JAPAN PROPER

		1931	1932	1933
Total				
Area (cho)	ha.	4,970,291.20	4,998,713.86	4,947,136.47
Production (Value)	yen	1,086,126,373	1,414,859,457	1,680,499,165
Rice				
Area	ha.	3,221,870.58	3,230,611.74	3,147,809.9
Production	yen	913,181,567	1,235,023,997	1,433,590,419
Wheat				
Area	ha.	496,999.93	504,512.53	611,381.55
Production	yen	53,60,653	66,649,413	114,032,716
Oats				
Area	ha.	118,086.74	127,042.02	127,154.88
Production	yen	7,144,137	5,582,912	8,141,403
Barley				
Area	ha.	377,250.05	376,931.11	344,424.50
Production	yen	42,476,675	36,976,527	44,127,198
Rye				
Area	ha.	471,457.88	475,724.83	434,042,38
Production	yen	51,837,992	48,932,510	55,518,156
Other cereals				
Area	ha.	284,626.02	283,891.63	282,323.31
Production	yen	17,879,349	21,694,098	25,089,273

		1934	1935	1936
Total				
Area (cho)	ha.	4,944,215.71	5,009,387.18	—
Production (Value)	yen	1,660,995,963	1,908,806,000	—
Rice				
Area	ha.	3,146,587.44	3,177,698.08	3,206,983.4
Production	yen	1,384,621,927	1,611,431,932	1,865,200,000
Wheat				
Area	ha.	643,138.02	658,327.63	688,959.00
Production	yen	121,743,980	131,115,603	173,215,048
Oats				
Area	ha.	119,406.55	121,286.68	125,557.00
Production	yen	12,393,484	9,664,987	12,600,640
Barley				
Area	ha.	329,003.40	339,122.38	340,773.00
Production	yen	51,164,562	57,100,667	60,871,161
Rye				
Area	ha.	420,877.69	436,079.70	439,570.00
Production	yen	71,293,670	77,303,560	84,165,931
Other cereals				
Area	ha.	285,202.61	276,872.71	—
Production	yen	19,778,340	22,189,00	—

Other Farm Productions

Leguminous Plants Area of leguminous plants in 1935 was 629,965 cho and the production was valued at ¥65,114,000. During the past decade the area

planted has been pursuing a slow downward movement, while a sharp reduction experienced by production was more than made good by the increase of 1933. Soya-beans and azuki (red) beans are predominant both in area and production.

Soy-beans	335,345 cho	2,261,000 koku	¥34,333,000
Azuki beans	109,839 cho	5,333,000 koku	¥10,620,000

Tuber and Root Crops Area cultivated with tuber and root crops in 1935 was 623,648 cho and the value realized from their production was ¥194,182,000 and both showed an increase as compared with preceding years. From the standpoint of area and production, sweet potatoes, 'daikon' (giant radish) satoimo and potatoes are predominent.

Sweet potatoes	277,887 cho	952,370,000 kan	¥76,557,000
Daikon	106,965 ,,	672,728,000 ,,	33,818,000
Satoimo (taro)	53,274 ,,	169,901,000 ,,	25,966,000
Potatoes	140,464 ,,	333,346,000 ,,	31,565,000

Industrial Crops Area cultivated with industrial crops in 1935 amounted to 287,064 cho and the production was valued at ¥104,948,000

Chief products are summarized below :

Tobacco	17,209,000 kan	¥40,336,000
Sugar cane	1,737,501,000 kin	9,739,000
Rapeseed	1,012,000 koku	15,434,000
Rushes	19,089,000 kan	7,408,000
Insecticide flowers	3,399,000 kan	7,322,000

Vegetables Area under vegetables in 1935 was 218,374 cho and the value of the production was estimated at ¥102,900,000.

Chief products are given below :

Water-melons	130,100,000 kan	¥19,049,000
Tsukena	207,422,000 ,,	14,748,000
Egg-plants	115,959,000 ,,	15,232,000
Cucumbers	72,574,000 ,,	10,798,000
Negi (onion)	65,127,000 ,,	9,699,000
Pumpkins	71,595,000 ,,	8,982,000

Fruits The production of fruits in 1935 was valued at ¥77,566,000, having increased by ¥7,922,000 (10.2%) as against the figure of the previous year.

Predominant are the following :

	kan	¥
Mandarin oranges	117,844,000	20,166,000
Persimmons	61,607,000	12,463,000
Japanese Pears	43,744,000	10,517,000
Apples	42,406,000	10,220,000
Grapes	18,497,000	5,695,000

Tea Tea grown in 1935 was 12,168,000 kan in quality and ¥23,263,000 in value. Review of the past decade indicates an unbroken rise in production as a whole, while fluctuations in values of production have been brought about by falling-off of prices.

Livestock and Poultry (1) Horses. Horses at the end of 1935 numbered 1,448,481, consisting of 825,482 (57%) female and 622,999 (43%) male. Foals and horses died to the number of 119,672 and 25,186 respectively. The increase in number during the past decade has been very slow, often tending towards decline.

(2) Cattle. Cattle at the end of 1935 numbered 1,684,461 (female, 1,259,218 male, 425,243). Calves and cattle died numbered 278,943 and 15,232 respectively. The tendency of the past ten years was a steadily increasing one.

(3) Swine. Number of swine at the end of 1935 totalled 1,063,000. During the year there were 774,000 litters, and swine died or were killed to the number of 103,000. The rising of swine has been showing a sharp advance during the past decade, the number at the beginning of the decade being nearly doubled by the close of the same priod.

(4) Sheep and Goats. Sheep and goats at the end of 1935 numbered 47,303 and 278,000 respectively, both increasing as compared with the previous year, and the tendency during the past ten years has been towards increase.

Generally speaking, the raising of sheep and goats is still on quite a small scale in spite of this marked progress.

(5) Fowls. The total number of fowls at the end of June, 1935 was 81,698,000 (valued at ¥33,854,000), and in 1936, 50,793,000 (valued, ¥35,478,000). During the past ten years the number has increased by nearly 100 per cent.

Livestock Products (1) Milk. The quantity of milk obtained in 1935 amounted to 1,477,000 koku valued at ¥30,223,000. The number of cows milked

during the same year was 100,326 at the year end.

(2) Meat and Animals Slaughtered. The number of slaughter-houses in 1935 was 701 and number of animals slaughtered and the quantity of meat obtained were as follows :

Number of Animals Slaughtered

Horses	89,000
Cattle	300,000
Calves	31,000
Swine	1,044,000
Sheep	1,000
Goats	48,000
Total	1,514,000

Quantity of Meat Obtained

	kan	¥
Horses	3,337,000	5,571,000
Cattle	14,105,000	45,721,000
Calves	417,000	1,034,000
Swine	13,940,000	29,437,000
Sheep	10,000	33,000
Goats	108,000	177,000
Total	31,916,000	81,971,000

(3) Dairy and Meat Products. Dairy production in 1934 amounted to 47,458,000 kin valued at ¥19,577,000. Meat products in 1935 totalled ¥3,757,000.

(4) Eggs. Number of eggs obtained during the year ending June, 1935 and 1936 was as follows :

	1935 Number (in 1,000)	Value
Fowls'	3,608,676	¥79,125,000
Ducks'	15,887	418,000
	1936	
Fowls'	3,537,310	¥86,760,000
Ducks'	14,485	399,000

During the past decade the production of eggs has shown a substantial increase especially as regards fowls' eggs of which production in 1931 more than doubled the figure of 1922.

Village Societies The co-operative societies of this country have developed from the older credit societies. The business of granting credits still forms the most important of the activities of the co-operative societies. There are at present about 15,000 of these societies throughout the country, which have a total membership of 5,970,000. Of these institutions 13,000 are loan associations which are mostly located in agricultural villages, accomodating their members with industrial and economic funds and accepting deposits from their members and public organizations.

Of the 13,000 loan associations more than 1,300 are engaged only in supplying loans to members ; but their number is gradually decreasing because the Government is, in line with a five-year co-operative expansion programme, encouraging them to function as trading, purchasing and utilization associations as well.

Those which discount bills and accept deposits from non-members are called credit associations in the cities and are placed under the supervision of the Finance Ministry, while those in villages are controlled by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

The latest statistics show that deposits with these credit associations throughout the whole country total approximately ¥1,400,000,000, and their loans amount in all to about ¥1,000,000,000. They are playing an important part as mutual credit associations for the masses, both in agricultural villages and towns.

As to the credit associations in cities, their number is 270, with a total of 310,000 members, having ¥210,000,000 in deposits and ¥170,000,000 in advances. Some of them have from ¥5,000,000 to ¥3,000,000 each in deposits but the average amount for one institution is ¥790,000 against some ¥630,000 in advances.

There are two central institutions designed to facilitate the activity of these associations. One is called the Shinyo Kumiai Rengokai or Federation of Credit Associations, which represents the oredit associations of each Prefecture, and the other is the Sangyo Kumiai Chuo Kinko, or the Central Chest for Co-operative Associations, which was established for regulating the movement of funds of the Federation above mentioned and the industrial associations all over Japan. (See Chapter IX)

VILLAGE CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES

Number of Co-operative Societies

(At the year end)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Total	14,082	14,163	14,352	14,651	14,815	15,028
Credit	2,449	2,135	2,051	1,756	1,511	1,313

		1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Trading	328	330	325	311	332	301
Purchasing	323	325	336	332	332	314
Utilization	295	304	312	316	306	298
Trading and purchasing	284	286	307	292	263	258
Trading and utilization	287	277	267	268	264	256
Purchasing and utilization	102	114	116	131	144	152
Trading, purchasing and utilization	359	427	478	490	496	518
Credit and trading	223	204	196	175	166	157
Credit and purchasing	2,024	1,929	1,759	1,370	1,056	760
Credit and utilization	149	129	117	106	96	82
Credit, trading and purchasing	3,075	3,132	3,194	2,718	2,361	1,952
Credit, trading and utilization	59	47	42	38	32	33
Credit, purchasing and utilization	374	373	355	286	248	204
Credit, trading, purchasing and utilization	3,751	4,151	4,497	6,062	7,206	8,430
Classified by the organization						
Limited liability	12,733	12,910	12,968	8,363	5,973	4,499
Unlimited liability	1,112	1,030	990	1,182	971	934
Guaranteed liability	237	223	394	5,106	7,871	9,595

Operation of Co-operative Societies
(Amount in yen)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Number of societies investigated	13,161	13,122	13,106	13,446	13,616
Number of members	4,743,091	4,813,140	4,978,248	5,238,253	5,506,000
Capital					
Amount authorized	307,597,146	313,023,822	312,668,822	319,331,829	326,038,000
Amount paid up	228,226,949	234,572,589	239,725,266	243,968,997	250,857,000
Reserve fund	113,881,893	120,622,210	124,157,646	130,222,170	137,493,000
Loans	239,581,816	255,913,637	276,072,070	293,599,862	271,248,000
Deposits					
Number of societies investigated	11,449	11,358	11,290	11,617	11,812
Number of members	3,861,000	3,856,000	3,926,000	4,140,000	4,261,000
Amount of deposits	1,102,574,000	1,070,803,000	1,063,164,000	1,179,132,000	1,268,021,000
Total amount of funds	1,684,265,000	1,681,911,000	1,703,119,000	1,846,923,000	1,927,617,000
Balance	15,604,000	12,678,000	9,683,000	11,693,000	9,312,000
Credit societies					
Number of societies investigated	11,449	11,358	11,290	11,617	11,812
Number of members	3,861,078	3,856,482	3,925,801	4,140,448	4,261,000
Deposits	1,102,573,886	1,070,803,053	1,063,163,980	1,179,131,995	1,268,021,000
Advances	984,476,442	1,005,672,599	1,017,632,665	1,017,521,313	1,014,445,000
Trading societies					
Number of societies investigated	7,777	8,167	8,477	9,529	10,293
Number of members	2,845,490	3,027,070	3,151,868	3,536,261	3,857,000
Total amount of sales (for the year)	192,473,843	181,140,200	202,838,620	261,398,919	313,210,000
Purchasing societies					
Number of societies investigated	9,576	9,931	10,086	10,721	11,155
Number of members	3,152,016	3,341,512	3,498,860	3,811,395	4,108,000
Total amount of purchases (for the year)	127,270,950	105,881,259	129,110,813	155.991,976	196,126,000
Utilization societies					
Number of societies investigated	5,073	5,424	5,647	7,158	8,213
Number of members	1,998,105	2,143,193	2,281,068	2,835,943	3,308,000
Total amount of charges for utilization (for year)	5,727,532	5,391,517	5,731,098	6,816,995	8,054,000

Encouragement of Farm Industries : Results for 1935 and Problems Left to the Future

Aid to Farm Industries Work in this direction was started at the opening of the 1935–1936 fiscal year, and the sum allotted for that year was ¥731,200 in all. Of this total the sum given to 41 prefectures amounted to 300,000, and that specially allotted for the six prefectures in the North-Eastern Districts amounted to ¥431,200. Of this ¥300,000 granted to the 41 prefectures ¥20,000 was spent on office expenses and investigations, ¥8,949 on fees to experts, ¥252,212 for various aids to farm industries, and ¥16,300 as subsidies for national bodies directing these industries and promoting the sale of the products thereof.

Of the ¥431,200 allotted to the six prefectures in the North-Eastern Districts, ¥20,500 went in office expenses, ¥365,569 in employment of experts and aids to the farm industries, ¥44,681 in training farmers in these industries and facilitating the sale of the products.

The proportion of the above-mentioned subsidy granted to the 41 prefectures, which amounted to ¥252,212 was 26% of the ¥981,230 disbursed from their own treasuries for the promotion of farm industries ; while in the 6 prefectures in the North-Eastern Districts it was 65% of the ¥563,419 disbursed by themselves.

There are as many as 189 establishments for farm industries in the country, of which 150 are in the 41 prefectures and 39 in the 6 prefectures in the north-eastern part of the Main Island, and they are under the management of associations or federations thereof as follows : 8 are managed by the unions of prefectural industrial guilds, 17 by the unions of country industrial guilds, 17 by the unions of towns and village industrial guilds, 33 under the joint management of industrial guilds, and 83 by the individual industrial guilds. There are in addition 2, which are under the management of the fishery guilds, 6 under the management of forestry guilds, and so on. Those that belong to the industrial guilds number 158, and others number 31.

Of these 189 various establishments, 15 have the prefecture as their unit, 10 have a group of counties, 28 one county only, 72 a group of towns or villages, 48 one town or village only, (—commune consisted of several smaller villages and makes an administrative unit in Japan.) 12 have groups of hamlets, and 4 one hamlet only.

Farm industries may be roughly divided into : (1) those dealing with fruit and vegetable products, (2) oil production, (3) flour milling, (4) other industries which manufacture goods from various farm products, (5) those dealing with live-stock products, (6) those dealing with fishery products, (7) those dealing with forestry products, and (8) miscellaneous industries. They number 338 in all. Enumerated in detail they are : canned fruits, 32 ; pickles, 15 ; canned or bottled vegetables, 14 ; soy and 'miso' manufacture, 10 ; dried vegetable and gourds, 2 ; vegetable oils, 21 ; flour milling, 26 ; other manufactures of farm products, 17 ; manufactures of live-stock products number 43 ; the last-named include canned rabbits, rabbits' skins and fur, woollen goods, butter and cheese, ham, bacon and sausages, casein, etc. Those industries which use fishery products as their raw materials number 18, forestry products 114, and other miscellaneous industries number 26.

Future Problems The problems left for the future are, in the main, three : to increase the funds, to furnish more rapid training in technique, and to improve the supply of motive power.

There is no question about the necessity of a large fund to enable farming industry to make more rapid development. In future, the industry should enlarge the sphere of its activities, and make the unit of its management at least the size of the association of the industrial guilds of a prefecture, thus strengthening its organization. Furthermore, it must obtain its funds through the utilization of the sums which are offered for industrial development by the Central Chest of the industrial association, or by borrowing money from the Deposits Bureau of the Department of Finance.

In order to produce goods of superior grade it is necessary to have farmers trained in higher technique. In industrial technique, the villagers are far inferior to the workers in city factories. The skill which the city people have in this respect is traditional, and cannot be copied in a short space of time. Therefore, it is not advisable for the farms to try to acquire the technique in the same manner as the cities, as it requires too much time. They must resort to some other and newer scientific method, instead of that which has been handed down from father to son as traditional heritage. An institution for training farmers in modern industrial technique must be established by the Government.

Farming industries cannot develop healthily unless there be cheap power available. In the farm districts they have water, animal and motor power to hand; these cannot be applied always in every sort of place, but there is no question about the universal usefulness of electric power. Yet the supply of electric power in rural districts is not so readily obtainable as in cities, and to supply electric power amply and at cheap rates to farm districts is not only important for their development but also for the recovery of agricultural villages as whole. It is for this reason that there is a loud cry for electrification of farms, for lowering the prices of electric power and the state management of the electric power industry.

According to Professor Seiichi Tohata of the Tokyo Imperial University, whose short essay appeared in the Asahi, the first 5 year programme has now come to a standstill because of the neglect of (1) readjustment of the farm land system, (2) readjustment or control of the relation between agriculture and other industrial and commercial enterprises, and (3) reformation in the administration offices which carry out agricultural policy.

First, the land system and conditions of tenant farming have been left untouched. A wholesale readjustment of farm workers and the highest utilization of arable land for the economic improvement of farm villages have resulted undoubtedly in the increase of production and a greater gain of money. Improvement of farming technique and Government control of price of agricultural products in favour of farmers have been effective in increasing farmers' incomes. But the largest amount of benefit thus obtained has gone primarily to the land, the production per area having risen the land value has risen accordingly, that is to say, the landowners have benefited much more than the tenants. The lion's share has gone more to the upper classes of farmers than to the lowest class who supply the actual labour and need help most. So far as the landownership and tenant system remain as before, all the efforts of Government authorities tend to benefit those who own the rights on farm lands. In Japan there is left no waste land to be cultivated into new farm land, so the area of arable land remains as it was and the increase of production needs always greater labour. The use of machines in farming means encroachment of capital into the income of the working class farmers in a country like Japan where the small farming system prevails. Increase of labour for a limited area of land ends in smaller remuneration for each unit of labour. Under such circumstances labour is worked to the limit while high class farming machinery is rejected in spite of the need for greater production. An excessive encouragement of diligence and economy tends to result in overwork, extreme frugality, poor food and a lower standard of living among tenanted farmers.

Secondly, the complicated relation between agriculture and other industries hinders the free economic expansion of farm villages. Innumerable commercial and industrial laws restrict new trial of sideline work for farmers. Farmers have to enter outside spheres of activity in commencing new lines of business. When, for instance, farmers want to take up butchering, the business laws hardly allow them to do so; when attempting the direct export of farm products by farmers' associations the trade association law stands in their way; an attempt to start medical-benefit clubs for cheaper medical treatment brings them up against the national association of medical practitioners; the establishment of an electric plant by a farming community for cheaper electrification of farming means infringement of the vested rights of big electric companies; and finally the progress of farm industrial associations for trading and purchase threatens a collision with the business of smaller merchants. The sphere of activity of co-operative associations and societies in farm villages is hardly possible without encroaching upon the rights of others. Practically all they can do to further and improve their interests is to pick up bits of work dropped on the wayside by others. The ministry of Agriculture and Forestry has power over farmers and fishermen and it is so specialized that they can do practically nothing with merchants and industrialists. In the progress of economic readjustment of farm villages numerous co-operative societies of farmers have been strengthened beside the old farm industrial association. Prefectures have their own industrial associations, farm associations, trade co-operative societies, official brokers, and live-stock co-operative societies, and all of them supply similar farm products to the same markets They counteract one another in their strife to get as much profit as possible for their own groups, and certain farmers may succeed at the expense of others, but, it is evident that the farm villages as a whole profit very

little from such rivalry among themselves.

Thirdly, as we have seen, under the present system of administration all the farm villages come under the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry which controls farmers and fishermen. Measures carried out by the Ministry, therefore, cannot extend to other commercial and industrial works which surround and are interwoven with agricultural and fishery works. The regeneration or rehabilitation of farm villages in Japan where a limited area of arable land is over-burdened with ever increasing population cannot be realized by the increase of income by farming and economy of expenses alone, but effective means for the expansion of farmers to other fields of activity must be taken by the co-operation of other Ministries of the Central Government.

For the future plans for assisting farmers these three points have to be thoroughly studied and some fundamental reforms introduced.

Items of Interest on Farm Villages

Debts of Rural Communities The debts of the agricultural, mountain and fishing communities throughout the country, excluding the big landowners and those landowners who live away from the villages, total slightly over ¥4,091,000,000, according to statistics compiled from the latest survey conducted at the end of August, 1935, by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. These figures represent a decrease of ¥32,000,000 as compared with the estimates based on the previous survey conducted at the end of December, 1932.

Of this decrease, about ¥20,000,000 is attributed to the present system of consolidating the debts of those communities, while the advance in the prices of agricultural products is held responsible for the remaining ¥12,000,000.

¥2,500,000,000 of the total debt consists of mortgages while ¥1,500,000,000 was borrowed at interest rates of over 10 per cent.

It should be noted that the latest figures are more accurate than the previous ones as they were obtained from the compilation of prefectural reports based uniformly on the separate official returns of towns and villages, while the older ones were taken from prefectural surveys which had been based on the returns of agricultural associations or cooperative associations according to different prefectures. Details according to prefectures are tabulated as follows :

Hokkaido	¥161,355,000
Aomori	62,689,000
Iwate	68,411,000
Miyagi	95,670,000
Akita	98.664,000
Yamagata	94,435,000
Fukushima	150,619,000
Ibaraki	142,418,000
Tochigi	89,424,000
Gumma	77,560,000
Saitama	74,970,000
Chiba	101,973,000
Tokyo	40,530,000
Kanagawa	38,149,000
Niigata	179,516,000
Toyama	54,588,000
Ishikawa	44,141,000
Fukui	45,015,000
Yamanashi	69,463,000
Nagano	211,770,000
Gifu	81,112.000
Shizuoka	163,144,000
Aichi	103,837,000
Mie	86,494,000
Shiga	54,235,000
Kyoto	55,820,000
Osaka	41,835,000
Hyogo	151,764,000
Nara	38,381,000
Wakayama	40,696.000
Tottori	40,559,000
Shimane	79,734,000
Okayama	85,162,000
Hiroshima	104,027,000
Yamaguchi	105,380,000
Tokushima	55,189,000
Kagawa	47,549,000
Ehime	96,050,000
Kochi	52,585,000
Fukuoka	188,828,000
Saga	60,144,000
Nagasaki	87,080,000
Kumamoto	97,732,000
Oita	93,191,000
Miyazaki	51,327,000
Kagoshima	98,771,000
Okinawa	29,221,000
Total	4,091,225,000

Village Cereal Warehouses At the time of the great crop failure which resulted from the unseasonably cold weather in the Tohoku or North-Eastern District in 1934, the Imperial House granted a large sum of money, in November of that same year, for instituting some permanent system of mutual relief and rehabilitation for the farmers in the district.

Accordingly the Government, in order to comply with the Imperial wishes, decided upon establishing and popularizing 'Go-Kura' or village warehouses

for storing cereals against emergencies in those parts. It distributed an aggregate sum of Yen 1,636,800 for the 1934 and 1935 financial years to the prefectures in the district, where 1209 old cereal warehouses were enlarged and renovated and as many as 4,921 new ones established, making a total of 6,130 at the end of March, 1936.

A warehouse association has been formed in each village and each farmer-member of the association is required to store his crop of any particular year by the end of December. The aim is to complete full stocks of cereals in about five years. There are many villages where special community farms for the purpose are cultivated either by members themselves or by tenants.

Figures relating to these 'Go-kura' in 1934 and 1935 are given below :

FUNDS AND GO-KURA

Prefecture	Sums Given			Number of the Go-kura		
	Imperial Gift	From the National Treasury	Total	New	Old	Total
	(In ¥1,000)					
Miyagi	80.5	270.1	350.6	828	118	946
Fukushima	93.1	335.6	428.7	1,198	81	1,279
Iwate	105.6	377.1	482.7	469	106	575
Aomori	82.9	178.0	260.9	513	610	1,123
Yamagata	76.6	269.2	345.8	802	97	899
Akita	61.5	206.8	268.3	621	197	818
Total	500.2	1,636.8	2,137.0	4.921	1,209	6,130

AMOUNT OF CEREALS STORED IN THE GO-KURA IN 1935

Prefecture		Amount of Cereals	Amount loaned	Cash saved	Families utilizing warehouses	Families with cereals stored
		(1,000koku)	(In ¥1000)	(In ¥1,000)	(In 1,000)	(In 1,000)
Miyagi	Rice	52.1	5.6	23.0	89.9	74.4
Unhulled	rice	0.5	0.3	—	—	—
Fukushima	Rice	27.6	—	—	80.1	79.8
Iwate	Rice	41.8	0.2	34.7	126.6	102.5
Other Cereals		2.7	0.04			
Aomori	Rice	1.8	—	—	71.9	26.5
Yamagata	Rice	48.2	—	3.3	72.3	69.0
Akita	Rice	26.5	—	8.2	51.0	42.4
Unhulled	rice	3.7	—			
Total	Rice	198.0	5.8			
Unhulled	rice	4.2	0.3	69.2	491.8	394.6
Other Cereals		2.7	0.04			

Three Standard Villages The conditions of the agricultural, mountain and fishing communities throughout the country may partly be judged from the returns of an investigation recently conducted by the Ministry of Home Affairs into three standard villages in each prefecture. By the term "standard" is indicated that the villages referred to are neither exceptionally wealthy nor poor. The following is a description, based on these returns, of Kuchiyoshikawa-mura, Tanisoto-mura ("mura" means "village") and Kamide-mura, the three standard villages in Hyogo Prefecture.

It is maintained by some people that the efflux of villagers into cities constitutes one of the principal causes of the improvement of the rural districts, while others hold that the latter is the cause rather than the result of the desertion of their homes by the villagers. In either case, there seems to be no doubt but that the two phenomena are closely related. The movements of population in the three standard villages are tabulated as follows :

	Kuchiyoshikawa-mura		Tanisoto-mura		Kamiide-mura	
	Population	Index Number	Population	Index Number	Population	Index Number
1914	3,370	100	2,718	100	5,313	100
1919	3,113	92	2,475	91	5,202	97
1923	3,150	93	2,424	89	5,500	103
1927	3,052	90	2,522	92	5,723	107
1930	3,019	89	2,542	93	5,615	105
1934	3,023	89	2,529	93	5,794	109

In spite of the fact that Japan is well known for its rapidly growing population, the population of these villages remained almost stationary during the years under review. Kamiide-mura is the only one of the three villages that recorded a slight increase in population, while the other two actually registered a decrease as compared with 1914. This may be taken to indicate that the economic strength of the villages has reached a point where it is unable to sustain a greater population.

Needless to say, in these three villages farming is the principal source of revenue for the people. The number of households classified by occupations and the value of production of the villages are tabulated as follows :

NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLDS BY OCCUPATION
(March, 1935)

	Kuchiyoshikawa-mura		Tanisoto-mura		Kamiide-mura	
	Households	%	Households	%	Households	%
Agriculture	382	67.9	431	95.1	841	89.6
Sericulture	—	—	—	—	—	—
Forestry	—	—	—	—	—	—
Fishery	—	—	—	—	—	—
Industry	8	1.4	—	—	13	1,3
Commerce	34	6.0	17	3.8	60	6.4
Various	138	24.5	5	1.1	24	2.5
Total	562	100.0	453	100.0	938	100.0

PRODUCTION (In Yen)
(1933-1934)

	Kuchiyoshikawa-mura	Tanisoto-mura	Kamiide-mura
Agriculture	327,125	230,144	661,542
Sericulture	5,086	—	—
Stock-raising	65,771	2,457	—
Forestry	23,338	—	80
Fishery	3,141	—	—
Mining	100	—	—
Industry	51,585	—	19,286
Total	476,146	233,601	680,908

The following is a tabulation of the number of households classified according to the amount of their annual income, based on the estimates for the assessment of the household tax during the 1934-35 fiscal year :

NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLDS
Classification By Income
(March 1935)

Income (In Yen)	Kuchiyoshikawa-mura	Tanisoto-mura	Kamiide-mura
Less than 150	265	142	628
,, 300	101	99	160
,, 500	89	82	90
,, 800	46	81	30
,, 1,200	31	25	14
,, 1,500	17	13	8
,, 2,000	4	8	6
Over 2,000	6	6	2
Total	559	456	938

The above table shows that only 1.7 per cent of the households of Kamiide-mura is liable to pay the third class income tax which is imposed on an annual income of ¥1,200 up, against 4.8 per cent for Kuchiyoshikawa-mura and 5.9 per cent for Tanisoto-mura. In other words, the percentage for Kuchiyoshikawa-mura is the same as similar percentage for the entire nation while the percentage for Tanisoto-mura is higher and that for Kamiide-mura is lower. Special mention must be made of the fact that the greater part of the households of these three standard villages belongs to the class with an annual income of less than ¥300.

The expenses of the three villages, not of individuals but as political units, are tabulated as follows :

	Kuchiyoshikawa-mura	Tanisoto-mura	Kamiide-mura
Education	¥16,830	¥12,167	¥23,882
Public works	4,122	1,096	4,831
Sanitation	126	1,033	3,242
Industry encouragement	1,394	625	1,390
Social work	359	21	29
Village Office	5,251	3,976	10,022
Public meetings	218	116	189
Policing	107	211	413
Public bonds	—	273	32,272
Taxes & charges	10	—	2
Reserve & Basic estate	402	558	1,184
Miscellaneous	1,001	515	2,499
Total	29,820	20,591	79,955

Of these expenses, those which are regarded as being required for the conduct of State affairs are tabulated as follows :

	Kuchiyoshikawa-mura	Tanisoto-mura	Kamiide-mura
Education	¥16,710	¥11,657	¥23,404
Public works	4,122	1,096	4,831
Sanitation	126	1,033	3,242
Industry encouragement	36	5	555
Social work	—	21	—
Village Office	4,515	3,356	4,710
Policing	80	211	363
Miscellaneous	—	1	730
Total	25,589	17,379	37,835

The principal sources of revenue to meet these expenses are taxes and government grants for education. According to the survey of the Ministry of Home Affairs, the government grants to Kuchiyoshikawa-mura in 1934 amounted to 49 per cent of the total primary school expenditure of the village, as compared with 43 per cent for Tanisoto-mura and 42 per cent for Kamiide-mura.

The inhabitants of these three villages are liable to pay national, prefectural and village taxes, and of these the burden of village taxation comes the heaviest, as shown in the following table :

National tax	Kuchiyoshikawa-mura	Tanisoto-mura	Kamiide-mura
Land tax	¥6,069	¥3,835	¥4,944
Income tax	439	104	340
Others	245	35	393
Total	6,753	3,974	5,677
Prefectural tax			
Land surtax and special land tax	8,779	5,804	8,138
House tax	706	778	1,476
Misc. taxes	1,797	2,177	3,430
Others	595	206	682
Total	11,877	8,965	13,726

Village tax			
Land surtax and special land surtax	4,443	3,422	4,215
Household tax	7,493	7,613	16,574
House surtax	351	389	717
Misc. surtaxes	1,671	1,653	3,053
Others	333	146	520
Total	14,291	13,223	25,079
Grand Total	32,921	26,162	44,482

CHAPTER XIV

SERICULTURE AND RAW SILK

Sericulture

History

Historical records show that the raising of silkworms has been practised in Japan for more than two thousand years. It is surmised that the industry was first introduced into the country from Chosen or China, but for sometime it made but slow development, as the work was almost exclusively in the hands of the naturalized Koreans and Chinese. Following the introduction of Buddhism, and with the advance of civilization, the demand for silk gradually increased and the industry spread among Japanese farm households. After that, sericulture made steady growth until about 1,100 years ago, when, at the time of the Emperor Kammu, it made a sudden spurt and spread over half the Japan proper of those days, and in less than another century most of the remaining half of the country was engaged in silk production. Recent development made in the industry is outlined in the following table, showing the cocoon output for the past half a century.

Year	(In 1,000 kwan)	Index number
1880–1884	12,223	100
1885–1889	11,147	91
1890–1894	15,436	123
1895–1899	24,608	201
1900–1904	26,484	217
1905–1909	32,622	267
1910–1914	43,184	353
1915–1919	61,561	504
1920–1924	64,877	530
1925–1929	91,668	749
1930	106,469	871
1931	94,072	709
1932	89,550	732
1933	101,247	828
1934	87,199	713
1935	82,067	671
1936	82,903	675

The recent condition in the sericultural industry can roughly be explained as follows :

	1933	1934	1935	1936
Number of agrarian families	5,621,536	5,617,486	5,610,607	—
Number of cocoon raising families	2,092,187	1,995,492	1,894,647	1,857,664
Percentage of cocoon raising families	37.2	35.5	—	—
Mulberry plantation area (chobu)	640,178	622,998	—	—
Egg-cards brushed (gramme)	181,200,931	160,829,333	151,131,371	145,637,860
Quantity of cocoon yield (1,000 kwan)	101,163	87,140	82,066	82,903
Value of cocoon yield (1,000 yen)	500,129	203,871	350,860	386,663

The Cocoon-raising Industry

According to the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry statistics the raisers of silkworm cocoons numbered 1,857,664 in 1936. The number of these cocoon raising houses decreased by 36,983, or only 2 per cent, from that for the previous year.

The quantity of cocoons produced in 1936 totalled 82,902,996 kwan and the value was estimated at ¥386,607,281 consisting of 41,392,474 kwan of spring cocoons valued at ¥199,967,500 and summer and autumn cocoons of 41,510,522 kwan valued at ¥186,639,781.

Egg-cards brushed during 1936 amounted to 145,637,860 grammes, falling 5,538,860 grammes, or 3.7 per cent, from 1935. Egg-cards for spring cocoons for 1936 represented a droy of 4,336,493 grammes, or 6.2 per cent, from 1935. As regards the cocoon production, the amount and value advanced

by 836,943 kwan, or 1 per cent, but gained ¥38,015,282, or 23.5 per cent, in comparison with the year before; summer-autumn cocoons gained 3,619,995 kwan, or 9.6 per cent, but declined by ¥2,268,429, or 1.2 per cent.

Egg-Cards

Control of Egg-cards Production In view of the severe competition with rayon silk in recent years there is a sheer necessity of improvement in silk industry so as to produce silk of a more superior quality with a lower cost of production, and the question of better egg-cards comes first of all. There was no control of the preparation of egg-cards hitherto all the matter being altogether left to the hands of merchants. For long the request for an effective control on the egg-cards production by the authorities has been raised among the farmers and silk producers. Consequently, the National Original Silkworm Egg-card Control Law was promulgated in 1934. The purpose of the Law is to realize a thorough control of egg-card production by 1938 and cut down the excessive number of different kinds and squeeze out the best ten by a special committe which is to be organized by the Imperial ordinance. The original egg-cards of the best kinds thus selected and sanctioned by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry shall be sent to local governments where they are multiplied and distributed among sericulturists. Private establishments may reproduce egg-cards out of the original ones, but the percentage is limited to 30% against the 70% of local governments' production. The price shall be fixed by the Imperial ordinance. The local governments are granted a delay of 10 years for the completion of facilities, but, as a matter of fact the control will be completed without delay because most of local governments can immediately respond while the vacancy left by backward prefectures will be filled up by private concerns for the time being. Encouragement shall be given to an invention of better egg-cards by individuals so as to prevent the abuse of a too-strict governmental control. An annual profit of at least ¥100,000,000 is estimated at as the result of the control.

PRODUCTION OF SILKWORM EGGS

(In kg.)

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Number of producers	6,269	5,616	5,344	4,924	4,346
Total					
Production	294,774	236,903	289,185	288,940	256,522
Qualified by government test	286,197	230,539	280,490	281,613	252,870
Reproductive eggs					
Production	8,871	7,559	9,360	9,369	8,616
Qualified by government test	8,401	7,211	8,901	9,006	8,256
Industrial eggs					
Production	285,902	299,343	279,824	279,570	247,903
Qualified by government test	277,795	223,327	271,589	272,606	244,615

Mulberry Plantation

The success of the silk-worm raising industry depends upon an adequate supply of suitable leaves on which to feed the worms.

In Japan there are as many as 276 varieties of mulberry tree, and from these, 71 are selected by local government authorities as model kinds, each having its own special characteristics.

The total mulberry plantation area at the end of 1936 totaled 566,000 chobu, representing a drop of 116,900 chobu, or 1.7 per cent from the end of 1931, when it was 682,900 chobu. This was due to progress of mulberry plantation readjustment all over the country. The number of mulberry saplings that were raised in 1935 counted 238,179,000 pieces valued at ¥1,625,000.

Cost

According to the investigation made by the Imperial Farmers' Association, cost of spring production in 1937 was as follows :

COST OF COCOON PRODUCTION

(For 1 kwan Cocoon; in yen)

Details	Spring Crop
Cost of mulberry leaves	2.380
Egg-card	0.221
Mulberry leaves	2.380
Labour	1.170
Cocoonery room	0.128
Land and building expenses	0.190
Duties	0.100
Miscellaneous	0.150
Total	4.721

Educational Facilities There are in Japan three special colleges for the silk industry, namely, the Ueda Sanshi Semmon Gakko, Nagano prefecture; Tokyo Sanshi Gakko, Tokyo; and Kyoto Koto Sanshi Gakko, Kyoto; besides which, there are, in different parts of the country, 16 public schools of middle school grade. Some of the agricultural colleges and middle grade schools also have classes dealing with silk industrial enterprises. In addition to these regular seats of learning there is a class for the practical training of silk-raisers at every sericultural experimental station established by the Government in each silk producing district, and a similar training is also given at a score of private institutes created for the purpose of diffusing knowledge on all phases of the silk industry.

The Numazu cocoon market for 1937 opened on May 29 for the first spring cocoon transactions in Japan. The transactions were noteworthy, as they were the first dry cocoon deals enforced by the Government, replacing traditional deals in raw cocoons for many years. Usually at the Numazu market yellow cocoons are dealt in, but at the Hamamatsu market which is opened on the following day, white cocoons are transacted. Prices of cocoons were the highest for the last four years. High, low and average prices of the day, which formed the standard for the year's prices in this country, together with those for the preceding five years, were as follows :

		High	Low	Average
		(In yen per kwan)		
1932	white	2.67	2.29	2.52
	yellow	3.03	2.04	2.73
1933	white	5.41	4.51	5.27
	yellow	5.57	4.68	5.34
1934	white	3.09	2.59	2.92
	yellow	3.26	2.00	2.66
1935	white	4.91	4.36	4.85
	yellow	5.11	4.23	4.85
1936	white	5.30	4.28	4.68
	yellow	5.29	4.51	4.94
1937	white	5.03	5.03	5.03
	yellow	6.28	5.20	5.93

The Statistics Statistics on cocoon production in Japan proper in the past 6 years are given below :

COCOON PRODUCTION IN 1930–1935

(Japan Proper)

		1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Number of producers		2,119,903	2,064,639	2,092,187	1,995,492	1,894,647	1,857,664
Egg-cards incubated	gr.	170,006,525	166,811,582	181,200,931	160,914,816	151,131,371	145,637,860
Total production							
Quantity	kg.	364,021,706	335,771,254	379,676,366	326,742,555	307,747,699	310,886,250
Value	yen	275,557,296	296,791,026	500,129,171	203,849,178	350,860,428	386,600,000
Cocoons							
Quantity	kg.	322,354,080	297,237,229	339,646,136	292,851,645	275,129,036	277,511,250
Value	yen	260,229,804	280,910,829	477,690,472	192,143,243	330,510,891	—
Doupions							
Quantity	kg.	26,558,917	23,317,849	23,602,789	19,016,003	17,725,294	17,940,000
Value	yen	10,338,730	10,117,560	13,165,266	7,056,560	11,702,573	—
Waste cocoons							
Quantity	kg.	15,108,709	15,216,176	16,427,441	14,874,907	14,893,369	15,427,500
Value	yen	4,988,762	5,702,637	9,273,433	4,649,375	8,646,964	—

Cocoon Deals

Cocoon Deals The Produced Cocoon Disposal Law was first enforced in 1937. The results were not satisfactory. Out of 67,902 kwan of cocoons transacted, only 120 kwan was delivered as dry cocoons. An expediency by which cocoons will be dried and delivered after purchase contracts are concluded was established. The Government overlooks it, considering the transitory period of the new practise. In Nagano prefecture the dry cocoon transactions were totally ignored and this caused a great trouble among cocoon raisers. Reelers are raising a protest against this system. The greatest dissatisfaction is with cocoon drying technique by a third party. The technique is said to damage the quality of raw silk and interfere with reeling operation. Another complaint is, since the quality of cocoons differs according to places of production, climate and species, a uniform drying method is not ideal.

Cost of drying makes the price higher and this is still another complaint. If the drying method is conducted by themselves, this will not damage the quality of cocoons and the cost also will be cheaper. The distribution by dry cocoon distribution guilds will make the cost of silk reeling higher. Sericulturists, too, are against the system. The reason is cocoon prices fluctuate with a change of silk price, but to keep dry cocoons for a certain period without selling them as raw cocoons will cause sericulturists uneasiness over future cocoon price. Economic condition of sericulturists does not allow them to keep cocoons for a long time. They need ready cash. Dry cocoon expenses are now shifted to sericulturists under the law. The law thus met a severe opposition in the first year of enforcement, but with the lapse of time it is believed to be followed by all.

AVERAGE COCOON PRICE IN JAPAN PROPER PER KWAN

(In yen)

	Spring Cocoon	Summer-Autumn Cocoon	Average
1924	7.37	9.22	8.21
1925	11.25	10.07	10.68
1926	9.28	7.33	8.35
1927	7.18	4.77	6.03
1928	6.88	6.02	6.48
1929	7.57	6.53	7.06
1930	4.00	2.04	3.10
1931	3.08	2.96	3.03
1932	2.54	4.70	3.53
1933	6.25	4.27	5.28
1934	2.52	2.38	2.45
1935	3.80	5.36	4.46
1936	4.80	3.97	4.38

Raw Silk

Soon after the country's entry into foreign trade, the Tokugawa Shogunate put a restraint on the exportation of silk on the ground of its scarcity and of its being a prized national production. Notwithstanding such a restrictive policy raw silk exports from Yokohama increased by leaps and bounds, as enormous profits could be made by the exporters.

With the Restoration came the encouragement of home industries, the first among them to arrest the attention of the Government authorities being the silk industry, and ever since special efforts have been made toward developing this national industry. Unfettered financial help was extended to filatures in 1915, 1920, and again in 1930, and the Government has established facilities for the promotion of all phases of silk activities, schools, silk conditioning houses and various experimental stations.

The silk reeling and sericultural industry is represented by Nagano prefecture. Suwa is located in the central part of the prefecture and Okaya (Hirano Village) in Suwa district is the most thriving and largest silk reeling centre. No other silk reeling district in the world can rival it, since Japan produces two-thirds of the world's entire silk production, and silk production in Nagano takes the foremost rank in Japan. Gumma prefecture is the next largest reeling centre with Fukushima, Aichi, Saitama, Gifu and Kyoto following.

Silk Filatures

Silk Filatures The number of Japanese silk filatures has kept falling for many years, except in 1930. The 1936 number decreased 8.3 per cent to 41,891 from 1935. This was the results of a drop of silk price and an increase of filatures going out of operation for readjustment of surplus basins. The Government was giving subsidy to filatures for encouragement of scrapping of surplus basins in accordance with a silk reeling industry law. Thus, readjustment of medium-sized and small filatures made headway. Division of this number for 1936 according to the number of basins used were as follows :

Those using less than		Drop from 1935
10 basins	39,357	3,544
10–50	1,232	137
50–100	636	38
100–300	512	55
Over 300	154	2

Of the total, filature-using machines were 2,468, re-reeling filatures were 34,445 and dupion filatures 4,978. The total number of basins for 1936 was 280,682, falling 5.7 per cent from the year before.

The number of female operatives totalled 296,566, falling 7.7 per cent from 1935 and that of male operatives 23,921, decreasing 8.6 per cent. Production of raw silk totalled 11,280,000 kwan, falling 3 per cent from 1935, worth ¥517,244,000, gaining 3.5 per cent. Production of silk

waste totalled 3,430,000 kwan, declining 35.6 per cent from 1935, worth ¥21,312,000, declining 1.3 per cent.

NUMBER OF FILATURES, BASINS AND OPERATIVES

(Silk Bureau, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

Year	Establishments	Filature Worked by Machinery	Basins	Operatives
1919	234,992	4,311	610,032	—
1924	196,929	3,674	523,582	546,813
1926	91,751	3,768	428,174	488,342
1927	83,469	3,787	425,595	496,230
1928	76,090	3,509	435,735	515,504
1929	69,417	3,719	437,738	525,307
1930	70,728	3,759	433,637	509,124
1931	66,400	3,687	418,402	495,449
1932	60,461	3,356	365,417	428,763
1933	54,397	3,218	343,579	395,027
1934	51,168	3,013	321,040	362,510
1935	45,703	2,708	297,657	347,513
1936	41,891	2,468	280,682	296,566

SILK PRODUCTION

(Silk Bureau, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

Year	Total Output		White silk		Yellow silk	
	volume (kwan)	value (¥)	volume (kwan)	value (¥)	volume (kwan)	value (¥)
1924	7,577,170	837,230,677	6,158,148	673,368,557	1,419,022	163,862,124
1925	8,284,317	956,052,187	6,822,065	784,720,379	1,462,252	171,331,808
1926	9,101,310	850,751,982	7,151,726	667,505,253	1,949,584	183,246,729
1927	9,880,306	798,798,455	7,800,821	629,005,493	2,079,485	169,782,962
1928	10,584,232	835,467,904	7,760,865	615,721,117	2,823,367	219,746,787
1929	11,292,399	857,577,692	8,246,583	624,955,155	3,045,816	232,622,537
1930	11,365,026	536,663,848	8,097,133	384,978,584	3,267,893	151,685,264
1931	11,682,814	427,690,988	8,036,360	295,289,433	3,646,454	132,401,555
1932	11,090,711	454,457,838	7,805,617	320,777,178	3,285,094	133,680,660
1933	11,242,816	497,740,808	8,429,370	370,840,466	2,813,446	126,900,342
1934	12,064,894	398,369,167	8,785,013	294,268,393	3,279,881	104,100,774
1935	11,629,277	499,769,191	9,123,482	399,379,783	2,500,795	100,387,408

TOTAL PRODUCTION BY RAW SILK FACTORIES

		1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Grand total							
Number of establishments		70,723	66,400	60,461	54,397	51,168	45,703
Number of boiling basins		433,637	418,402	365,417	343,579	321,040	297,657
Number of operatives		509,124	495,449	428,763	395,027	362,510	347,513
Male		36,830	36,185	30,120	28,055	27,450	26,174
Female		472,294	459,264	398,643	366,972	335,060	321,339
Production (Value)							
	yen	552,618,420	441,508,631	472,324,428	517,054,010	417,414,865	522,265,279
Raw silk							
Qt.	kg.	42,618,848	43,810,553	41,590,166	42,160,560	45,243,354	43,609,788
Val.	yen	536,663,848	427,690,988	454,457,838	497,740,808	398,369,167	499,767,191
Waste							
Total							
Qt.	kg.	14,029,496	13,742,940	13,558,605	13,988,562	15,053,644	14,990,661
Val.	yen	15,954,572	13,817,643	17,866,590	19,313,202	19,045,698	22,498,088

Japan's Place in World's Silk Industry

According to the investigation made by the Silk Bureau of the Agriculture and Forestry Ministry the total world production in 1934 was 57,558,000 kilogrammes of which Japan (Korea and Formosa included) produced 47,370,000 kg., 76% of the total. The 1935 world production totalled 59,486,000 kilogrammes of which Japan produced 45,520,000 kilogrammes. China with 9,829,000 kilogrammes produced the largest quantity next to Japan. Then came Italy with 1,700,000 kilogrammes. A noticeable feature is a greatly decreased production in all countries except Japan, where the output, though diminished slightly compared with the 1931 basis, is still on the increase. Compared with 1923, the gain made during the 10 years was 18,189,000 kilogrammes. Detailed figures of the statistics prepared at the Silk Bureau of the Agriculture and Forestry Ministry follow :

RAW SILK PRODUCTION IN THE WORLD

(In 1,000 kirogrammes)

Year	Total	Japan	India & Indo-China	China	Eastern Europe, Near East and Central Asia	Spain	Italy	France
1924	52,670	28,666	80	17,144	1,095	95	5,255	335
1925	57,138	31,485	90	19,678	1,145	100	4,380	260
1926	59,485	34,677	120	19,433	1,070	90	3,855	240
1927	63,211	37,782	140	19,244	1,040	83	4,627	295
1928	67,430	40,582	110	20,478	1,140	79	4,836	205
1929	70,630	43,403	60	20,722	1,350	74	4,826	195
1930	68,330	43,943	20	18,067	1,220	58	4,882	140
1931	57,718	45,244	10	8,244	610	44	3,286	80
1932	56,984	42,114	—	9,524	706	42	3,520	78
1933	57,001	43,757	—	8,876	854	38	3,400	76
1934	57,558	43,370	—	6,316	930	30	2,836	77
1935	59,466	45,520	—	9,829	2,281	34	1,700	52

Silk in Japan's Foreign Trade

Exports of raw silk for 1936 totalled 505,000 bales, including dupion, valued at ¥395,973,000. While the amount decreased by 49,000 bales from the 1935 exports, the value advanced by ¥16,000,000. This was the result of higher export price. The United States, as usual, made the bulk of purchases taking 426,624 bales. Europe followed with 59,000 bales, India, Brazil, Egypt and other countries, combined, took 16,000 bales. In the last 10 years the export quantity has not made any great change but the export value fluctuated widely. For instance, the 1927 exports totalled 521,773 bales against the 1936 exports of 505,359 bales, but the 1927 export value amounted to ¥742,265,000 against ¥430,637,000 for 1936.

SILK AND TOTAL EXPORTS COMPARED

(Unit: ¥1,000)

	Value of All Exports (Japan Proper)	Value of Silk Exports (Japan Proper)	Percentage of Silk
1912	526,982	150,321	28.5
1913	632,460	188,917	29.9
1914	591,101	161,797	16.3
1915	708,307	152,031	21.5
1916	1,127,468	267,037	23.7
1917	1,603,005	355,155	22.2
1918	1,962,101	370,337	18.9
1919	2,098,872	623,619	29.7
1920	1,948,395	382,717	19.3
1921	1,252,828	417,124	33.3
1922	1,637,452	670,048	40.9
1923	1,447,751	556,169	39.1
1924	1,807,035	685,366	37.9
1925	2,305,590	879,657	28.2
1926	2,044,728	734,052	35.9
1927	1,992,317	742,266	37.3
1928	1,971,955	733,436	37.2
1929	2,148,619	784,150	36.5
1930	1,469,852	419,107	28.5
1931	1,146,981	355,394	31.0
1932	1,409,992	382,265	27.8
1933	1,861,045	390,901	21.0
1934	2,171,924	286,793	13.2
1935	2,499,073	387,032	15.4
1936	2,797,849	392,809	14.0

As regards the quantity, it is rather on the increase compared with 10 years or so ago. In 1923 the exports were figured at 263,280 piculs and for the following 3 years the quantity of the annual shipment never exceeded 450,000 piculs in contrast to 497,485 piculs for 1933. But this quantity for 1933 was smaller than that for any single year between 1928 and 1932. In 1934 it regained the former level, realizing a quantity next to none other than 1931 figure, and the tendency was continued in 1935. Below is given the quantity of silk exported each year for the 12 years ending 1936 :

Year	Quantity of Silk Exported (picul)
1925	438,449
1926	442,978
1927	521,773
1928	549,256
1929	680,950
1930	477,322
1931	560,577
1932	548,541
1933	497,485
1934	551,308
1935	553,156
1936	505,550

WORLD MARKETS FOR JAPANESE SILK

(Unit: ¥1,000)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
United States	398,715	342,479	360,148	355,805	239,568	328,910	428,209
Britain	2,914	6,161	9,257	14,654	14,237	21,450	28,948
France	8,040	1,879	7,107	15,378	20,333	23,764	28,002
Australia	2,783	1,928	3,165	3,297	4,017	4,232	6,408
Canada	3,558	2,595	1,164	208	411	70	1,021
Others	636	351	1,523	1,556	8,225	8,606	11,679
Total	416,646	355,393	382,366	390,901	286,793	387,032	505,550

Price of Raw Silk

In January, 1920, raw silk was quoted at ¥4,360 per bale of 16 kan, the highest price in the history of the country's silk business. At that time the volume of production was 360,000 bales, but during the next 10 years production increased to 730,000 bales, but unfortunately the prices did not fall in inverse ratio. Had they done so, Japanese producers would have been happy, for in June, 1932, the price fell below one-tenth that of 1920, whereas the output had only doubled. In 1933 it regained a little, but in 1934 the price fell to its lowest, and it seems to be showing an upward tendency from the following year.

SILK EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES

(Unit: picul 133 lbs.)

Year	Export Volume	Index Number	Rate of Increase or Decrease against Previous Year (%)	Year	Export Volume	Index Number	Rate of Increase or Decrease against Previous Year (%)
1921	247,672	100.0		1929	560,976	226.5	(+) 9.0
1922	312,419	126.1	(+) 26.1	1930	453,517	183.1	(−) 19.2
1923	201,938	81.5	(−) 35.4	1931	540,158	218.3	(+) 19.2
1924	335,596	135.5	(+) 66.2	1932	513,402	207.1	(−) 5.1
1925	422,984	170.8	(+) 26.0	1933	437,624	176.7	(−) 14.7
1926	427.621	172.7	(+) 1.1	1934	433,537	175.0	(−) 0.9
1927	491,078	198.3	(+) 19.8	1935	466,566	188.3	(+) 7.6
1928	514,772	207.8	(+) 9.8	1936	428,209	173.6	(−) 8.3

RAW SILK PRICE AT YOKOHAMA SPOT MARKET

(In yen)

(Standard quality; per 100 kin, 133 lbs.)

Year	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Average
1925	2,053	2,098	1,889	1,814	1,813	1,888	1,913	1,956	2,069	2,078	1,992	1,955	1,957
1926	1,942	1,860	1,711	1,503	1,519	1,576	1,602	1,557	1,601	1,532	1,466	1,441	1,585
1927	1,413	1,418	1,414	1,416	1,451	1,427	1,374	1,317	1,341	1,301	1,289	1,293	1,375

Year	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Arp.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Average
1928	1,311	1,357	1,356	1,348	1,326	1,251	1,247	1,282	1,312	1,375	1,362	1,370	1,321
1929	1,356	1,378	1,396	1,401	1,341	1,314	1,282	1,302	1,220	1,288	1,221	1,169	1,310
1930	1,174	1,169	1,165	1,139	1,100	795	705	708	648	574	581	562	775
1931	708	684	666	597	531	527	585	577	584	548	556	567	583
1932	672	653	618	534	473	469	536	803	938	891	914	928	702
1933	770	694	655	728	786	970	954	857	851	713	586	555	766
1934	583	643	570	538	523	494	474	463	465	510	550	598	537
1935	634	617	590	607	614	592	632	754	830	912	931	874	674
1936	916	764	749	746	691	681	738	771	734	771	863	871	775

Raw silk passed the year 1936 on a comparatively strong tone. The advance was particularly noteworthy in the autumn with Yokohama raw silk quotations topping the ¥900 mark and New York prices passing the $2 limit. Domestic quotations, apparently based on some speculative elements, failed to maintain the ¥900 mark for a long time, but the New York prices continued strong at the $2 mark into 1937. The 1936 average domestic raw silk quotation was ¥775, which eclipsed the 1935 all-year average by ¥58 and that of 1934 by ¥135.

The 1936 average quotation in New York at $1.77 was 8 cents in advance of the 1935 average and 38 cents over that of 1934. Supply and demand of raw silk was maintained more or less harmoniously. The spring cocoon production last year fell 6 per cent to 41,390,000 kwan from the 1935 production. The production of the summer-autumn cocoons, advancing only 1 per cent, compared to the 1935 output, failed to make up for the loss in the spring cocoons. International raw silk deliveries during the four months, July to October, 1936, also declined 11,000 bales to 233,000 bales as compared to the corresponding four months the year before.

The world raw silk consumption came back last year, with the demand in the United States, the leading consuming country coming back to the 1929 level. Owing to the advance of rayon, however, the American consumption during the first half of last year recorded a decline as compared to the 1935 consumption, resulting in a slight fall in the all-year demand 1936 from the preceding year. It is generally believed that the raw silk price in 1937 will continue to maintain favourably in view of the increasing demand for commodities in the international market arising out of the world-wide military inflation. The rising trend of commodity prices will also serve to help raw silk prices. Domestic raw silk distribution in 1936 progressed favourably throughout the year owing to decreased production in the preceding year, the year-end stocks having dropped by from 11,000 to 21,336 bales. Arrivals fell by 55,000 bales and sales by 50,000 bales.

The American consumption of Japanese raw silk during the first seven months last year, January to July, failed to record any noticeable increase, the June consumption falling to 28,008 bales, the minimum for the whole year. September was the best month, the monthly consumption totalling 44,207. August and October also led other months with 39,828 bales and 29,095 bales, respectively. Because of the rising trend in the American consumption in and after August, the stocks at the beginning of the month showed a corresponding decrease. The stocks at the beginning of November fell to 30,300 bales, including 26,000 bales of the Japanese raw silk, from 64,000 bales stocked at the beginning of March.

The American demand has been well maintained in 1937. April's consumption of raw silk in the United States amounted to 40,561 bales, gaining 627 bales over that of March and 5,997 bales over that of the corresponding month last year. Of this, Japanese silk totalled 37,436 bales, increasing 1,453 bales over the March consumption and 4,614 bales over that of the corresponding month of the year before.

Imports through New York increased to 39,712 bales. This was 7,455 bales more than in March and 12,739 bales over the year before. Stocks in New York at the end of April totalled 40,882 bales, falling 5,849 bales from March this year and 5,216 bales from April, 1936. Details are shown in the following tables :

	Comsumption	Imports (Bales)	Stocks in N.Y. (April 30)
Japanese silk	37,436	27,511	34,291
European silk	833	650	2,397
Cantonese silk	19	—	896
Shanghai silk	2,273	1,551	3,298
Total	40,561	39,712	40,882

Stocks of Japanese silk at home and abroad, as well as that in transit, at the end of April, amounted to 83,157 bales. They gained 514 bales from the month before, but were 5,800 bales less than on April 30, 1936.

Raw silk distribution at home and the distribution in the United States are as follows :

RAW SILK DISTRIBUTION IN DOMESTIC MARKETS

(Arrivals and Deliveries at Kobe and Yokohama)

—Quantity in bales—

Years & Months	Arrivals	Sales	Sales in Japan
1936:			
Jan.	27,856	35,672	2,305
Feb.	27,991	26,474	2,409
Mar.	35,516	33,570	6,120
Apr.	35,706	28,054	3,680
May	31,889	29,533	6,132
June	25,824	23,970	6,087
July	51,082	44,812	3,306
Aug.	55,681	49,825	2,264
Sept.	50,627	49,232	2,238
Oct.	53,662	52,242	3,627
Nov.	56,651	49,843	3,772
Dec.	58,282	57,159	2,405
1936 (total)	510,767	480,386	44,345
1935 („)	568,856	530,060	36,804
1934 („)	559,891	521,061	42,215
1933 („)	539,858	499,977	37,905
1932 („)	541,019	513,182	42,669
1930 („)	611,043	565,661	32,359

DISTRIBUTION OF RAW SILK IN AMERICA IN 1936

(Quantity in bales)

Months	Imports		Consumption	
	Japanese	Total	Japanese	Total
January	35,633	40,565	35,312	38,995
February	87,577	40,222	29,290	32,053
March	24,425	25,009	34,354	36,000
April	26,436	26,973	32,822	34,564
May	24,663	26,055	30,455	32,087
June	23,517	26,780	28,008	31,437
July	28,426	31,388	32,685	36,658
August	40,484	41,702	39,828	42,016
September	43,444	45,437	44,207	45,709
October	40,172	43,840	39,095	43,093
November	46,685	50,815	36,650	40,401
December	41,778	45,328	38,177	41,627

CHAPTER XV

FISHERIES

General

Japan Leads From her natural position, the fishing industry has naturally developed from of old until today Japan occupies the first position in the world in the production of aquatic animals and plants amounting to ¥545,866,000 in 1935 as the following tables show. These products consist mainly of fishes, shell-fishes, seaweeds, which are used as food, fish oils and animal fertilizers.

History Many historical records show that the people in Japan engaged in fishing and served fishes as delicacies at table from very early times. During the time the Ashikaga family ruled the country, fishermen in the western provinces were so bold as to sail not only to the Chinese coast but even as far as Annam and Siam. Fishermen during the time of Toyotomi were equally active and engaged in fishing in the seas round Korea. When, however, the Tokugawa Shogunate came to govern the country, it adopted the seclusion policy and dealt a severe blow to the fishing industry. Fishermen were prohibited from sailing to distant seas and pelagic fishery, which would otherwise have developed, gradually declined.

The international exhibitions held in Vienna and Philadelphia in 1872 and 1876, and the International Exhibitions of Aquatic Products held in Berlin and London in 1880 and 1883, had a great deal to do with the awakening of Japan's fishery industry. Somewhere about that time incubation was first introduced into Japan. In 1885, the Bureau of Aquatic Products was established in the Department of Agriculture and Commerce and at the same time Regulations for Fishermen's Associations were issued; investigations regarding aquatic products were started; indiscriminate catching of fishes, shell-fishes, and seaweeds were prohibited; and various other measures for the protection, cultivation and improvement of the industry were adopted. In 1897, an Act for the Encouragement of Pelagic Fishery was enacted, and from 1902 on the Fishery Act, which was revised in 1910, was enforced.

As regards international relations, the Act for Fishery Associations in Foreign Seas was enacted in 1902. Under this Act the present "Suisankai" (Fishery society) in Russian waters was established in December of 1908. In 1907, the most important treaty on fishery, the Russo-Japanese Treaty was signed between the two countries. In 1924, a further treaty on fishery was concluded between Japan and Soviet Russia.

Another important treaty, important from the standpoint of international relations on fishery, was signed between Japan, Great Britain, the United States of America and Russia in 1911 with regard to the protection of the fur-seal. In 1924, a treaty was concluded in Paris with the purpose of establishing an International Storage Association.

Survey of Recent Years

Catches of fish, shell fish and other marine products in Japan's coastal waters for 1936 were valued at altogether at ¥212,648,020. This figure gained ¥30,846,503, or 17 per cent, over 1935. Fish totalled ¥159,764,000, gaining ¥25,092,000, or 18.6 per cent, shell fish totalled ¥11,202,000, falling ¥494,000, or 4.2 per cent, other marine products ¥29,373,000 increasing ¥4,113,000, or 16.3 per cent, and seaweeds ¥12,308,000, advancing ¥2,135,000, or 21 per cent. Value for the last six years follows: ¥147,806,138 for 1931; ¥145,735,675 for 1932; ¥170,613,874 for 1933; ¥173,137,123 for 1934; ¥181,801,517 for 1935; and ¥212,648,020, for 1936.

Within only a few years, Japan's Antarctic whaling has attained prominence, rivalling that of Britain and Norway, which have built up their position in 10 years. In but a few years more, Japan promises to outstrip these countries. Several large whaling companies have been established by the Sumatra Development Company. Japan did not attend the 1937 whaling conference in London, in spite of persuasion, because it was felt that the country's internal circumstances made that move premature. Now, all preparations for the country to co-operate are reported to have been completed. Pelagic whaling has been a new experience to Japan, although coastal whaling in Japan has a long history, beginning during the Tokugawa period. It was not until 1899 that

Japan's traditional whaling method was replaced by the Norwegian system. Beginning then, the business grew apace and the number of whalers increased. Later, however, the Government reduced the number to 25 to protect the industry. Early in 1920, a plan for Antarctic operations was advanced by enterprising whaling companies here, but it was laid aside because of the depression. The Nissan interests absorbed the Oriental Whaling Company in 1934 and established the Japan Whaling Company. The new company bought the Norwegian canning whaler Antarctic, together with catcher-boats. This whaler is now known as the Tonan Maru, which was the first Japanese canning whaler to work the Antarctic grounds.

In September, 1935, the whaler set sail for the Antarctic and worked there for three months, from early in November until January, 1936. During its first season, the Tonan Maru produced 7,400 tons of whale oil, of which 5,000 tons were exported to Europe direct from the region by British ships. Last fall the Tonan Maru went to the Antarctic accompanied by 13 catcher-boats. The Taiyo Whaling Company's new pelagic whaler Taiyo Maru went along. They returned about the middle of March, after three months' operations. The results were more satisfactory than before. The Tonan Maru, 9,800 tons gross, caught 860 whales and produced 11,000 tons of oil. The Nisshin Maru, 9,800 tons gross, caught 1,116 whales and got 15,000 tons of oil. Whaling results of four prominent whaling countries for 1936 were as follows :

	Whalers	Whale oil in tons
Britain	12	360,000
Norway	13	
Germany	1	30,000
Japan	2	26,000

The contest for supremacy in Antarctic whaling is becoming acute. The Japanese Government is backing the enterprise. It permitted the Japan Marine Product Company and the Sumatra Development Company each to build a modern type of pelagic whaler. By the fall of 1937, two more are expected to be completed. The new vessels, the Tonan Maru No.2 and the Nisshin Maru No. 2 will go to the Antarctic.

In 1938 the Tonan Maru No. 3 and three more new whalers are expected to be added to Japan's fleet of pelagic whalers. The result will be an increase in whale oil production from 26,000 tons to 150,000. The bulk of this oil will be exported to Europe.

New whalers to be built next year are a 17,000-ton whaler with eight 260-ton catcher-boats for the Japan Marine Product Company ; a 15,000-ton whaler with nine 200-ton catcher-boats for the Taiyo Whaling Company ; and a 16,000-ton whaler with a 250-ton catcher-boat for the Sumatra Development Company.

A pelagic whaler of about 13,000 tons and about 10 catcher-boats cost ¥8,000,000 or ¥9,000,000. When incidental expenditures are added, the cost of operating a single whaling fleet mounts to ¥12,000,000 or ¥13,000,000.

In time of national emergency, whalers can be employed for defense, the news agency points out.

Arctic whaling is monopolized by the Soviet Union. A new whaling company has been established jointly by the Japan Marine Product Company and Hayashikane Company under Government protection, but it has not yet stepped into the field. In preparation for entering the field, the company is planning to send out trawlers to make a survey.

The Nichiro Fishery Company which supplies a half of its catches in Kamchatka waters to home and the other half to foreign countries, mostly England, produced 1,146,499 cases of canned fish and crab for 1936 in contrast to 957,750 cases for 1935. Its refined manufactures of salt fish for 1936 totalled 582,242 against 621,949 for 1935. Last year's production was normal, while that for 1935 was exceedingly poor. Its canned production follows :

	1936 (In cases)	1935
Red salmon	338,985	188,484
Silver salmon	106,307	41,655
Trout	638,935	680,296
King salmon	9,256	8,130
Others	5,957	2,545
Crab	47,059	36,640
Total	1,146,499	957,750

The Japan Marine Product Company is the largest fishery company other than the Nichiro Fishery Company. This company was established in September, 1936, as a result of merger of five companies, namely, the Kyodo Fishery Company, Japan Consolidated Floating Cannery Company, Japan Whaling Company, Japan Marine Product Company and Japan Foodstuff Industry Company. It has an absolute influence over marine product circles. It has 61 steam trawlers, which are operating mostly in

China Sea. The number is an absolute majority, as Japan's total trawlers in operation is 70. The company also is engaged in floating crab canning in northern waters. Its whaling is on the most extensive scale.

Japanese fishing operations off Bristol Bay in Alaska has been made a serious discussion among American fishery companies of late. In 1936 the Japanese Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry sent fishing vassels to sea off Alaska to investigate the pelagic conditions of salmon and trout. This gave rise to cries of American fishery companies against the operation of Japanese fishing ships there. Salmon and trout are caught only in the Northern Pacific. Their canned production is about 10,000,000 cases a year and of this 8,000,000 cases are manufactured in the United States and Canada and 2,000,000 cases in Japan and the Soviet Union, both interested in Kamchatka fishery. Production in Bristol Bay alone totals 2,000,000 cases, rivalling the whole production in the Far East. Bristol Bay is a treasure-ground for American fishermen. American fishermen protest, if Japanese canning ships penetrate into the Bristol Bay fishery, this will eventually lead American salmon and trout fishery to ruin. Japanese ships operating there are the Shinko Marine Product Company's fish meal manufacturing ship Daihoku Maru, 10,000-tons, with three trawlers and 10 catcher-boats and the Japan Marine Product Company's crab canning ship Toten Maru, 3,800-tons, with several catcher-boats. This question is still pending between Japan and the United States.

Persons Engaged in Fisheries

The fishery industry in Japan is now run on a modern industrial basis and especially pelagic fishing is developing rapidly. But by far the larger number of fishermen are still engaged in working in the old-fashioned way, generally on a small scale. In 1935, as many as 1,521,477 men and women were engaged in fishery, and of this number about 1,250,000 were males and the others females. Of the total number, 1,098,999 were fishermen, 155,203 were engaged in cultivation and 267,275 in the manufacture of aquatic products.

NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN VARIOUS BRANCHES OF THE FISHERY INDUSTRY

Year	Total Number	Fishermen	Those engaged in Cultivation	Those engaged in Manufacture
1928	1,498,258	1,130,430	119,986	247,842
1929	1,490,726	1,112,002	120,933	257,791
1930	1,482,355	1,109,700	122,116	252,119
1931	1,482,520	1,110,506	124,784	247,113
1932	1,499,040	1,106,850	141,394	250,796
1933	1,499,175	1,097,254	144,655	257,266
1934	1,521,916	1,103,346	151,007	269,563
1935	1,521,477	1,098,999	155,203	267,275

NUMBER OF PERSONS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO EMPLOYERS, EMPLOYEES AND SEX

Total number

Year	Total	Men	Women
1928	1,498,258	1,208,583	289,675
1929	1,490,726	1,209,969	280,757
1930	1,482,355	1,205,654	276,701
1931	1,482,520	1,202,515	280,005
1932	1,499,040	1,217,694	281,346
1933	1,499,175	1,216,434	282,741
1934	1,521,916	1,321,021	290,895
1935	1,521,477	1,224,612	296,865

Year	Total	Employers Men	Women	Total	Employees Men	Women
1928	633,487	601,985	31,502	864,771	606,598	258,173
1929	633,080	604,215	28,865	857,646	605,754	251,892

Year	Total	Employers Men	Women	Total	Employers Men	Women
1930	635,241	605,457	29,784	847,114	600,197	246,917
1931	634,699	604,294	30,405	847,821	598,221	249,600
1932	640,318	609,543	30,775	858,722	608,151	250,571
1933	635,849	604,080	31,769	863,326	612,354	250,972
1934	640,735	608,992	31,743	881,181	622,029	359,152
1935	633,435	602,656	30,779	888,042	621,956	266,086

Fishing Boats and Vessels

The total number of boats and vessels engaged in fishing at the end of 1935 was over 308,541, of which 308,541 were without engines, while over 57,276 were with engines. The number of smaller boats, having capacity of less than 5 tons, is decreasing, while the number of vessels having engines has steadily increased. This shows an improvement in vessels and in the method of fishing.

Year	Total Number of Boats	Boats without Engines	Boats with Engines	
			Steam	Motor
1919	384,609	380,577	99	3,933
1930	359,295	323,228	159	35,908
1931	360,690	318,443	185	42,062
1932	360,686	315,217	244	45,225
1933	363,473	314,434	250	48,789
1934	364,582	311,553	87	52,942
1935	308,541	308,541	202	57,276

FISHING BOATS AND VESSELS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO KINDS AND CAPACITIES

Kinds and tonnage of steamers	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Without engines	318,443	315,217	314,434	311,553	308,541
Under 5 tons	309,985	306,137	306,381	303,342	306,651
5-10 ,,	7,925	8,650	7,582	7,635	7,319
10-20 ,,	482	385	417	529	530
20 ,, and over	49	45	54	47	43
With engines	42,247	45,469	49,039	53,029	57,478
Steam engines	185	244	250	87	202
Under 50 tons	70	143	157	63	116
50-100 ,,	19	16	13	2	16
100 ,, and over	96	85	80	22	70
Oil engines	42,062	45,225	48,789	52,942	57,276
Under 5 tons	27,301	30,402	33,714	37,053	40,658
5-10 ,,	6,136	6,388	6,516	6,772	6,841
10-20 ,,	6,584	6,458	6,498	6,724	7,154
20-50 ,,	1,755	1,638	1,688	1,871	2,015
50 tons and over	286	339	373	522	608

Coastal Fishery

Fish, shell-fish, etc. caught in 1935 amounted to ¥181,802,000 in value, the major classification of which were as follows :

	Quantity	Value
Fish	514,456,000kn.	¥134,672,000
Shell-fish	54,542,000	11,697,700
Crustaceans and Mollusca	36,310,000	25,260,000
Seaweeds	132,141,000	10,173,000

The amount of catches in coastal fishery since 1927 is shown in the following table. In 1930–32 while the value of catches showed a gradual decrease, catches were steadily increasing, showing thereby that the decrease in value was due to decline in price caused by the depression of those years, but for the past two years it is regaining former prosperity.

(Quantities in Metric Tons, Values in ¥1,000)

Year	Total		Fresh Fishes	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1927	2,971,779	229,138	1,717,739	166,006
1928	2,123,777	209,264	1,469,120	156,560
1929	2,136,252	204,498	1,489,973	153,424
1930	2,302,036	162,923	1,538,580	121,734
1931	2,526,837	147,806	1,833,826	110,772
1932	2,667,255	145,736	1,886,086	107,818
1933	3,859,993	170,613	2,860,585	128,151
1934	3,254,725	173,137	2,227,173	128,142
1935	2,765,432	181,802	1,929,210	134,672

Year	Shell-fishes		Crustaceans and Mollusca		Seaweeds	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1927	130,218	11,001	173,023	35,232	950,799	21,899
1928	143,984	12,113	134,763	28,931	375,910	11,661
1929	138,828	10,492	149,308	29,311	358,143	11,270
1930	123,100	8,465	136,757	23,169	503,599	9,561
1931	118,752	7,136	148,663	21,892	425,596	8,005
1932	125,328	6,975	179,009	22,951	476,832	7,992
1933	135,593	7,972	204,347	26,288	659,467	8,201
1934	180,033	10,094	190,476	25,617	657,042	9,282
1935	204,532	11,697	136,162	25,260	495,528	10,173

Catches of the more important fishes in coastwise fishery since 1929 are shown in the following tables :

CATCHES OF PRINCIPAL FRESH FISHES BY KINDS

(Unit ¥1,000)

Kind of Fresh Fish	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Herring	7,542	7,213	7,253	13,378	7,157	5,077
Sardine	19,006	17,972	20,756	26,035	26,314	28,257
Bonito	2,589	2,257	2,081	2,325	2,687	1,901
Mackerel	5,631	5,184	4,555	5,746	5,830	6,596
Tunny	5,630	5,184	4,601	4,715	4,991	6,163
Yellow-tail	7,865	7,191	9,075	10,934	9,654	9,671
Cod	3,252	2,968	2,997	3,287	3,781	4,822
Shark	986	767	667	857	909	718
Sea-bream, red	10,232	9,144	8,602	10,434	9,685	9,786
Sea-bream, black	2,024	1,859	1,780	1,904	2,176	2,158
Flat-fish	4,192	3,458	3,532	3,694	4,135	4,330
Cybium	5,513	2,207	1,976	2,072	2,557	2,449
Horse-mackerel	4,099	3,988	3,677	4,390	4,501	4,877
Flying Fish	1,071	798	711	902	907	958
Grey mullet	2,962	2,426	2,367	2,779	2,655	2,722
Konosirus	948	827	720	863	804	838
Dog-salmon	3,830	3,345	2,558	3,636	4,690	4,994
Trout	2,225	2,599	1,715	1,956	5,312	5,244
Japanese smelt	3,411	2,989	2,789	2,473	2,595	2,915
Eel	2,974	2,688	2,453	2,425	2,278	2,475

VALUES OF VARIOUS KINDS OF SHELL-FISHES

(Unit ¥1,000)

Kind of Shell-Fish	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Awabi[1]	2,652	1,683	1,656	1,813	2,849	3,843
Oyster	363	400	720	423	473	506
Clam	402	373	468	492	493	512
Sazaé[2]	502	483	416	456	485	506
Arca	651	536	555	463	405	362
Asari[3]	576	507	497	505	434	861

1 Sea ear, abalone. 2 Turbo cornutus. 3 Tapes phillippinarum.

VALUES OF CRUSTACEANS AND MOLLUSCA

(Unit ¥1,000)

Kind	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Cuttle-fish	8,315	8,822	10,169	11,781	10,276	7,734
Octopus	3,431	2,930	2,898	3,069	3,357	3,736
Prawn and shrimp	6,616	5,425	5,258	6,179	6,320	7,044
Spiny lobster	1,094	1,062	1,051	1,056	1,076	1,170
Crab	781	790	712	1,411	1,603	2,526
Bêche-de-mer	752	632	502	584	777	1,015

VALUES OF VARIOUS KINDS OF SEAWEEDS

(Unit ¥1,000)

Kind	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Kombu[1]	3,909	2,381	3,945	2,345	3,930	4,195
Amanori[2]	552	412	315	515	452	488
wakamé[3]	921	813	722	938	1,026	1,018
Tengusa[4]	1,821	2,094	1,616	1,783	1,466	1,961
Funori[5]	680	681	644	698	877	894

1 Laminaria. 2 Porphyra. 3 Undaria pinnatifida. 4 Gelidium corneum
5 Gloiopeltis furcata.

Pelagic Fishery

Large-sized vessels with motors have increased greatly in number of late. There are over 10,000 vessels of over 10 tons, many of which are actively engaged in fishing at distances of up to 700 miles from Formosa and Japan proper. The northern seas have been opened up by floating crab canneries, and mother vessels for the salmon and salmon trout fisheries. But there are still vast undeveloped areas in the Behring Sea, the Sea of Okhotsk, the Maritime province waters, the South Seas, the South China Sea, the Gulf of Siam, and even in the Southern Pacific, so that the future for pelagic fishery for Japan is bright and of great importance to her. The following sections deal with different branches of deep-sea fishing.

In Home Waters In 1935, the number of vessels engaged was 8,984, the number of men 115,689 and the amount of catches 217,226,000 kwan of a value of ¥74,261,000, exclusive of catches in colonial waters. The vessels with engines numbered 8,813, while those without numbered only 171.

Catches of principal fishes are as follows :

	1,000kn	¥
Bonito	16,525	10,888,000
Tunny	9,125	10,245,000
Sea-bream	2,446	5,269,000
Flat-fish	12,697	5,325,000

The number and descriptions of vessels engaged in this fishing with their catches, since 1930, are given below :

NUMBER AND CREWS OF VESSELS ENGAGED IN DEEP-SEA FISHING IN HOME WATERS

Year	Total Number of Vessels			Vessels without Engines			Vessels without Engines		
	No.	Tonnage	No. of crew	No.	Tonnage	No. of crew	No.	Tonnage	No. of crew
1930	9,258	175,617	111,778	590	4,484	3,757	8,660	170,955	111,913
1931	9,048	170,524	111,778	590	4,484	3,757	8,458	166,040	108,021
1932	8,690	172,621	111,673	408	3,013	2,914	8,282	169,608	108,849
1933	8,225	181,957	111,919	282	1,916	1,482	7,943	180,041	111,437
1934	8,705	194,407	110,983	297	2,038	1,686	8,408	192,369	109,297
1935	8,984	199,069	115,689	171	1,321	1,133	8,813	197,757	114,556

VALUE OF DEEP-SEA FISHES CAUGHT IN HOME WATERS

In Japan Proper

(Unit ¥1,000)

Kind of fish	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Sardine	2,047	2,183	2,506	3,412	3,702	5,771
Bonito	11,063	10,886	8,404	11,661	11,048	10,888
Mackerel	2,612	2,450	2,183	2,873	2,973	3,473
Tunny	13,703	11,806	9,040	9,788	10,753	10,245
Cod	1,699	1,647	1,507	2,102	2,967	3,515
Shark	3,695	2,588	2,606	2,848	2,686	2,946
Sea-bream	7,218	5,546	4,925	5,449	5,470	5,269
Flat fish	5,650	4,387	4,051	5,287	5,184	5,323
Cybium	253	32	37	31	53	38
Skipper	1,295	814	950	1,299	1,655	1,237
Others	17,307	15,633	17,811	21,230	22,391	25,115
Total	66,546	57,978	54,020	65,986	69,428	74,261

In Korean Waters

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Number of boats	2,102	1,712	1,343	832	1,063
Total value of catches	¥3,763,452	¥3,171,906	¥3,339,410	¥3,241,283	¥4,020,884

In Formosan Waters

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Number of boats	7	15	50	42	15
Total value of catches	¥104,571	¥198,583	¥191,559	¥181,812	¥26,083

In Kwantung Waters

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Number of beats	92	244	288	288	212
Total Value of catches	¥239,264	¥599,522	¥641,071	¥644,465	¥922,330

Norwegian Whaling Whaling is being carried out according to the Norwegian method. As this method requires quick movements the vessels used are small sized ones of a capacity below 120 tons. In order to allow whales to breed and also to maintain order in the work the Government has made it a rule that whaling can only be carried on under permit. The Government furthermore restricts the number of vessels engaging in this work to 30 in seas other than the Southern or Northern Pacific Ocean. It also orders vessels to operate from headquarters placed in 18 suitable places along the coast of Hokkaido, the North-Eastern Sea, South-Western Sea and the Japan Sea.

Japanese whaling is now extending to the Antarctic Ocean and the Tonan Maru made good catches of whales there in 1935 and 1936.

WHALES CAUGHT (Value in yen)

Whales caught		1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
In home waters						
Total	No.	1,004	1,124	1,156	1,356	1,593
	Value	766,208	850,300	1,142,183	1,991,421	2,467,000
Finback whale	No.	171	122	124	178	134
	Value	181,206	133,592	148,402	427,093	440,000
Blue whale	No.	17	17	6	24	21
	Value	34,649	38,083	11,889	90,118	118,000
Sperm whale	No.	359	561	617	786	1,001
	Value	222,257	360,389	532,262	883,220	1,080,000

		1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Humpback whale	No.	30	41	58	42	48
	Value	42,036	50,984	98,736	88,880	179,000
Sye whale	No.	419	369	384	324	392
	Value	267,243	245,793	343,908	495,210	641,000
Grey whale	No.	—	—	—	—	—
	Value	—	—	—	—	—
Right whale	No.	8	14	3	2	2
	Value	18,817	21,459	6,986	6,900	9,000
Whales caught In colonial waters Total	No.	221	206	202	123	173
	Value	375,423	346,616	433,849	429,683	647,000
Finback whale	No.	166	148	164	106	139
	Value	295,190	279,084	284,500	405,741	546,000
Blue whale	No.	3	—	1	—	—
	Value	8,775	—	1,156	—	—
Sperm whale	No.	—	—	1	2	4
	Value	—	—	1,085	2,856	5,000
Humback whale	No.	40	49	34	15	30
	Value	50,129	57,116	45,272	21,086	97,000
Sei whale	No.	2	2	1	—	—
	Value	1,487	1,192	540	—	—
Grey whale	No.	10	7	1	—	—
	Value	19,842	9,224	1,296	—	—
Right whale	No.	—	—	—	—	—
	Value	—	—	—	—	—

Trawling Trawling in Japan is modelled after that now being carried on in the North Sea. The steam vessels engaged are from 200–300 tons in size, some being fitted with Diesel engines. A permit must be obtained from the Government before commencing trawl fishing. At present the Government is restricting trawlers in the Inland Sea, the East China Sea, and the Yellow Sea to 70 vessels. 56 vessels make Shimonoséki their headquarters, while 8 work from Nagasaki, and 6 from Hakata. It also prohibits trawlers, by special regulations, from operating in the nearby seas in order to keep the coastal water free from the devastation caused by the destruction of immature fish, etc. During the World War there was a fall in the catches by trawlers owing to the decrease in number of trawlers, but since 1921, the trawling business has again become active though, as mentioned above, the number of trawlers is restricted to 70. Catches by trawling in 1935 amounted to 14,258,000 kwan, value ¥7,044,000.

FISHES CAUGHT BY TRAWLING

(Quantity in metric ton, value in ¥1,000)

Kind of Fishes	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Total quantity	62,356	58,951	56,799	50,351	51,704	
Value	7,625	6,284	5,607	6,254	6,721	7,044
Pagrus major						
Quantity	512	343	258	129	135	
Value	232	155	78	68	87	72
Sciæna japonica						
Quantity	4,416	5,032	3,170	2,840	2,221	
Value	1,035	911	564	577	517	1,155
Sciæna schlegelii						
Quantity	18,687	18,802	21,003	14,968	18,811	
Value	2,189	1,713	1,512	1,361	1,609	1,698
Flat fish						
Quantity	6,576	6,209	5,678	5,507	5,452	
Value	847	721	644	655	749	608
Shark						
Quantity	5,047	4,451	3,163	2,597	2,549	
Value	453	309	179	171	179	137
Others						
Quantity	27,116	24,111	23,536	24,309	22,534	
Value	2,866	2,473	2,630	3,419	3,578	2,329

Fishery in Russian Waters

Fishery in Russian or northern waters is an important right conceded to Japan in the Treaty of Portsmouth, signed at the conclusion of the Russo-Japanese War of 1904–05. In 1928, a new convention (Appendix), under the conditions of the above Treaty was concluded for a period of eight years, after the expiration of which time the pact is to be renewed. The districts to be worked, extending from the Maritime Provinces to Kamchatka, are leased from the Soviet at annual auctions held at Vladivostok.

In 1935 the number of fishing lots actually worked was 376, the number of steamers 196, sailing vessels 2, and the number of fishermen and others engaged in the fishing 19,000. The amount of salmon, trout, and herrings caught in 1935, was 501,000 koku in total, the catches of crab amounted to 5,049,000 pieces. Good catches of salmon and trout are made every other year, while the quantity of crabs has a tendency to become smaller. The amount of salmon, crab, etc. canned was 956,000 cases, valued at 15,686,000 in 1935. In the same year the amount of salmon and trout salted reached 56,607,300 kg. The following table shows the number of fishing districts leased, amount of fish caught, etc.

NUMBER OF FISHERIES, FISHING VESSELS, FISHERMEN, AND PRODUCTS IN RUSSIAN WATERS

		1930	1931	1932
Number of fisheries:				
Fisheries leased from U.S.S.R.		318	309	392
Fisheries worked for the year		292	287	323
Fishing vessels:				
Steamships No.		252	193	212
Tonnage		442,062	300,311	366,634
Sailing-ships:				
Number		6	10	2
Tonnage		1,583	2,179	623
Fishermen		22,227	17,240	18,185
Total fish caught 100 kg.		889,690	457,700	768,324
Dog salmon 100 kg.		357,608	231,475	253,428
Trout	,,	374,058	106,731	395,468
Red salmon	,,	151,037	114,692	115,438
King salmon	,,	4,184	2,808	2,807
Herring guano	,,	2,803	1,994	1,183
Crab	pieces	4,846,962	4,291,600	3,100,855
Fishery products prepared, yen		31,829,383	22,355,899	31,909,037
Salt cured (total) Qnantity 100 kg.		593,350	288,891	472,047
	Value yen	9,511,527	5,040,798	8,301,448
Salmon	Quantity 100 kg.	351,770	209,071	231,965
	Value yen	6,424,376	4,019,101	5,173,966
Trout	,,	241,580	76,820	240,082
	,,	3,087,151	1,021,697	3,127,482
Canned food (Total)				
	Quantity cases	1,347,503	814,391	1,216,921
	Value yen	20,847,275	16,292,679	21,571,336
Red salmon	,,	601,933	511,121	416,164
	,,	12,504,247	12,602,559	13,771,888
Salmon	,,	102,905	55,070	40,186
	,,	912,064	517,433	659,716
Trout	,,	569,630	184,253	713,091
	,,	5,035,112	1,266,844	5,469,149
Crab	,,	73,035	63,947	47,480
	,,	2,395,852	1,905,843	1,670,583
Others	Value	1,470,581	1,022,422	2,036,253

	1933	1934	1935
Number of fisheries:			
Fisheries leased from U.S.S.R.	357	386	395
Fisheries worked for the year	350	370	376

	1933	1934	1935	
Fishing vessels:				
Steamships No.	174	171	196	
Tonnage	330,062	360,179	422,000	
Sailing-ships:				
Number	1	1	2	
Tonnage	525	525	1,000	
Fishermen	17,506	20,364	19,000	
Total fish caught 100 kg.	476,652	1,081,626	501,000	Koku
Dog salmon 100 kg.	231,471	350,787	179,000	
Trout „	163,185	571,661	260,000	
Red salmon „	80,016	156,098	40,000	
King salmon „	1,332	2,575	30,000	
Herring guano „	648	505	—	
Carb pieces	2,546,331	3,583,413	5,049,000	
Fishery products prepared, yen	23,666,332	40,902,998	29,149,000	
Salt cured (total) Quantity 100 kg.	312,267	566,073	343,000	Koku
Value yen	7,567,889	10,583,126	11,101,000	
Salmon Quantity 100 kg,	212,957	324,953	172,000	
Value yen	5,647,006	6,994,973	6,719,000	
Trout „	99,310	241,120	172,000	
„	1,920,883	3,588,153	4,382,000	
Canned food (Total)				
Quantity cases	698,126	1,429,191	956,000	
Value yen	14,588,106	27,859,302	15,686,000	
Red salmon „	287,666	514,543	189,000	
„	9,272,017	17,671,705	6,089,000	
Salmon „	27,839	48,187	50,000	
„	543,168	711,288	1,174,000	
Trout „	357,492	837,306	681,000	
„	3,603,966	8,076,869	6,675,000	
Crab „	25,129	29,155	36,000	
„	1,168,955	1,399,440	1,748,000	
Others Value	1,510,337	2,460,570	2,362,000	

Floating Crab Canneries Fishing is carried on by vessels equipped with machinery for the purpose of canning the crabs on the vessels themselves. The first enterprise was made in 1921, and, in 1923, rules regulating the work of crab-manufactory vessels were issued by the Government, which also established districts where fishing was forbidden and made permits necessary before a vessel could set out to the fishery. Recently the rule has been revised, the number of vessels on the western side of Kamchatka restricted to 18 and the amount of canned crab to 320,000 cases.

Up to 1927, Japanese only were engaged in this fishing, but in 1928 two Russian vessels came in, in 1929 another two entered and 1930 saw a further increase.

Canned crabs manufactured by this method since 1930 are as follows :

OPERATION OF CRAB MANUFACTORY VESSELS

Vessels in operation	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Number	19	9	7	9	9	9
Tonnage	63,924	29,413	24,275	40,724	37,235	34,112
Crew	801	377	301	414	406	—
Fishermen engaged	6,434	2,816	2,144	2,541	2,714	2,718
Crabs caught, pieces	24,055,810	15,185,800	60,355,729	9,461,587	9,930,678	11,332,000
Canned foods						
Quantity cases	405,377	240,207	173,526	153,712	162,079	171,000
Value in yen	13,148,175	7,302,961	5,467,542	7,476,267	7,732,616	8,429,000

Aquiculture

The conservation and cultivation of aquatic resources is very important to Japan as fish and other marine products constitute a great part of the staple diet of her people. Great care and study are being given to aquiculture in the

country, the incubation and letting loose of salmon and trout and the cultivation of fishes in shallow waters are being well looked after by the Government. From 1926 on, not only the incubation of salmon and trout, but also the transfer of crawfish, shad, etc., was tried several times with assistance obtained from the U.S.A. The aquicultural production for 1936 amounted to ¥25,551,596. The amount gained ¥17,046, or 1 per cent, over 1935. Of this total, production of carp amounted to ¥4,515,000; that of eels ¥5,014,000; that of oyster ¥1,857,000; that of sea weeds ¥8,565,000; that of pearls ¥983,000; and that of pearl shells ¥905,000. From 1926 to 1929, the Government spent ¥793,560 for these purposes, and let loose 601,940,000 incubated fishes. In addition, aquiculture for both fresh and sea-water fishes is carried out on a business basis by private interests in various ways. Business of this kind is increasing, but there is still room for large development as the area over which aquiculture is being carried on is only 524,102,737 sq. m. in 1932, which is only about 6% of the total available area. The pricipal fishes, shellfishes and seaweeds which are now being cultivated are carp, eel and tortoise in fresh water, and the seaweed laver in sea-water. The breeding is done in rice-fields, breeding ponds, reservoirs, marshes, etc.

The number of aquicultural establishments in 1935 was 161,779, the area covered 157,761,000 tsubo and the amount of products was valued at ¥25,535,000 inceasing by ¥3,217,000 over the previous year. Condition and results of the industry in recent years are given in full in the following tables:

NO. OF ESTABLISHMENTS ENGAGED IN AQUICULTURE, AREA AND PRODUCTS

Year	No. of Establishments	Area sq. metres	Value of Products ¥
1930	144,498	485,235,131	18,509,406
1931	151,565	499,770,658	19,128,963
1932	157,414	524,102,737	18,470,143
1933	159,091	537,908,403	19,283,371
1934	163,549	522,221,417	22,318,327
1935	161,779	157,761,000	25,535,000

FISHES, SHELL-FISHES, ETC., RAISED THROUGH AQUICULTURE

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Carp:					
Ricefields					
Quantity kg.	1,835,490	1,805,709	1,923,199	2,094,821	
Value yen	622,072	627,697	659,960	690,306	681,000
Breeding-ponds					
Quantity kg.	4,585,643	4,828,178	5,571,454	6,154,268	
Value yen	1,685,808	1,746,661	1,990,842	2,139,843	2,169,000
Reservoirs, marshes, etc.					
Quantity kg.	2,986,103	3,259,601	3,394,560	3,542,741	
Value yen	1,101,170	1,186,599	1,272,190	1,356,034	1,401,000
Eel:					
Breeding-ponds					
Quantity kg.	3,887,025	4,585,448	5,511,315	6,042,968	
Value yen	2,785,600	2,830,072	3,475,012	3,732,627	4,681,000
Reservoirs, marshes, etc.					
Quantity kg.	141,503	117,015	146,880	121,181	
Value yen	116,067	82,544	111,326	92,250	77,000
Goldfish:					
Quantity kg.	446,026	549,176	513,958	1,865,014	
Value yen	564,998	567,293	648,101	593,605	571,000
Oyster:					
Quantity kg.	25,861,714	25,123,556	35,275,125	43,397,078	
Value yen	1,102,889	1,126,636	1,193,086	1,437,378	1,988,000
Asari:					
Quantity kg.	28,432,526	29,530,433	29,530,433	38,522,404	
Value yen	715,337	653,253	633,913	691,690	801,000

Pearl oyster:	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Pearl					
No. of shells	1,079,163	3,655,135	2,492,727	4,510,158	
Value	564,538	988,831	909,355	1,472,487	1,395,000
Pearl shells:					
No.	10,289,214	23,902,593	13,932,890	50,515,256	
Value yen	117,721	107,201	286,653	637,196	829,000
Amanori:					
Quantity kg.	26,200,676	24,117,068	22,409,048	30,649,665	
Value yen	8,425,967	7,199,250	6,481,262	7,521,042	8,942,000
Others:					
Value yen	1,326,796	1,354,107	1,621,671	1,953,869	1,471,000

Manufacture of Fishery Products

The supply of fish depends to a considerable extent on seasonal changes but demand is controlled by the tastes and customs of consumers, so that supply and demand are too often not well balanced. In order to adjust these difficulties satisfactorily, careful studies have been made regarding the storing and preserving of these products. Especially, as the problem of food has become a serious one lately, it is often argued that a portion of the fishes which are now being turned into fertilizers and which amount to 40% of the total yields, should be converted into food. Under these conditions Japan is paying very careful consideration to the manufacture of fishery products.

The total manufactured fishery products in 1935 was valued at 175,540,000, of which ¥28,552,000 was in fertilizers, ¥8,793,000 in fish oils, ¥723,000 in Gloiopeltis dried, and the balance of ¥137,472,000 was the value of food products.

MANUFACTURED FISHERY PRODUCTS

(Units: Quantity metric ton, value ¥1,000)

Year	Total Value	Food Products		Fertilizers	
		Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1930	146,969	387,324	126,351	233,339	16,572
1931	130,708	382,747	112,366	279,085	15,129
1932	131,662	363,246	106,750	344,888	20,207
1933	156,294	409,081	119,926	438,117	28,843
1934	167,047	442,931	128,804	424,017	28,913
1935	175,540	447,151	137,472	374,449	28,552

Year	Fish oils		Sukifunori*	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1930	40,204	3,404	993	1,047
1931	45,235	2,480	793	731
1932	57,089	4,120	733	583
1933	70,633	6,947	679	576
1934	82,638	8,702	788	627
1935	62,205	8,793	711	728

Note: Production of Japanese isinglass is not included in the table.
*Dried seaweed, Gloiopeltis furcata.

Fish as Food To the present the Japanese people have not paid much attention to the manufacture of fishery products, except "fushi", as articles of food, because fresh fish is available at almost any time and any place. But since there is a large consumption of such products among people of Western nations attention has been turned to the preservation of fish with a view to export. The principal items preserved are "fushi" (fishmeat steamed and dried), fishes dried, salted and dried, boiled and dried, smoked, salt-cured, canned, and Japanese isinglass. Production of each for the last few years is :

FOOD PRODUCTS

(Unit ¥1,000)

Year	Fushi	Dried	Salted and Dried	Boiled and Dried	Smoked	Saltcured	Canned Foods	Miscellaneous
1930	18,707	21,000	7,878	18,914	424	8,484	8,409	50,942
1931	17,506	16,933	7,215	14,940	322	7,690	6,670	47,757
1932	13,711	20,288	6,173	14,090	349	6,140	7,274	45,996
1933	15,628	21,221	8,300	16,794	360	9,773	20,304	47,848
1934	15,823	23,250	8,820	19,781	372	9,704	23,301	51,051
1935	14,314	22,306	10,040	22,547	289	11,859		56,117

Japanese Isinglass Kantén or Japanese isinglass is a gelatinous substance extracted from seaweeds, especially from Gelidium amansii, used for food and industrial purposes, production of which is shown in the following table :

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
No. of establishments	431	435	429	449	463
Total production Quantity kg.	1,529,310	1,573,230	2,081,404	2,320,654	665,000Kwan
Value yen	4,123,893	3,883,464	4,718,521	5,257,378	6,390,000

Fertilizers Details of the production of fish fertilizers are given in the table below. As the table shows most fertilizers are made from herrings, sardines and bonito. Where transportation facilities are not very good or where there is no satisfactory equipment for manufacturing them into food fishes are converted into fertilizers.

FISH FERTILIZERS

(Quantity in metric ton, value in ¥1,000)

Year	Total		Herring	Sardine	Bonito-cake	Sardine dried	Dried Herring	Others
	Quantity	Value	Value	Value	Value	Value	Value	Value
1930	233,339	16,572	3,663	8,172	573	475	1,565	2,122
1931	270,085	15,129	3,227	8,080	521	576	1,238	1,486
1932	344,888	20,207	3,799	11,980	489	1,114	1,238	1,584
1933	438,117	28,843	5,121	17,750	526	966	2,300	2,178
1934	424,017	28,913	3,319	19,536	969	1,006	2,163	1,917
1935	374,449	28,552	1,679	18,157	945	1,194	1,688	4,886

Fish Oils Fish oils used for industrial purposes are sardine oil, herring oil, cod oil, whale oil and shark oil. Production in 1935 was 62,205,181 kg. a decrease of 20,433,674 kg. as compared with the previous year, but the value amounted to ¥8,792,502, a gain of ¥89,991.

FISH OILS

(Value in ¥1,000)

Year	Total	Sardine	Herring	Cod	Whale	Shark	Others
1930	3,404	1,988	425	99	310	308	271
1931	2,480	1,541	291	84	144	269	150
1932	4,120	2,926	265	144	264	340	177
1933	6,947	4,804	295	255	439	448	703
1934	8,702	6,416	358	375	408	431	711
1935	8,792	6,687	165	471	545	724	197

Manufacture of Salt

The salt industry in Japan is carried on under the Salt Monopoly Law. Salt is manufactured by the boiling method. The cost of production, therefore, is high, and the quantity produced is not enough, so that a large quantity of

cheap salt is imported every year. The number of salt producing establishments, production, production areas, etc., in Japan are as follows :

March 31	No. of Establishments	No. of Manufacturers	No. of Employees	Area of Saltbeds in hectare	No. of Boiling Pans	Production
1930	3,449	3,398	37,783	4,531.24	3,906	628,682,100 kg.
1931	3,434	3,390	37,115	4,529.85	3,852	521,261,509
1932	3,393	3,395	36,156	4,533.72	3,816	572,628,551
1933	3,361	3,378	36,672	4,538.48	3,804	630,835,033
1934	3,339	3,347	36,855	4,533.92	3,709	676,300,500
1935	3,308	3,303	36,390	4,612.80	3,693	604,440,328

Protection and Encouragement of Fisheries

Pelagic Fishery Deep-sea fishing must be undertaken by strong built sailing vessels or steamers so in order to encourage the development of this fishing with adequate equipment and trained men the Government as far back as 1897 passed an Act for the Encouragement of Pelagic Fishery. The Act is still in force though it has been many times revised. Subsidies for the encouragement of pelagic fishery are of two kinds :—subsidies for fishery and subsidies for fishing vessels. The subsidies for fishery are granted to those who engage either in pelagic fishing with vessels which are in comformity with the rules for construction of vessels prescribd in the Regulations of Inspection of Vessels Engaged in Pelagic Fishery, or for those who carry on the business of transporting fishes caught in pelagic waters, with certain conditions according to kinds, place, period of time, market, or method of disposition of fishes, etc. The subsidies for fishing vessels are granted to those owners of vessels who either build vessels according to the rules of construction prescribed in the Regulations of Inspection of Vessels Engaged in Pelagic Waters, or who fix new engines, or subsidiary fishing implements, or who have installed in their vessels storage facilities, or wireless telegraphic or telephonic equipment, according to the following rates :

1. For every ton of vessel newly constructed of steel — less than yen 60
2. „ „ „ „ „ „ „ „ „ — „ „ „ 45
3. „ every H.P. of steam engine — „ „ „ 22
4. „ „ „ „ motor engine — „ „ „ 40

The Act provides further that, for vessels over 60 tons, instead of applying the subsidies enumerated above, a subsidy not exceeding 20% of the total cost of construction shall be granted. When, furthermore, designs of construction of certain vessels, or repairs of vessels are considered good and proper, the Government shall grant a subsidy not exceeding 1/3 of the expenses required.

Harbour Construction Formerly fishermen used to draw their boats up to the beach where their homes were, but since deep-sea fishing with large vessels has increased it is no longer possible to do so. For mooring, for taking refuge, for discharging fishes caught, for loading fishing requisites, etc., it became very necessary to carry out harbour construction work at fishing ports which serve as headquarters and refuges of vessels. In 1908, therefore, the Government revised a part of the Act for the Encouragement of Pelagic Fishery, and provisions were made for making investigations on harbours. Accordingly 200 ports were carefully investigated. In the meantime, the construction of fishing ports and ports of refuge was undertaken independently by various local prefectural governments, by towns or villages, or by fishery associations in increasing numbers. Later, it was found that harbour construction was necessary for other reasons, such as hygiene, or the supply of food, etc., and the Government decided to proceed with the work of harbour construction from 1918 on. Ports constructed by the Government since that year are 18 and the amount of subsidies granted reaches ¥14,438,000. On April 1, 1934 the number of ports in Japan was 1,463, of which fishing ports numbered 536.

Encouragement of Aquiculture This matter is dealt with in the foregoing pages.

Encouragement of Construction of Storage for Fishes In an effort to bring about an equilibrium between demand

and supply and with the development of deep-sea fishing and the capturing of fish in places far distant from the place of consumption, the necessity of cold storage and the transportation of fishes by cold storage vessels has arisen. The Government issued Rules for the Encouragement of Cold Storage for Fishery Products in 1923, and since then has been granting subsidies for the construction of cold storage quarters, cold storage vessels and ice storage.

(1) Cold Storage Vessels. Subsidies for construction of cold storage vessels are granted in the following manner :

(a) For construction and repair of vessels and engines, subsidies of less than 20% of the cost will be granted.

(b) For equipment, addition or reconstruction of cold storage, subsidies less than 50% of the required expenses will be granted. Since the Rules were put into effect, cold storage vessels have been built in rapid succession. Up to 1929, 18 vessels were constructed and subsidies amounting to ¥530,000 were granted.

(2) Cold Storage. The amount of subsidy for construction, addition or reconstruction of Cold Storage is less than one- third of the cost. Prior to enforcement of the Rules for Encouragement of Cold Storage, refrigeration by air was introduced from the U.S.A., and as the result of encouragement, cold storage businesses arose in every part of the country.

(3) Ice Storage. The amount of subsidy for construction, addition, or reconstruction of ice storage is less than one-third of the cost. Owing to the rapid development of ice manufacturing since 1919, ice storage has developed in every part of the country, and ice storage plants for fish have been constructed in numerous places along the coast. The Government began to encourage their construction in fishing villages in 1923.

System of Fishing Rights

Any system which makes the capture of fishes or shell fishes in the sea a right is unknown in the West. Japan, however, has had a system of this sort in a rude form from of old, and in 1901, the system was legally established by the Fishery Law, because of the necessity of protecting the cultivation of fishes and the maintenance of fishing villages. There is a similar kind of system for rivers, lakes and marshes, but examples of river and lake fishing rights are also found in foreign countries. The kinds of fishing rights which are given in the Fishery Law are as follows :

(1) Exclusive fishing rights.
(2) Fixed ,, ,,
(3) Divisional ,, ,,
(4) Special ,, ,,

Fishing rights are considered as rights of property. They can be transferred freely, if registered, and money can be borrowed with them as security. The term of fishing rights are fixed by the authorities which issue the licence within twenty years, but they may be renewed on application by the owners of the rights. The term of an exclusive fishing right is fixed at 20 years.

Facilities for Fisheries

In 1925, the Government issued Rules for Encouraging the Establishment of Facilities for Fisheries and ruled that it would grant subsidies for facilities established by Gyogyo-Kumiai, Suisan-kai, Suisan-Kumiai, industrial associations, or local municipalities of cities, towns and villages. The kinds of facilities encouraged are :

1. Facilities for quays and the mooring of vessels.
2. ,, ,, the sale of manufactured fishing products.
3. ,, ,, manufacturing and disposing of fishing products.
4. ,, ,, cold storage.
5. ,, ,, fishing vessels and fishing implements
6. Facilities for transportation.
7. ,, ,, cultivation.
8. ,, ,, rescue work of shipwrecked fishing vessels.

The amounts of subsidy to be granted will be less than 40% of the cost in the case of the first six, less than 50% for the seventh, and less than 60% for the eighth. Subsidies granted since 1925 are as follows :

1.	95 cases of facilities for quay and vessel mooring	¥876,374
2.	81 ,, ,, ,, ,, the sale of fishing products	177,578
3.	22 ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, manufacture and disposal of fishery products	45,884
4.	18 ,, ,, cold storage	77,224
5.	55 ,, ,, facilities for fishing vessels and fishing implements	90,000
6.	16 ,, ,, ,, ,, the transportation of fish	33,208
7.	74 ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, cultivation of fishes	130,000
8.	24 ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, rescue of shipwrecked fishing vessels	107,413
Total 384 cases		1,537,856

Organizations Related with Fisheries

Suisankai (Fishery Societies) Suisankai is a public corporation, recognized by the Suisankai Law of 1921, which has as its purpose the development of fishery. It is an organization covering a particular county or city and includes among its members, in addition to those engaged in fishing, persons having rights to fish and those who manufacture, trade in, or store fishery products. A prefectural suisankai is organized by county and city suisankai of that particular prefecture, and at the head of prefectural suisankai and suisankai located abroad is the Teikoku (Imperial) Suisankai. The functions of suisankai include the encouragement of fishery, the improvement and extension of the manufacture of marine products, the development of fishing districts, protection of aquiculture, etc. It also collects statistics, investigates markets, or engages in brokerage, etc. On the social side, the rescue of shipwrecked vessels, improvement of relations between employers and employees, employment agency work, mediation in labour troubles, etc., are looked after by the societies. And lectures on fishery subjects, exhibitions and fishery shows are held by them. The number of suisankai, their members, etc. during the last few years are as follows :

SUISANKAI (Fishery Societies)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Fishery Societies:—					
Total	377	380	380	349	345
Country and city fishery societies	337	340	340	308	305
Prefectural fishery societies	39	39	39	40	40
Imperial fishery society	1	1	1	1	1
Number of members of societies:					
Country and city fishery societies	457,298	430,767	451,182	450,276	450,696
Prefectural „ „	334	340	336	304	296
Imperial „ „	39	42	42	42	42
Expenditure of fishery societies	1,899,844	1,613,700	1,778.277	1,932,159	1,645,000

Suisankumiai (Fishery Guilds) There are two classes of suisankumiai. The first of these is a corporate judicial person, organized by fishermen or those who are engaged in the manufacture or sale of aquatic animals or plants in a particular district for the purpose of the encouragement and improvement of fishery, cultivation and propagation of aquatic products, etc. The number of suisankumiai is decreasing gradually. At one time there were as many as 220 or more of these Kumiai or guilds. In 1934 there were 68, with a membership of 42,513 and an expenditure of ¥1,052,-000. The Act for Suisankumiai in Foreign Waters promulgated in 1902, authorizes any Japanese engaged in fishery or in the manufacture or sale of aquatic products in foreign waters, either by permit or by treaty, to organize suisankumiai. At present Roryo Suisankumiai (Suisankumiai in Russian Waters) is the only one which belong to this class. This guild is formed by fishermen and those engaged in the manufacture and sale of aquatic products in the Maritime Province, Kamchatka, and Saghalien Island. In 1933, its members were 97. Its epecially important task is to encourage amicable relations between the Japanese and Russian fishermen working in the same waters and thus ensure the smooth and effective working of the industry in those parts.

Gyogyo-Kumiai (Fishermen's Societies) Gyogyo-Kumiai is a judicial person recognized by Fishery Law, and is organized by fishermen living in a particular district. It acquires fishery rights, etc., for member fishermen and takes any measures necessary to further or protect the common benefit of its members.

The principal object of gyogyo-Kumiai is the acquisition of fishing rights, etc. This is quite natural in Japan for fishermen work with their village as unit and no fisherman can work independently. Therefore, fishing rights are mostly secured by gyogyo-kumiai, special privileges being given to kumiai for securing them.

Though in the original Act, the object of gyogyo-kumiai was restricted to the acquisition of fishing rights, etc, the Act was revised in 1910, whereby kumiai had the obligation put on them of undertaking any proper measures that would redound to the mutual benefit of fishermen.

Gyogyo-Kumiai Rengokai are corpora-

tions of gyogyo-kumiai. Their principal functions are joint sales of fishery products, cultivation of fishes and rescue of shipwrecked vessels. Their history and numbers are as shown below :

GYOGYO-KUMIAI (Fishermen's Societies)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
No. of societies classified					
according to no. of members (total)	3,874	3,928	3,957	3,980	3,994
under 50	1,239	1,260	1,262	1,271	1,257
51—100	913	884	892	904	923
101—200	957	997	1,004	975	973
201—500	649	661	670	687	692
501—1000	100	105	109	120	124
1001 and over	16	21	20	23	25
No. of members of societies	526,579	546,622	555,734	570,056	574,328
Federations of societies					
No. of federations	61	63	69	70	72
No. of member-societies	830	881	917	925	926

Dogyo-Kumiai, etc., Related with Fishery Dogyo means the same trade or profession, hence Dogyo-Kumiai are associations of those connected with the same trade. In relation to the fishery industry they are formed by those dealing in aquatic products, canned foods, salt, cultivation of fishes, etc. In 1935, there were as many as 22 dogyo-kumiai related with the fishing industry. There is also the Dai-Nippon Suisan Kai, which is incorporated for the purpose of the improvement and encouragement of fishery.

CHAPTER XVI

FORESTRY

Introduction

Japan is one of the few countries on earth favoured with extensive forests. The area of forests and fields in Japan including Korea, Formosa and Saghalien Island, was 45,299,105 hectares at the end of 1933 and was about 67% of the whole area of the country, which is 67,538,527 ha. It is about 3.8 times as large as her agricultural land.

Since Japan forms a long narrow chain stretching north and south from the northern extremity of the Kurile Islands to the southernmost point of Formosa, and since her mild climate is very favourable for the growth of plants and trees, it is natural that there should be a thick growth of many varieties. There are as many as 1,500 kinds, of which principal forest trees alone number more than 100. In point of richness in variety, she occupies a high position even among countries which are favoured with larger forest areas. While the amount of timber produced is valued at roughly ¥300,000,000 annually it is still far less than 10% of the value of the total staple products of the country and is not at present enough to fill domestic requirements. Every year it is necessary to import about 10,000,000 koku of lumber, equivalent in value to ¥100,000,000. Furthermore, forestry offers very limited labour opportunities. As compared with agriculture, which gives work to one-half of the total families in Japan, and fishing, which finds employment for 1,500,000 people, the number of persons engaged in forestry is small, being less than 720,000.

Distribution and Character

Forests in Japan stand, roughly speaking, in four different zones : sub-tropical forest zone, evergreen broad leaved forest zone, the deciduous broad-leaved forest zone and coniferous forest zone.

The Sub-tropical Forest Zone This covers the whole of Formosa, the southern half of the Loochoo Islands, including the Yayéyama Islands, annual mean temperature in it being over 21° C. As to the altitude, the zone varies from below 2,000 metres above sea level in the southern part of Formosa to below 1,000 metres above sea level in the northern part of the same island. In this zone, binroji, tsuga, (Arenga saccharifera) basho-banana and bamboo are found.

The Evergreen Broad-leaved Zone This comprises Shikoku, Kyushu, the northern part of the Loochoo Islands and the southern part of Honshu (Main Island) (at 36° N. Lat. and Southwards), the annual mean temperature of this zone being 13°–21° C. As to the altitude, it is 854 metres on an average in Kyushu, 762.5 metres in Shikoku and 610 metres in the southern part of Honshu. Trees which grow in this zone are kusunoki (Cinnamomun camphora, Nees), oak, akamatsu (Pinus densiflora), white fir, tsuga (Tsuga sieboldi, Carr), etc.

The Deciduous Broad-leaved Zone This zone covers the northern part of Honshu, the southern part of Hokkaido and a greater part of Korea, the annual mean temperature in this zone being from 6° C. to 13° C. As regards the altitude, it is from 976 metres to 1,372.5 metres in the northern part of Honshu and 457.5 metres in the southern part of Hokkaido. Trees which grow in this zone are cedar (the Japanese cyress), white fir, todo-matsu (Abies sachalinensis, mast), ezo-matsu (Picea ajanensis, Fisch), beech poplar, white birch, etc.

The Coniferous Zone This zone covers the northern half of Hokkaido, the group of the Kurile Islands and the Saghalien Island, the mean temperature of which is 6° C. to below zero. This zone starts at the height of 1,000 metres in Honshu and ends at the height of 2,592.5 metres in the same island, while it ends at the height of 1,067.5 metres in Hokkaido and 610–762.5 metres in Saghalien Island. Principal trees which grow in this zone are ezo-matsu and todo-matsu.

Forests in Kiso district extend over mountain regions which range from 305 metres to 3,050 metres above the sea level along the course of the upper stream of the River Kiso. It covers 104,055 ha. in area and its growing stock amount to 28 million cu. m. Principal trees are the Japanese cypress, the swamp-cypress, sawara (Chamae cyparies obtusa, S. et Z), nezuko (Thuja japonica, maxim) and parasol-pines.

They are old and are thickly grown. The reason that they are retained so well is due to the fact that during the feudal times, the cutting down of these trees was prohibited. Among these, the most magnificent trees are the Japanese cypresses which are about 190 years old. Most of them are 0.46 metre in diameter and 27.45 metres in height.

Forests of sugi in Akita district are widely distributed along the Yoneshiro and Omono Rivers, and belong to the Government. The forests cover an area of about 43,000 ha. and hold stock of 16 million cu. m. The forests, where they are not mixed with other trees, are beautiful and magnificent to look upon. Most of the sugi in these forests are from 120 to 200 years old, and in a dense part the stands hold as much as 1,400 cu. m. per ha. Some of them are so large that their diameter reaches sometimes to 1.22 metres. The forests are noted for the abundance of timbers of a superior quality. Annual cutting from these forests amounts to 280,000 cu.m.

Area of Forests, etc.

According to the report of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry the area of forests in Japan proper was as follows :

(In Japan proper the investigation on the area of forests, bamboo groves and wild lands (productive yet uncultivated) is carried at the year end every third year.)

AREA OF FORESTS, BAMBOO GROVES AND WILD LANDS IN JAPAN PROPER

(In hectares)

Year (At the year end)	1927	1930	1933
Grand total	22,713,451.34	23,011,218.74	23,645,731.85
Forested tracts	19,517,036.23	19,879,240.86	20,575,913.91
Coniferous	4,689,293.16	4,632,827.81	5,420,360.80
Broad-leaved	8,062,476.89	8,470,016.53	9,086,657.13
Mixed	6,135,412.36	6,148,369.59	5,454,838.83
Bamboo groves	131,897.16	136,329.23	148,348.25
Miscellaneous	497,956.66	491,697.70	465,708.90
Bare tracts	3,196,415.11	3,131,977.88	3,069,817.94
Crown	1,349,802.45	1,432,649.16	1,413,885.42
Forested tracts	1,183,186.13	1,277,643.79	1,243,194.05
Coniferous	277,767.38	154,455.37	173,897.16
Broad-leaved	387,680.23	273,077.76	282,528.99
Mixed	517,690.71	850,268.92	786,728.23
Bamboo groves	47.81	41.74	39.67
Bare tracts	166,616.32	154,805.37	170,691.37
National	7,699,859.01	7,638,263.28	7,657,609.80
Forested tracts	7,415,503.74	7,248,054.67	7,417,962.90
Coniferous	1,053,782.88	1,013,768.92	1,558,856.40
Broad-leaved	3,376,578.45	3,523,029.30	4,038,152.40
Mixed	2,486,644.96	2,218,783.65	1,354,467.40
Bamboo groves	540.79	775.10	777.80
Miscellaneous	497,956.66	491,697.70	465,708.90
Bare tracts	284,355.27	390,208.61	239,646.90
Public	4,247,441.26	4,186,375.15	4,287,336.00
Forested tracts	3,092,580.00	3,184,041.42	3,308,320.76
Coniferous	787,617.02	840,414.75	926,065.88
Broad-leaved	1,334,891.50	1,398,262.81	1,334,040.50
Mixed	962,077.89	937,850.29	1,040,727.17
Bamboo groves	7,993.59	7,513.57	7,487.21
Bare tracts	1,154,861.26	1,002,333.73	979,015.24
Temple and shrine	130,278.24	141,381.03	144,269.56
Forested tracts	117,261.51	129,820.06	133,400.24
Coniferous	45,288.59	49,483.84	50,351.11
Broad-leaved	31,088.83	34,123.54	37,644.20
Mixed	38,987.30	44,043.67	43,146.15
Bamboo groves	1,896.79	2,169.01	2,258.78
Bare tracts	13,016.73	11,560.97	10,869.32

Year (At the year end)	1927	1930	1933
Private	9,286,070.38	9,612,550.12	10,142,631.07
Forested tracts	7,708,504.85	8,039,480.92	8,473,035.96
Coniferous	2,524,837.29	2,574,704.93	2,711,190.25
Broad-leaved	2,932,237.88	3,241,523.12	3,394,291.04
Mixed	2,130,011.50	2,097,423.06	2,229,769.88
Bamboo groves	121,418.18	125,829.81	137,784.79
Bare tracts	1,577,565.53	1,573,069.20	1,669,595.11

Stock of Growing Timber

Japan Proper To ascertain the amount of growing timber owned by the Imperial Household, Government, and public and private interests careful investigations are made, the investigations in the case of public and private interests being carried out by each prefecture. The following statistics show the growing timber in Japan proper in 1933 classified according to ownership: (Quantities in 1,000 cu. m.)

Kind	Crown	Government	Public and Private			Total	%
			Public	Shrines and Temples	Private		
Coniferous trees	32,452	139,948	71,172	7,333	327,510	578,415	46.0
Broad leaved trees	14,121	323,431	83,503	5,000	252,823	678,878	54.0
Total	46,573	463,379	154,675	12,333	580,333	1,257,293	—
%	3.7%	36.6%	12.4%	0.7%	46.6%	—	—

Thus the total standing timber in Japan proper (Hokkaido excluded) is 1,257,293,000 cu.m., of which coniferous trees account for 578,415,000 cu.m. and broad-leaved trees 678,878,000 cu.m.

Other Parts The following table shows the number, ownership and type of trees in other parts of the country.

STANDING TIMBER IN HOKKAIDO, FORMOSA, KOREA AND SAGHALIEN ISLAND IN 1933

(Quantities 1,000 cu. metres)

Owners	HOKKAIDO			SAGHALIEN ISLAND		
	Coniferous Trees	Broad Leaved Trees	Total	Coniferous Trees	Broad Leaved Trees	Total
Crown	32,911	74,130	107,041	—	—	—
Government	165,705	212,599	378,304	165,951	22,905	188,856
Public	19,829	51,448	71,277	—	—	—
Shrines and temples	2	17	19	—	—	—
Private	2,899	28,994	31,893	—	—	—
Total	221,346	367,188	588,534	165,951	22,905	188,856

Owners	FORMOSA			KOREA		
	Coniferous Trees	Broad Leaved Trees	Total	Coniferous Trees	Broad Leaved Trees	Total
Crown	—	—	—	—	—	—
Government	70,006	127,374	197,380	87,902	72,158	160,060
Public	68	297	365	4,316	2,095	6,411
Shrines and temples	—	—	—	2,413	1,472	3,885
Private	828	9,121	9,949	60,658	15,275	75,933
Total	70,902	136,792	207,694	155,289	91,000	246,289

The total stock of growing timber in the country classified according to ownership is as follows :

TOTAL STAND OF TIMBER IN JAPAN IN 1933

(1,000 cu. m.)

Owners	Coniferous Trees	Broad Leaved Trees	Total Grand Total
Crown	65,363	88,251	153,614
Government	629,512	758,467	1,387,979
Public	95,385	137,343	232,728
Shrines and temples	9,748	6,489	16,237
Private	391,895	306,213	698,108
Total	1,191,903	1,296,763	2,488,665

Afforestation

There is great scope for the practice of afforestation in Japan because of the large wild areas, plains where there is only a thin growth of trees, and forests where there are many undesirable trees. However, since a great deal of timber is being cut, refforestation becomes more urgent every year.

Afforestation is divided into two classes, viz., natural and artificial. Natural afforestation is being carried out in only a small portion of the Crown and Government forests, while in most of the public and private forests, conditions are such that no definite plans for natural afforestation have been made. However, as this is liable to cause forests to go to waste careful studies are being made to improve the situation.

In artificial afforestation Japan has had some good experience and artificial afforestation for the Imperial and Government forests is being carried out on a well-planned basis.

New Plantation Area newly planted in 1935 was 109,728.9 cho, and the number of trees planted was 328,020,522, of which coniferous trees numbered 273,597,718 while broad leaved trees numbered 54,422,804.

In addition to the above there were 61,784,098 trees supplementarily planted in the forests in 1935, and bamboo groves newly cultivated were 428.3 cho in area and 749,404 in the number of bamboos planted.

Naturally Regenerated Area of forests naturally regenerated in 1935 was 240,057.9 cho. No change of noteworthy movement of the area during these past ten years.

ARTIFICIAL AFFORESTATION

(In hectares or cho)

Year	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Area newly planted ha.	99,612.79	110,679.27	113,681.76	111,696.49	109,728.9 (cho)
Number of trees newly planted	311,048,353	338,338,447	346,812,821	340,567,028	328,020,522
Coniferous Area ha.	84,404.33	95,140.66	96,311.19	91,775.40	90,319.5 (cho)
Number of trees	265,887,220	293,079,122	297,689,664	283,670,325	273,597,718
Broad-leaved Area ha.	13,054.11	13,356.00	14,890.80	17,115.60	19,409.4 (cho)
Number of trees	39,417,907	39,493,419	43,022.204	49,982,177	54,422,804
Mixed Area ha.	2,154.35	2,182.61	2,479.77	2,805.49	—
Number of trees	5,743,226	5,760,906	6,100,953	6,914,526	—

Production of Wood, Bamboo and Other Forest Products

Area of wood and bamboo lands cleared and the value of wood and bamboo produced in 1935 were as follows.

	1934	1935
Area of wood and bamboo lands cleared	444,429.6 cho	412,012.5 cho
Wood and bamboo produced	167,119,286 yen	168,761,410 yen
Timber	112,749,264 „	113,868,550 „
Fuel wood	51,789,443 „	52,365,708 „
Bamboo	2,580,579 „	2,527,152 „

During the ten preceding years no marked fluctuation has been observed in movements of quantities of timber and fuel wood produced, on the other hand, their value has been showing annually more than moderate decreasing trend until 1934 when it turned to increase.

Value of forest products in 1935 amounted to ¥129,083,727. Details follow :

FOREST PRODUCTS

(In Yen)

Kind	1933	1934	1935
Seeds of trees	44,259	45,826	47,328
Fruits (Chestnuts, Walnuts, etc.)	3,623,573	3,277,001	3,637,943
Barks	1,798,159	2,224,754	2,317,412
Loan grass	15,575,542	15,617,039	17,051,201
Fresh mushrooms	3,518,617	4,207,012	4,547,224
Dried mushrooms	2,897,598	3,602,447	4,282,318
Bamboo sprouts	3,823,981	4,080,081	4,143,188
Horse-radish	1,373,639	1,450,060	1,565,726
Charcoal	76,154,605	89,020,068	90,814,783
Others and total	109,437,960	124,288,810	129,083,727

Protection Forests

Besides having a direct value through the produce they yield, forests have a distinct indirect value through influence on climate, conservation of water supplies, prevention of erosion, etc., and in order that the fullest use may be made of them the Government established a system of "protection" forests. In the following instances, under the Forestry Act, the Government is authorized to decree that certain forests, etc., shall be considered as "protection" forests :

(1) When it is necessary to protect against soil denudation.
(2) When it is necessary to protect against sand shifting.
(3) When it is necessary to protect against flood, wind and tide.
(4) When it is necessary to protect against avalanches and rolling stones.
(5) For conservation of water supply.
(6) For fishery purposes.
(7) For guiding navigators.
(8) For public health.
(9) For scenery.

The area of protection forests in 1931–35 was as follows :

PROTECTION FORESTS

Year (At the year end)		1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Total						(Area in cho)
Number		393,952	394,589	405,145	415,885	422,321
Area	ha.	2,067,483.67	2,069,591.70	2,078,522.78	2,089,401.95	2,122,633.6
Against soil-denudation						
Number		225,724	229,023	236,910	247,873	256,637
Area	ha.	891,710.48	897,120.59	905,430.25	911,327.28	924,786.9
For feeding springs						
Number		75,005	71,918	72,138	71,133	67,559
Area	ha.	997,982.18	991,570.91	980,990.98	982,608.16	994,611.9
Against flood						
Number		15,397	15,461	15,498	15,238	15,182
Area	ha.	10,449.52	10,915.14	10,967.50	10,879.14	6,516.5
Against rolling stone						
Number		456	485	485	481	476
Area	ha.	643.74	693.62	1,723.93	682.02	683.9
Against avalanche						
Number		4,774	4,846	4,899	4,958	4,942
Area	ha.	6,844.56	6,954.15	7,062.35	6,614.57	6,691.8

Year (At the year end)		1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Against wind						(Area in cho)
Number		13,586	13,667	13,736	13,940	14,410
Area	ha.	59,296.17	59,515.34	65,943.87	70,135.24	77,221.7
Against dust						
Number		9,653	9,550	10,869	11,221	11,346
Area	ha.	11,019.47	11,255.40	13,720.36	14,320.56	13,656.0
Against tide						
Number		12,962	12,941	13,260	13,637	14,369
Area	ha.	8,619.47	8,607.67	8,994.15	8,995.74	9,137.4
For attracting fish						
Number		25,208	25,491	25,853	25,867	25,904
Area	ha.	47,847.08	47,576.73	47,994.05	47,963.11	51,259.4
Landmark for navigation						
Number		249	254	253	259	259
Area	ha.	1,250.38	1,274.48	1,256.93	1,257.81	1,268.3
For maintaining public health						
Number		153	153	153	153	153
Area	ha.	89.55	89.55	89.36	89.26	90.0
For scenic beauty						
Number		10,785	10,800	11,091	11,125	11,084
Area	ha.	31,731.07	34,018.12	34,349.06	34,529.06	36,709.8

Owners of protection forests, etc., cannot, according to the provisions of the Forestry Act, cut down the trees, take the forest products from them nor utilize them for any purpose, unless with the approval of the authorities concerned. Protection forests are divided into two classes for administrative purpose. In the first class are forests in which limits for cutting and utilization are fixed, while in the second are those, the cutting of which is absolutely prohibited. Any owner who has his forest included in the second class and suffers any loss by this inclusion will have the loss reimbursed by the Government.

Utilization of Government Forests

Forests are classified according to ownership as Crown forests, Government forests, and public and privately owned forests. Public and privately owned forests include those possessed by shrines and temples, public corporations and private individuals. Crown forests are those possessed by the Imperial Household and are divided into the hereditary and ordinary ones. Both are under control of the Minister of the Imperial Household, and are in charge of the Bureau of Imperial Forests and Estates. Government forests in Hokkaido are looked after by the local Government of Hokkaido, while those in Honshu (Main Island) are taken charge of by the Department of Agriculture and Forestry. Growth of forests, their utilization, and work of ensuring the public welfare through them are looked after by these offices, which administer them with rational plans for the public welfare.

The Government makes a contract with people willing to carry on afforestation work whereby they are given not more than 80% of the total profit on condition that they follow the Government's instructions as to planting, supplementary afforestation work, and taking care of the trees planted. "Divisional Forests" may be established for this work. A portion of the Government's forests may be put into the custody of shrines and temples and any profits arising therefrom may be used by the shrines and temples. Such forests constitute "Forests in Custody." Sometimes the Government may appoint a particular city, town, or village to protect Government forests which are situated within the jurisdiction of that city, town or village, payment for the work being made by part of the products of that forest being handed over to the city, town or village (Commission forests). In addition, the Government may lease its forests for the purpose of the development of industry in a particular district, or for the purpose of assisting people living near the forests. In some cases no rent is charged. The ground may be used for grazing, grass, or gathering fuel. The Government may sell some of its forest land if it is suitable for reclamation. Forests which are used for these purposes are of a vast area. Figures for March, 1935 follow :

Protection forests	930,049 ha.
Divisional „	43,863
Forests in the custody of shrines and temples	25,584
Commission forests	55,998
Forests leased for industrial purposes	75,713
„ for grazing	119,409
„ as grass fields	162,338
„ for gathering fuel	1,010,615
„ „ reclamation	23,602

Taxes cannot be imposed on Government forests which come within the area of any city, town, or village. But in view of the fact that it owes a great deal to the city, town or village for controlling and managing these forests, the Government has decided to pay to that particular city, town or village a sum equivalent to the amount of the local tax which those forests would bear if they were owned by private individuals.

Forestry Associations (Shinrin Kumiai)

Forestry associations are those judicial persons recognized by the Forestry Act of 1907, which are formed not for profit but for safety of the country, conservation of water supplies, protection of forests, etc. The nature of their work is to allow members to plant, fell, carry, guard, or sell timber under unified control and rational management. Forestry associations are classified according to their objects into four classes, viz., afforesters' associations, business associations, coolies' associations, and protection associations.

The number of forestry associations in 1935 was 2,083, and the area covered was 1,642,146.0 cho. The growth of forestry associations in recent years is shown in the following table :

FORESTRY CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES

(Area in cho)

Year (At the year end)	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Total					
Number of societies	1,407	1,602	1,734	1,919	2,083
Area operated by societies	1,001,246	1,172,367	1,259,575	1,441,681	1,642,146
Number of members	190,382	222,831	243,753	278,111	325,172

Forest Damage and Insurance

Forests are subject to damage by fire, wind, snow, etc., damage and loss by fire being especially great. As the forestry business requires an investment which covers a long period of years it is essential to insure, for if a forest is swept by fire, not only the capital invested, but also the care and labour of many years is instantly swept away. The table below shows both the amount of loss and the area damaged by fire, wind, etc., during the last few years. In order to encourage forestry work some means to minimize the loss which arises from fire had to be devised. For many years forest insurance was looked for but it was not until 1920 that the Toho Fire Insurance Co., Ltd., ventured to take on this business. The Teikoku Fire Insurance Co., Ltd., and Tokyo Marine and Fire Insurance Co., Ltd., quickly followed. The first two companies insure only those artificially afforested forests which are older than ten years, while the Tokyo Marine and Fire Insurance Co., Ltd., will insure artificially afforested forests which are not as old as ten years as well as naturally grown forests.

Damages done to forests in 1935 reached 267,362.2 cho with an estimated value of ¥18,612,942.

STATISTICS OF DAMAGES DONE TO FORESTS

Year	Total Damage		Forested Tracts By Fire		By Wind	
	Total Area	Value	Area	Value	Area	Value
	ha.	¥	ha.	¥	ha.	¥
1931	84,188.43	3,464,903	16,393.98	1,970,599	9,227.61	133,677
1932	139,243.34	9,431,919	7,415.31	619,165	30,534.05	3,864,064
1933	91,225.17	3,551,976	4,697.75	893,992	18,526.12	218,159
1934	740,792.76	46,443,748	13,474.06	2,206,993	532,481.34	32,110,919
1935	267,362.2 cho	18,612,942	12,033.9 cho	2,490,686	40,727.4 cho	1,269,659

Year	Forested Tracts: By Fungus, Insect, etc. Area ha.	Value ¥	By Flood Area ha.	Value ¥
1931	3,928.76	52,904	448.27	208,863
1932	4,378.51	42,554	686.97	305,278
1933	2,993.26	25,816	531.66	125,311
1934	1,868.81	53,937	7,312.09	2,259,657
1935	4,980.4 cho	212,846	11,519.4 cho	6,396,686

Year	Forested Tracts: By Snow Area ha.	Value ¥	Others Area ha.	Value ¥
1931	26,823.37	780,520	24,458.18	282,458
1932	50,992.07	3,225,637	42,380.03	1,295,064
1933	23,395.52	588,752	38,787.48	1,658,933
1934	131,280.83	8,726,727	36,018.79	444,773
1935	162,358.7 cho	6,912,318	29,496.9 cho	526,557

Year	Bare Tracts: By Fire Area ha.	Value ¥	By Flood Area ha.	Value ¥	Others Area ha.	Value ¥
1931	2,505.92	24,499	161.35	3,956	240.99	7,427
1932	1,928.63	18,748	374.88	45,321	552.89	16,088
1933	1,832.92	11,545	138.05	18,804	322.41	10,664
1934	6,967.60	35,373	1,955.61	441,537	9,333.63	163,832
1935	3,050.4 cho	50,868	2,302.0 cho	610,652	3,892.1 cho	141,670

Forest Administration

The central office of forestry administration in Japan at present is the Forestry Bureau in the Department of Agriculture and Forestry. Under this Bureau, there are six Forestry Administration Offices, 218 Forestry Administration Stations and 1,544 administrative districts.

In the office of the Forestry Bureau there is a Section of General Affairs, a Section of Forestry Business, and for the administration of privately owned forests there is a Public and Private Forests Section. For experimental work there are, under the direct supervision of the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, Forestry Experimental Stations. Forestry Administration Offices are located in Aomori, Akita, Tokyo, Osaka, Kochi, and Kumamoto cities, and are under supervision of the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry. The work of each office is to plan the afforestation work of Government and public forests, to establish or eliminate Government forests, to start civil engineering work, to sell forests, etc. They also supervise the works of forest administration stations which are placed under them. In each office there is a Section of General Affairs, a Section of Forestry Planning, a Section of Afforestation and a Section of Utilization.

Forest Administration Stations, which number 218 in all, are directly concerned with the management and protection of Government and public afforested forests.

In Hokkaido, the Forestry Section in the Development Bureau is the central administration office, and under it there are 19 forest administration offices. About 3,520,000 ha. of forests which are owned by the Government are administered by these 19 offices, the average area controlled by one office being about 185,000 ha.

The proper policing of various forests is carried out as follows :

FOREST POLICE

Owner	Forest Districts and Number of Police	
Crown	Number of allotted districts; Japan proper	252
	Persons in charge of allotted districts: Japan proper	522 men
Government	Number of districts in Japan proper	1,543

Cwner	Forest Districts and Number of Police	
Government	Number of persons in charge	2,461 men (Dec. 1934)
	„ „ districts in Hokkaido	220
	„ „ persons in charge	496 men (April, 1933)
Public	Ordinarily the police look after these; but in the following 8 prefectures there are forest police facilities: Aomori, Miyagi, Fukushima, Yamaguchi, Yamanashi, Aichi, Saitama, and Oita	
Shrines and temples	For the public forests in Hokkaido, members who take charge of allotted districts look after:	
Private	Number of allotted districts	61
	Number of persons in charge	61 men

Forestry Education

College Education Forestry education in Japan began with the establishment of a forestry school in Nishigahara, Tokyo, in 1882, under supervision of the Forestry Bureau. This school became the Tokyo Forestry School and by the University Ordinance of 1890 was incorporated as a branch of the Department of Agriculture of Tokyo Imperial University. Morioka and Kagoshima Higher Forestry Colleges were established in 1903 and 1904 respectively. The forestry education that was being carried on in Sapporo Agricultural College in Hokkaido, became a laboratory course when the college became a Department of Hokkaido Imperial University. During the World War, facilities for education were greatly extended, and Departments of Forestry were added to Kyoto and Kyushu Imperial Universities, while higher forestry colleges were established in Miyé, Utsunomiya, Gifu, Miyazaki, and Suigen in Korea and Taihoku in Formosa.

Each university and college has its own speciality. Kyushu and Hokkaido Universities give lectures on Forestry in Tropical and Arctic Zones respectively, and graduates of these universities are mostly working in the colonies. Each university has forests for experimental purposes.

Most higher colleges are comparatively new but they each have their speciality. Some of them have two-year post-graduate courses, while others offer some special courses. Miyé Higher Forestry College is noted for its course in civil engineering for forestry, Gifu Higher Forestry College for its technological course on forestry products, and Utsunomiya for courses on agricultural policy and economics. Gifu Higher Forestry College is specialized in its courses on clearing and carrying lumber making on a mechanical basis, chemical technology of forestry products, etc.

Practical Education The first and second class forestry schools established and supervised by various prefectures give practical lessons in forestry. They exist either as independent schools of forestry, or as a part of agricultural schools.

In order to encourage forestry, training of experts who have practical knowledge of forestry is very important. These experts are trained mostly in the forestry schools which give practical lessons, but often other methods, as explained in the next section, are adopted.

Supplementary Education For those who have no opportunities to get regular forestry education in schools supplementary forestry education is given in various places, the principal method being by series of lectures given under the auspices of forestry experimental stations, forestry associations or charcoal associations. These lectures are given regularly each year, but in particular cases, when experts are required for the purpose of management of some special forestry work a special course of lectures will be given. In the case of Government forests, supplementary education is given every year to train men who take charge of the forests.

Forestry Experimentation

Central Experimental Station A plant experimental station was first established in Nishigahara, Tokyo, in 1878, to make investigations into the advantages of the cultivation of various plants, the growth of plants, the relation between the forests and climatic conditions of the country, etc. This station was abolished in 1822, but in 1890, the business of forestry experiments was taken up by the Forestry Administration Station of Tokyo. Later, in 1905, upon a pressing need, plant nursery beds were

established in Meguro, Tokyo. This nursery developed into a Forestry Experimental Station under supervision of the Forestry Bureau. In 1922, the station was detached from the Forestry Bureau and placed under the direct supervision of the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry. A subsidiary station was also established in the Ogasawara (Bonin) Islands for the purpose of experimenting with tropical plants.

In the Central Experimental Station there are departments of, general affairs, afforestation, vegetable pathology, utilization of forestry products, chemistry, forestry work, and weather and climate. Since 1904 it has regularly issued bulletins on experiments and forest weather, besides occasional other reports. The Station will, for payment, make analysis, carry out experiments and give advice and judgements on matters of forestry for the general public, if requested.

Local Experimental Stations Among the various prefectures Hokkaido is the only one which has a forestry experimental station. It was established in 1908 and for twenty-five years has contributed to the development of forestry in that island. The station makes expriments in afforestation, the utilization of forestry products and the protection of forests. In Kagoshima prefecture, a forestry research bureau was established in 1929. This bureau studies plant rearing, afforestation, etc. and is the only bureau which engages in experimental work in prefectures other than Hokkaido.

Forestry experimentation in Formosa is undertaken by a Forestry Bureau under the Central Research Station in the Government-General of Formosa. It has experimental forests of 52,000 cho. In addition to experiments in afforestation, utilization, and nursery work, it studies the classification and distribution of plants grown in the island. It has two branch stations.

The forestry experimental station in Korea was established in 1922. As the climatic conditions in Korea are rather continental the kinds of plants, their distribution, and the nature of forests, etc. differ widely from those in Japan, so the results of the experiments made in the Central Experimental Station in Tokyo cannot be directly applied to the forests in Korea. The station is comparatively new, but as part of a plan which is to be completed in fourteen years beginning 1925, investigations on the classification and distribution of the plants, experiments in rearing and afforestation of the principal trees, experiments in the prevention of damage from noxious insects and fungi on young plants and forests, tests on lumber and methods of storing, etc., have already been made and reports on the results of the investigations and experiments have been published in the bulletins issued by the station. In the experiments on rearing young plants it has already succeeded in showing the way to quicken their growth, its experimental success in rearing the Korean pines being specially noteworthy.

In Saghalien Island an experimental station was established in 1929. Prior to that experiments were made on frigid zone plants by the Temporary Industrial Investigation Bureau in the Government Office of Saghalien Island in experimental forests near the towns of Toyohara and Horo.

Lumber Trade and Industry

Lumber Trade Imports of Saghalien lumber are the heaviest for Japan. American lumber is second. At the time of the Kwanto earthquake and fire of 1923 these lumber was heavily imported for reconstruction of the devastated areas. With the completion of the reconstruction enterprise their imports began to decrease. Imports of Saghalien lumber for 1931 amounted to 7,600,000 koku. Until 1933 imports maintained the level of 7,000,000 koku, but in 1934 they decreased suddenly to 5,200,000 koku and in the following year the amount further dropped to 2,700,000 koku. In 1936 imports dropped as low as 2,500,000 koku. Imports of American lumber too, have kept steadily falling. In 1930 the amount totalled 2,516,212 koku, which sank to 1,390,139 koku in 1932, further to 1,181,787 koku in 1934 and to 1,243,442 koku in 1935 Imports for 1936 picked up to 1,432,916 koku.

Lumber Price A wild soaring in prices at the year-end was the feature of the lumber market in 1936, although, as a whole, the year was a little below average. The all class of North Sea lumber climbed as high as ¥1,000, a record high in years. The prices of the North Sea lumber remained dull in the first nine or ten months of the year, but took a sudden upward turn in the last three months, climbing from ¥740 in January to ¥770 in November, to ¥820 in December, and further to ¥980 in January, 1937. The price advance, coming late in 1936, was not timely enough to affect the profit situation of lumber companies. With a continuous increase in consumption due to activities in the building trade, the 1937 demand for lumber is expected to advance and serve

to strengthen the market tone. The drastic fall in the arrivals of North Sea lumber was principally due to a strict restriction placed on shipments by the Saghalien Government.

Imports of American lumber have shown a slight advance in recent years, arrivals at Yokohama last year amounting to 1,432,916 koku as compared to 1,243,442 koku imported during the preceding year. The increase in the imports of American lumber in spite of the cheaper yen is attributable to the fact that these imports included certain special kinds of lumber for which the North Sea lumber cannot be substituted. The imports of American lumber during the past seven years show that the heaviest amount of 2,516,212 koku was imported during 1930 and the second largest was 2,199,253 koku for 1931, but after that imports were falling yearly. The 1936 imports were the third largest.

IMPORTS OF LUMBER (Unit ¥1,000)

Year	Ebony, Kwarin, etc.	Teak	Cedar for Pencils	Cedar, Pine, Fir from under 60 mm. thick to over 200 mm.	Cedar, Pine and Fir (logs and cants)	Kiri (paulownia)	Aspen	Other Wood
1932	578	753	425	15,243	14,617	87	—	3,322
1933	922	919	203	16,479	16,540	97	204	5,214
1934	952	758	336	14,722	15,404	66	277	7,665
1935	967	1,347	364	16,533	20,230	83	304	9,945
1936	1,081	1,534	—	37,645		663	809	13,816

EXPORTS OF LUMBER (Unit ¥1,000)

Year	Bamboo	Railway Sleepers	Veneers	Shooks	Match Sticks	Wood Shavings for Match Boxes	Wood, other sawn	Logs, etc.
1932	511	26	1,291	3,304	285	493	3,573	2,351
1933	700	612	2,550	4,506	347	462	6,325	3,833
1934	952	2,207	4,010	5,779	255	402	6,620	4,639
1935	742	689	4,397	5,012	88	282	7,520	5,192
1936	855	699	5,965	4,872	—	—	9,146	3,371

Wood Pulp Industry Demand for pulp in Japan for 1936 gained considerably over the year before, both production and imports increasing heavily over 1935. Actual demand for pulp to be used for paper making advanced 3 per cent for rayon making 39 per cent. Demand for pulp in Japan was sinking in 1931 and 1932, but since 1933 it has been ascending in line with the rapid growth of both the rayon and paper manufacturing industries. Last year's demand represented an increase of 73 per cent over that of 1932, when the demand was lowest in recent years. Domestic production of pulp has failed to increase in proportion to this heavy gain in demand, which has naturally resulted in a yearly increase of imports. Japan's reliance on foreign pulp is becoming more and more pronounced. The 1937 year production of pulp in Japan is estimated at 810,598 tons for paper manufacturing and 57,000 tons for pulp manufacturing. Against this, the year's estimated imports of pulp are about 450,000 tons. Production, imports and exports of pulp for the last two years are as follows :

		Production (In tons)	Imports	Exports
1935:	For paper	724,042	143,572	732
	For rayon	33,435	126,351	—
1936:	For paper	747,356	158,184	531
	For rayon	55,209	169,368	—

Japan's dependence on foreign pulp in 1933 amounted to 26.2 per cent, which increased to 27.4 per cent in 1936. It will increase further for 1937. One of the immediate reasons for this increasing demand is the marked growth of the staple fiber industry. Many staple fiber manufacturing companies have been expanding their equipment to launch upon this industry.

Japan's productive capacity of rayon pulp is expected to total about 170,000 tons for 1937. The North Korea Paper Manufacturing Company, capitalized at ¥20,000,000, started pulp making operations in the fall of 1936. Its

productive capacity will be 20,000 tons and the first products are expected to be placed on the market in the fall of 1937. The Nisso Rayon Pulp Company, capitalized at ¥20,000,000, is expected to market 20,000 tons in April, 1937. Its annual productive capacity is 20,000 tons. The Hokuetsu Paper Manufacturing Company, capitalized at ¥6,000,000, is also making preparations for producing 20,000 tons a year The Japan Pulp Company, capitalized at ¥20,000,000, also will make the same amount of pulp and its first products will appear on the market in June, 1938.

The combined productive capacity of four Japanese pulp making companies in Manchoukuo is 60,000 tons, each being 15,000 tons. They are the East Manchoukuo Pulp Company, the Manchuria Pulp Company, the Nichiman Pulp Company and the Tokyo Pulp Company. The Oji Paper Manufacturing Company already started operation at its allied company, the Dai Nippon Rayon Pulp Company, capitalized at ¥10,000,000. Its annual productive capacity is 30,000 tons. If the total 170,000 tons of productive capacity, including 60,000 tons in Manchoukuo, is operated, this will largely meet annual demand at home, because the 1936 demand totalled nearly 224,000 tons. While last year's imports amounted to 169,000 tons, imports for 1937 are expected to decrease to about 54,000 tons. Production of pulp for paper making for 1931 amounted to 76,081 tons, which gained to 169,036 tons in 1917 ; to 250,027 tons in 1921 ; to 414,706 tons in 1925 ; to 625,537 tons in 1930 ; to 566,709 tons in 1931 ; 551,120 tons in 1932 ; to 620,039 tons in 1933 ; to 691,836 tons in 1934 ; to 724,042 tons in 1935 ; and to 747,356 tons in 1936.

The Oji Paper Manufacturing Company almost monopolizes the production. Its production for 1935 amounted to 686,636 tons out of the total production of 724,042 tons in Japan. Other paper manufacturing companies are of minor scales. Of the 1935 year output, the Karafuto Paper Material Company produced 6,879 tons ; the Tokai Paper Material Company 2,705 tons ; the Naniwa Paper Manufacturing Company 4,113 tons ; the Hokuetsu Paper Manufacturing Company 23,709 tons ; and the Yalu Timber Company 14,474 tons.

Production of classied pulp for 1935 follows : sulphite pulp 358,729 tons ; ground pulp 321,031 tons ; kraft pulp 40,505 tons ; and magnesia 3,777 tons. Imports of wood pulp for 1935 amounted to ¥55,101,181, of which those from the U.S.A. were ¥22,812,040 ; those from Norway ¥13,201,444 ; those from sweden ¥7,734,665 ; those from Canada ¥5,990,632 ; and those from others ¥5,362,400.

CHAPTER XVII

MINING

History of the Industry

During the reign of the Emperor Kotoku (645 A.D.), a mineral deposit was discovered in the province of Iyo and experts came over from Korea and China, to work the minerals extracted. Metals were being used for making coins, so mining received the encouragement of the rulers. During the time of the Emperor Shomu, (724–747 A.D.) mineral deposits were found in many places and the art of working them made considerable advance, a fact witnessed by the construction of the Great Buddha at Nara, a monument of the metal-working art of those days.

Later, during the time of the Ashikagas, mining made further development, especially in the field of gold, copper and sulphur. Influential lords who held sway in their own localities required metals to finance their army, and mines always proved good objects for fights. Mineral deposits obtained in this manner were well worked and the mining industry naturally developed.

In the time of the Tokugawas metallurgy further advanced. The government coined money which circulated all over the country and naturally the industry was well protected and carefully developed under its ægis. At this time Japan was known throughout the world as a country which abounded in gold and silver, and after the country was opened up to foreign trade the quantity of these precious metals exported was considerable, a business which provided a natural stimulus to gold and silver mining. The government also encouraged private enterprisers to engage in the industry, a result of which was the entry of the Sumitomos. The chief mineral deposits discovered during those times were :

Ashio Copper Mine	in Tochigi
Besshi „ „	in Ehimé
Sado Gold Mines	in Sado Island
Miiké Coal „	in Fukuoka
Karatsu „	in Saga

After the Meiji Restoration the industry did not show much progress until after the Sino-Japanese War of 1884–1885, when the Government called in many mining experts from abroad and employed them in government operated mines, not only to improve, organize and work the mines more efficiently but also to teach the operating of them on a modern basis. The mines improved in this manner were sold to private companies, and the experts who were officials of the Government were transferred together with them, a factor which served to bring the mining industry of Japan to its present stage of development.

In all kinds of mineral products, the year 1935 witnessed considerable increases over the preceding yers. This was caused by the enormous increase of overseas trade and the continued boom of munitions industries. The year 1936 far surpassed the productions of the preceding years, setting an all-time record. An upward price trend caused miners to produce more than ever before.

Speaking of gold, the 1936 output totalled 21,114 kilogrammes in contrast to 17,837 kilogrammes for 1935. Silver production, too, increased and amounted to 298,793 kilogrammes against 253,608 kilogrammes for 1935. Copper was not exception to the rule. Its output totalled 78,114 metric tons against 69,829 metric tons for 1935. Coal production totalled 38,067,000 metric tons against 34,904,000 metric tons for 1935. Petroleum products for 1936 totalled 3,820,462 hectolitres contrasted to 34,904,000 hectolitres for 1935. Production of sulphur totalled 175,314 metric tons, gaining over the 1935 figure of 152,019 metric tons. Production of lead was the largest known for recent years with a total of 8,021 metric tons against 7,195 metric tons for 1935. Demand for zinc became heavy with the progress of munitions industry. Last year's production totalled 36,201 metric tons in contrast to 31,300 metric tons for the previous year. This decreased somewhat and totalled 1,859 metric tons for 1936 against 2,059 metric tons in contrast to 1,311,464 metric tons for 1936. Throughout these two years the constant measures of encouragement of the Government and heavy demand for munitions industry provided the background for the large production.

NUMBER OF MINE-LOTS OPERATED AND THEIR AREA

(Prepared by Department of Commerce and Industry)

(Area is given in acres)

		1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
No. of Mine-lots	Operated	1,099	1,113	1,241	1,395	1,448
	Not optd.	3,301	3,205	3,067	2,915	2,883
Area	Operated	21,037,812.1	20,806,803.3	22,175,416.3	23,723,094.7	23,874,047.0
	Not optd.	24,061,610.1	23,903,106.3	22,608,207.5	21,678,168.5	22,267,615.0

NUMBER OF MINE-LOTS PROSPECTED AND THEIR AREAS

(Prepared by Department of Commerce and Industry)

(Area is given in acres)

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
No. of Mine-lots	6,195	6,299	7,130	8,918	10,191
Area	109,294,197.7	111,630,875.4	130,743,419.5	171,271,346.3	197,668,056.0

NUMBER OF MINE-LOTS PROSPECTED AND THEIR AREAS

(Classified according to Kinds of Minerals)

(Area is given in acres)

	1930		1931	
Kind of Mineral	No. of Mine-lots	Area	No. of Mine-lots	Area
Metal	3,438	50,097,981.7	3,234	48,182,550.4
Phosphorus	21	208,812.0	19	183,493.2
Graphite	15	190,397.3	10	170,635.5
Coal	1,774	40,245,236.3	1,742	39,130,915.6
Lignite	191	2,029,314.9	157	2,005,192.0
Petrleum	1,056	20,141,610.9	903	17,368,277.6
Petroleum asphalt	20	309,462.0	14	219,253.0
Sulphur	89	1,667,491.1	108	1,895,325.9
Other non-metals	—	—	16	86,441.0
Total	6,607	114,968,846.3	6,195	109,294,197.7

	1932		1933	
Kind of Mineral	No. of Mine-lots	Area	No. of Mine-lots	Area
Metal	3,503	55,568,450.3	4,438	74,253,387.5
Phosphorus	14	155,837.0	14	121,620.5
Graphite	7	84,432.2	11	107,678.2
Coal	1,573	35,598,012.6	1,594	35,985,565.7
Lignite	146	1,290,171.0	117	944,720.9
Petroleum	858	16,761,711.9	822	17,002,362.3
Petroleum asphalt	13	250,371.0	13	265,581.3
Sulphur	112	1,877,969.4	114	1,960,509.7
Other non-metals	—	—	1	32,529.1
Total	6,229	111,630,875.4	2,686	56,420,567.7

	1934		1935	
Kind of Mineral	No. of Mine-lots	Area	No. of Mine-lots	Area
Metal	5,956	107,661,143.2	7,001	128,256,535.0
Phosphorus	35	433,214.8	26	387,309.0
Graphite	13	68,257.8	27	344,311.0
Coal	1,746	39,643,220.8	1,863	42,904,085.0
Lignite	127	1,513,299.4	144	1,433,521.0
Petroleum	840	18,014,106.7	877	19,156,144.0
Petholeum asphalt	14	295,609.7	13	280,433.0
Sulphur	169	3,276,973.8	235	4,770,922.0
Other non-metals	—	—	3,185	69,276,728.0
Total	2,944	63,244,613.0	134,793	197,668,056.0

NUMBER OF MINE-LOTS OPERATED AND THEIR AREAS

(According to Kinds of Minerals)

Kind of Mineral		1930 No. of Mine-lots	1930 Area	1931 No. of Mine-lots	1931 Area
Metal	Operated	401	6,394,261.4	343	5,873,435.5
	Not optd.	1,877	12,224,045.0	1,837	11,464,541.1
Phosphorus	Operated	2	13,374.4	1	3,926.5
	Not optd.	5	18,648.4	5	22,571.3
Graphite	Operated	3	46,764.0	4	50,498.5
	Not optd.	15	68,745.8	14	53,168.9
Coal	Operated	508	13,515,299.3	481	12,714,854.5
	Not optd.	1,038	11,963,661.7	963	10,855,070.2
Lignite	Operated	100	619,281.8	101	598,206.5
	Not optd.	110	381,805.7	103	352,474.6
Petroleum	Operated	130	1,399,318.4	128	1,442,001.1
	Not optd.	285	1,022,905.4	274	866,651.9
Petroleum Asphalt	Operated	9	118,305.0	9	116,284.0
	Not optd.	5	7,344.0	3	2,959.0
Sulphur	Operated	31	194,107.0	30	213,856.5
	Not optd.	98	364,766.0	101	388,160.1
Other non-metals	Operated	2	24,750.0	2	24,749.0
	Not optd.	1	10,013.3	1	10,013.3
Total	Operated	1,186	22,325,461.3	1,099	21,037,812.1
	Not optd.	3,434	26,061,934.4	3,301	20,016,610.1

Kind of Mineral		1932 No. of Mine-lots	1932 Area	1933 No. of Mine-lots	1933 Area
Metal	Operated	389	6,210,175.4	481	7,134,619 7
	Not optd.	1,750	11,210,554.1	1,649	10,253,456.5
Phosphorus	Operated	1	3,926.5	2	13,374.4
	Not optd.	5	22,571.4	6	60,475.7
Graphite	Operated	3	45,308.5	3	45,308.5
	Not optd.	13	51,270.0	12	40,890.7
Coal	Operated	456	12,298,637.5	488	12,549,253.3
	Not optd.	970	10,867,332.3	935	10,670,004.6
Lignite	Operated	103	644,101.3	99	627,782.4
	Not optd.	100	362,063.4	102	359,412.0
Petroleum	Operated	119	1,247,916.7	124	1,446,184.0
	Not optd.	266	998,875.1	263	842,514.0
Petroleum Asphalt	Operated	10	134,086.0	9	134,086.3
	Not optd.	3	2,959.0	3	2,598.9
Sulphur	Operated	32	222,651.9	35	224,807.7
	Not optd.	97	377,522.1	96	368,841.7
Other non-metals	Operated	—	—	—	—
	Not optd.	1	10,013.3	1	10,013.3
Total	Operated	1,113	20,806,803.8	1,241	22,175,416.3
	Not optd.	3,205	23,903,160.3	3,067	22,608,207.5

Kind of Mineral		1934 No. of Mine-lots	1934 Area	1935 No. of Mine-lots	1935 Area
Metal	Operated	575	7,724,004.8	619	8,354,131
	Not optd.	1,559	9,862,597.4	1,572	10,092,320
Phosphorus	Operated	2	13,374.4	2	13,374
	Not optd.	6	60,475.7	7	46,661
Graphite	Operated	3	45,308.5	3	45,308
	Not optd.	12	40,890.8	12	40,890
Coal	Operated	546	13,459,991.1	545	12,921,417
	Not optd.	876	10,111,626.5	102	574,388

Kind of Mineral		1934 No. of Mine-lots	1934 Area	1935 No. of Mine-lots	1935 Area
Lignite	Operated	99	593,322.4	99	355,737
	Not optd.	103	373,360.4	—	—
Petroleum	Operated	123	1,455,636.6	125	1,473,661
	Not optd.	261	859,510.4	256	800,910
Petroleum Asphalt	Operated	9	122,042.6	9	122,042
	Not optd.	3	2,959.0	3	2,958
Sulphur	Operated	37	284,310.2	39	329,975
	Not optd.	94	358,113.5	60	273,445
Other non-metals	Operated	—	—	—	—
	Not optd.	—	—	—	—
Metal and non-metals	Operated	1	25,104.1	2	38,182
	Not optd.	1	8,634.8	2	1,563
Total	Operated	1,395	23,723,094.7	1,448	23,874,047
	Not optd.	2,915	21,678,168.5	2,888	22,267,615

PRODUCTION OF MINERALS

Kind of Ore	Unit	1933 Quantity produced	1933 Value ¥	1934 Quantity produced	1934 Value ¥	1935 Quantity produced	1935 Value ¥
Gold	Gramme	13,701,200	33,790,368	15,094,094	44,906,708	18,293,869	56,234,439
Gold dust	,,	27,390	55,634	52,491	134,895	27,447	75,262
Platinum-dust	,,	6,424	39.901	3,678	20,251	1,575	9,980
Silver	,,	185,610.259	8,037,277	217,254,393	11,039,296	256,004,834	17,917,084
Silver dust	,,	981	26	—	—	—	—
Copper	kg.	69,032,756	50,771,985	67,002,270	46,746,330	70,317,043	52,152,075
Lead	,,	6,824,687	1,357,829	7,039,311	1,415,177	7,070,361	1,774,996
Bismuth	,,	57,100	382,570	50,354	376,062	51,980	318,793
Tin	,,	964,800	2,758,522	1,218,216	4,094,784	2,068,839	7,872,479
Tin dust	,,	420	1,399	500	1,975	241	499,901
Tin ore	Metric ton	855	1,850,230	903	2,093,849	173	40.709
Antimony sulphide	kg.	1,200	300	—	—	—	—
Antimony ore	,,	134	13,126	106	15,349	5,089	27,555
Mercury	Metric ton	8,077	37,156	6,772	32,639	3,888,710	1,318,678
Zinc	,,	30,657,632	9,746,556	32,145,458	9,516,702	370,689	17,540,993
Cast iron	,,	244,149	11,015,524	357,150	15,039,962	239,408	17,476,784
Steel	,,	128,933	11,603,970	186,046	13,240,306	1,338,891	13,423,086
Iron pyrites	,,	903,129	9,974,995	1,090,454	10,733,989	35,969	1,381,480
Chromite	,,	19,897	714,688	27,070	993,550	71,659	1,370,671
Manganese ore	,,	10,845	325,070	10,637	336,366	89	97,577
Dioxide Metal	,,	32,690	418,911	46,528	572,524	6,435	13,357
Scheelite ore	,,	29	17,624	65	82,381	2,889,144	461,226
Arseneous acid	kg.	2,375,092	383,579	2,734.331	322,792	91,248	1,158,372
Phosphate rocks	Metric ton	34,742	414,034	56,500	626,765	1,201	78,325
Graphite	,,	869	44,270	969	48,931	—	—
Coal	,,	32,523,746	195,467,264	35,924,989	245,555,471	37,762,491	270,177,016
Atan*	,,	115,788	559,703	124,356	614,283	108,526	568,600
Crude Petroleum Crude Oil	hl.	2,255,655	8,958,927	2,838,630	9,429,848	3,509,568	11,985,514
Gasoline	100 cm.	419,176	821,797	471,214	785,770	414,741	696,924
Sulphur	Metric ton	114,426	7,500,318	135,412	9,018,901	164,945	10,244,145
Sulphur ore	,,	2,700	29,340	4,782	53,394	165,867	1,684,238
Sulphuric acid	,,	115,332	1,141,786	118,459	1,068,993	2,582,437	699,429
Total			— 358,240,658		— 432,307,812		— 504,419,190

* Brown or soft lignite.

Mining of Metals

Gold The removal of the gold embargo was effected in January, 1930, and the outflow of specie during that year reached ¥300,000,000. There was no sign of the outflow abating in the following year, and in consequence the specie holding of the Bank of Japan dwindled to a very low ratio. All these adverse conditions gave rise to demands for the encouragement of gold producing enterprises among the people and resulted in the establishment of a Central Refinery Station (Chuo Seirensho) and of other means for conducting reseach work. As regards financial assistance extended to the enterprisers, it was so arranged that the Bank of Japan should advance low-interest loans against the mortgaging of the gold produced. The suspension of the gold standard by Britain in September, 1931, greatly influenced the financial atmosphere of this country, the effect of which was to augment the outflow of gold and Intensify the tendency, which had become rampant throughout the country, of cornering and hoarding the metal.

With the installation of the Seiyukai Cabinet in December, 1931, gold exports were prohibited and an unprecedented depreciation of the yen and appreciation of gold in inverse ratio took place.

Stimulated by various measures of encouragement, as has been said elsewhere, the production of gold was increased by 9.9% as compared with 1932, despite the fact that the gold refineries, the construction of which was started on the receipt of bounties, were still but half completed. The production in 1934 was 15,094,094 gm. at ¥44,906,708 against 13,701,200 gm. at ¥33,790,368 in the previous year. Chosen produced 12,427,000 gm. at ¥41,049,000 and Taiwan, 1,046 gm. in the same year.

Gold output in Japan has increased rapidly since 1934. The output in Japan proper for 1936 amounted to 21,-953 kilogrammes, worth ¥73,543,000 setting an all-time record high. If the output in Korea for 1936 is the same as that for 1935, when mined gold totalled ¥38,320,000 and the amount of alluvial gold totalled ¥7,136,000, last year's combined total was ¥110,000,000. The gold output in Japan since 1930 has been as follows : 12,067 kilogrammes worth ¥16,-120,000 for 1930 ; 12,275 kilogrammes worth ¥16,523,000 for 1931 ; 12,495 kilogrammes worth ¥25,973,000 for 1932 ; 13,-728 kilogrammes worth ¥33,846,000 for 1933 ; 15,146 kilogrammes worth ¥45,-042,000 for 1934 ; 18,321 kilogrammes worth ¥56,310,000 for 1935 ; and 21,953 kilogrammes worth ¥73,543,000 for 1936. Gold output in Korea for six years is as follows : ¥9,207,000 for mined gold and ¥411,000 for alluvial gold for 1930 ; ¥9,008,000 for mined gold and ¥575,000 for alluvial gold for 1931 ; ¥17,809,000 for mined gold and ¥1,823,000 for alluvial gold for 1932 ; ¥26,006,000 for mined gold and ¥3,327,000 for alluvial gold for 1933 ; ¥33,214,000 for mined gold and 5,323,000 for 1934 ; and ¥38,320,000 for mined gold and ¥7,136,000 for alluvial gold for 1935.

The Bank of Japan on May 15, 1937, raised its purchase price of gold by 27 sen to ¥3.77 per gram, or ¥14.1375 per momme, for shipment of gold abroad. Since March 9, 1937, the Government started gold shipments to the United States and up to June 25 shipped ¥210,000,000 worth of gold to replenish its gold specie holdings abroad. The gold shipments for 1937 have been the first since 1934. Gold purchased direct by the Government during 1932 amounted to ¥77,762,000 and that during 1933 amounted to ¥49,000,000. Gold purchases up to March, 1934, when the Government promulgated a law concerning the purchase of gold by the Bank of Japan totalled ¥2,217,000. This makes the total ¥128,980,000. Since then the gold purchases have been kept up by the Bank. During the remaining period of 1934 the Bank purchased ¥50,137,000 worth of gold. The 1935 purchases amounted to ¥87,405,000. The 1936 purchases gained as far as ¥112,-592,000. Purchases up to February 13, 1937, about a month prior to the gold shipments on March 9 totalled ¥16,658,-000. The total purchases by the Bank were ¥226,794,000. In addition, gold worth ¥34,651,000 was transferred to the Bank from the Treasury. All these make the total of gold purchases by both the Government and Bank from 1932 to February, 1937, ¥301,445,000. Now, exports of gold from Japan during 1931 amounted to ¥50,000,000, which advanced to ¥112,622,000 for 1932. The 1933 year exports amounted to ¥20,925,000. The total exports were ¥183,548,000. No gold was exported during 1934, 1935 and 1936.

Silver Affected by the bounds and leaps in the silver quotations in foreign markets and o account of the close relationship of silver with gold smeltering the production of silver increased too, the 1935 production amounted to 253,608,300 grammes, which advanced to 298,793,500 grammes for 1936. Last year's figure set an all-time record high.

Tin Only about one-fourth of the to-

tal demand is being met by home products. To be exact 1,218,000 kg. was produced at home in 1934 againt the total home consumption of 5,260,000 kg., leaving a balance of 4,062,000 kg. to be imported and 20,000 kg. for exports.

Osaka Tin Refinery Guild was established in October, 1933. The reproduced tin put out by the members of the guild became such an important factor that its manufacture came to be designated as one of the principal industries by the Government in November, 1934. The sales of the product have been well regulated after the formation of the guild. Before the guild was organized the product contained a good deal of impurities and the production was only two or three hundred tons. As the time went on the technique of refining improved and the production in 1934 went up to five hundred tons. All the product is consumed in the domestic market.

Copper Production of copper, unlike that of tin, lead, zinc, or aluminium, was comparatively large in Japan, occupying an important position among metal industries, especially in arms industry. Copper industry developed rather early in Japan. Its production in 1876 was less than 4,000 tons, but Japan was then known throughout the world as the second largest copper producing country, exporting one half of her product. But with the Great War as the turning point, her position as copper exporting country became less important, for new copper beds were discovered in Chile and Congo. Japan then came to occupy the fourth position in the production of copper, and has been compelled to become an importer, the quantity imported increasing every year.

Demanded as an indispensable requisite in the munition manufacturing industries its brisk tone was maintained in 1934 as it had been in the previous year. The 1936 copper output in Japan established a record high with 79,114 metric tons in contrast to 69,829 metric tons for 1935. The copper market in Japan was long under influences of New York and London markets. But since the second half of 1932, owing to the depression of Yen and the increased tariff, it began to regain an independent position of foreign influences. Copper prices in Japan for 1936 were unusually high affected by New York and London quotations. Last year's low was ¥79.-65 on January 13 and high was ¥107.35 on December 4. The range was ¥27.70. On February 22, 1937, the price rose to ¥137.35, a record high. The exports of copper reached 12,621,600 kg. in 1934 as against 8,512,100 kg. in 1933, while the imports reached 51,368,300 kg. in 1934, a great increase as compared with 17,617,700 kg. in 1933.

To meet the enhanced demand copper mines extended their equipments, the most important being the improvement of the furnace at Naoshima refinery of the Mitsubishi Mine, the extension of Saga refinery of the Nippon Mine, and opening of a new shaft at Ashio Mine of the Furukawa interests.

DEMAND AND SUPPLY OF COPPER (Kilogrammes)

	Production	Imports	Total	Exports	Home Consumption
1931	75,848,181	2,019,900	77,863,081	26,603,200	51,264,881
1932	71,876,557	1,966,600	73,843,157	23,121,600	50,721,557
1933	69,032,756	17,617,700	86,650,456	8,512,100	78,138,356
1934	67,002,270	51,368,300	118,370,570	12,621,600	105,748,970
1935	69,407,000	65,261,000	137,441,000	72,000	134,170,000
1936	78,614,000	47,794,000	129,607,000	7,000	127,524,000

Lead The home production of lead barely satisfies 7% of the aggregate demand. In 1935 the total home production was 7,442,000 kg. and the import was 91,408,000 kg. The home consumption increased from 73,291,187 kg. in 1933 to 100,071,311 kg. in 1934 but it decreased to 96,967,000 kg. in 1935.

Zinc The origin and development of zinc mining in Japan is of comparatively recent date. In 1900, a Swiss clock firm, seeing bright prospects of developing the industry, purchased many zinc mines in the country and began exporting the metal. From this time the industry developed, the number of men engaged in mining increased, and the exportation of zinc grew in proportion.

Along with the development of other industries has been an advance in zinc smelting. With increased demand during the World War, production and exports increased, the quantity produced in 1917 reached 54,700 metric tons, and smelting furnaces numbered 16. From the slump of 1920 and the depression which followed it, the industry receiv-

ed a heavy blow. Most of the furnaces were shut down, and only those in Miiké, Takata, and Hiroshima were able to weather the storm. The last named has been especially successful in manufacturing sulphuric acid with the sulphur separated from zinc ores.

Zinc ores in Japan exist mainly in igneous and aqueous rocks. They seldom exist independently, sometimes being found mixed with lead ores. The principal ore which yields zinc is zinc sulphide, some of the best of which contains about 67% of zinc and 33% sulphur. Ordinary ores contain 40 to 55% of zinc and 24 to 28% of sulphur.

The principal places of production are as follows :

Kamioka	Kozan in	Gifu	Prefecture
Budé	„ „	Niigata	„
Ikuno	„ „	Hyogo	„
Yasuda	„ „	Nagasaki	„
Hosokura	„ „	Miyagi	„
Kanayama	„ „	Wakayama	„
Wanibuchi	„ „	Shimané	„
Sasu	„ „	Nagasaki	„

Ginya and Maden Kozen in Heiando, Korea

Mimuné Kozan in Keiando, Korea.

The production, import, export, and consumption of zinc follow :

Year	Production Quantity produced	Production Value	Imports	Exports	Consumption
	kg.	yen	kg.		kg.
1931	25,407,089	4,471,742	24,633,600	—	50,040,789
1932	27,043,432	6,032,611	26,571,600	—	52,615,032
1933	30,657,632	9,746,995	32,525,600	—	63,183,232
1934	32,145,458	9,516,702	33,208,100	—	65,353,558
1935	32,191,000	—	45,842,000	—	80,034,000
1936 (estimates)	36,201,000	—	61,774,000	—	97,975,000

Iron and Steel Industry

Down to the Meiji Era The art of iron smelting is said to have been known even in prehistoric times in Japan, but no reliable record can be found. The granites found in large quantities in the Chugoku districts, i.e. Okayama, Hiroshima, Tottori, and Shimané prefectures were found to contain a good percentage of magnetite iron from which iron dust was extracted. These places became famous for their iron products and swordsmiths. In the middle of the 19th century, there were as many as 300 smelting works in these districts, but before the Restoration the utility of iron was not well realized and the demand for it was naturally small. Therefore, the iron and steel industry in its modern garb can be said to have begun with the Restoration.

Since the Restoration Early in the Meiji Era, mines were mostly operated by the Government. As the iron and steel industry was considered very important from a military standpoint the Government placed Kamaishi mine in Iwaté prefecture, under its direct management, and established there some smelting works with foreign experts called from abroad. In 1879, two furnaces with capacity of 25 tons each were installed, but, owing to a shortage of raw materials and fuels the enterprise failed.

After the Sino-Japanese War of 1894–1895, the necessity of establishing the iron and steel industry for manufacturing war supplies was very keenly felt, and the Yawata Iron Works was established in 1886. Owing to the increased demand for iron and steel by various expanding industries the Yawata Works were extended in 1906 and again in 1911.

Private iron and steel works have since been established in rapid succession. In 1905, Suzuki Shoten of Kobé established Kobé Seikojo, and in 1907, Nippon Seikojo was established at Muroran with English and Japanese capital. In 1912, Nippon Kokan Kaisha, Ltd., was established, while in Manchuria, Honkeiko Baitetsu Koshi was established in 1910 on joint account of Japan and China.

These iron and steel works expanded tremendously during the World War, and production increased with marvellous rapidity. The 1913 production of pig iron was 240,000 metric tons while the 1918 production had increased to 583,000 tons. During the same period the production of steel increased from 255,000 tons to 537,000 tons. The Mitsubishi Co. established their Iron Works in Kenjiho, Korea, about this time.

Perhaps the iron and steel industry

received a heavier blow than any other from the slump of 1920, a blow that was intensified by the decisions reached at the Disarmament Conference of 1921. The price of pig iron fell from ¥541 per ton, the highest price, in July of 1918 to ¥65 per ton is 1921, steel bars fell from ¥451 to ¥132, and steel sheets from ¥1,285 to 199. Twelve pig iron manufacturing companies, four steel manufacturers and six steel materials manufacturing companies went out of business. Many small companies were amalgamated with or absorbed by bigger ones, until at present the whole iron and steel industry is controlled by a few powerful houses, Mitsui, Mitsubishi, Sumitomo, Okura, Asano and Okawa.

Many new industries were started during the Great War and as they progressed their demand for iron and steel expanded. Production increased to meet this demand and the 1923 output was greater than at any time during the Great War. The industry received blows from the great earthquake of 1923 and the financial panic of 1927, but with the finances of the largest concerns of the country behind it re-adjustments were soon made and as demand increased the industry steadily developed.

Iron and Steel in 1936

During the first half of 1936, there was a strong fear that the iron and steel circles in this country might suffer from an over-supply but the situation changed suddenly during the latter half when a shortage of supply presented itself. Reflecting the supply shortage, the market price of steel materials began to rise in the autumn and a soaring tendency started toward the end of the year. Responsible for the soaring tendency are the pig iron famine, higher prices of scrap iron, decrease in stocks, increase in the demand for iron and steel abroad and speculative buying motivated by the enormous budget estimates.

The increase in consumption and the rise in market prices combined to contribute greatly toward improving the business conditions of iron and steel companies. The quotations of various iron and steel shares also began to mount continuously.

The abnormal rise in the price of iron necessitated the immediate rectification of various defects in the distributing machinery of the iron and steel cirles. On the other hand, the Government exempted iron and steel from the customs duty with a view to smoothing the supply.

The production of iron and steel during 1936 increased remarkably. The production of pig iron increased by 110,000 metric tons and that of steel materials by 55 metric tons.

Rise in Quotations Reflecting the conditions mentioned above, the market prices of steel materials started soaring, as shown in the following table :

QUOTATIONS OF PRINCIPAL STEEL MATERIALS

(In 1936)

	Round Bars (19 mm)	Equals	Plates (medium)	Wires
January	¥ 8.03	¥ 7.93	¥10.17	¥ 84
February	8.27	8.07	10.37	84
March	9.30	9.06	10.93	90
April	9.03	9.33	11.03	92
May	9.07	9.13	10.80	90
June	9.27	9.30	11.23	92
July	9.30	9.27	11.27	94
August	9.23	9.20	11.37	95
September	9.27	9.27	11.87	103
October	9.70	9.63	12.20	102
November	10.43	10.60	13.23	108
December	14.93	15.27	19.83	172

Note: The above figures represent the monthly average of the prices in Tokyo as compiled on the basis of the returns published by the Japan Iron Manufacturing Company, the unit quoted being 100 metric tons for all items except wires which are quoted in units of one metric ton.

Iron and Steel Famine Various factors may be enumerated as responsible for the rapid rise in the prices of steel materials, but the shortage of stocks must be considered as the principal of such factors. Pig iron had long been running short but the shortage of steel materials came to the surprise of the circles concerned which had refrained from purchasing particularly during the first half of 1936 for fear that there might be an over-supply.

In the second place, the rise in the prices of steel materials is attributable to the famine of pig iron. The Japan Iron Manufacturing Company could not satisfy the entire outside demand, partly because of the increase in its own consumption of pig iron. Manchoukuo which had been exporting around 400,000 metric tons of pig iron annually suddenly became unable to continue the usual exports because about half of the exports was demanded by the newly operated Showa Steel Foundry. Dur-

ing 1936, the amount ordered from Manchoukuo was 240,000 tons more than the actual supply.

On the other hand, the imports of scrap iron decreased because the demand in the United States increased due to her business recovery and also because the purchases by European countries increased.

The budget estimates for the 1937–38 fiscal year were reported to rise above the ¥3,000,000,000 level in order to conform to a quasi-war time economic system, and speculative elements presented themselves and the prices of steel materials in this country rose abnormally at the close of 1936 and also during the early part of 1937.

Increased Production The production of iron and steel during 1936 increased although there was a supply shortage which was brought about by the sudden increase in consumption. Accurate figures for the production are as yet unavailable but the production by the principal companies, both in Japan Proper and Chosen, is given by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry as follows :

	1936	1935	Comparison
	(In units of 1,000 metric tons)		
Pig Iron	2,219	2,111	108
Steel Ingots	4,914	4,404	510
Steel Plates	1,366	1,079	287
Tin Plates	138	95	43
Steel Bars	1,604	1,399	205
Rails	290	367	77
Wires	438	408	30
Steel Tubes	184	186	2
Iron Hoops	73	—	—
Others	48	55	7

Note: All figures under the heading of comparison denote increase except those underlined which denote decrease.

The above table shows that almost all items of the iron and steel products increased in 1936 over the output in the preceding year. According to statistics compiled by the Japan Iron Manufacturing Company, the company's production of pig iron during 1936 amounted to 1,330,000 metric tons which represented an increase of 36,000 tons over similar figures for the preceding year, that of steel ingots amounted to 2,210,000 tons representing an increase of 140,000 tons and that of steel materials amounted to 1,777,000 tons representing an increase of 77,000 tons.

Next, it is to be noted that in spite of the increased production of steel materials, the stocks showed a rapid decrease during 1936. Details of the changes in the stocks of steel materials in Tokyo, Osaka and Nagoya are tabulated below :

	December, 1936 (tons)	June, 1936 (tons)	December, 1935 (tons)
Bars	38,768	55,370	62,325
Shapes	40,445	66,979	65,203
Wires	79,213	122,349	127,528
Plates	20,583	24,888	20,001

Particularly noteworthy is the fact that the stocks of steel bars decreased by more than 23,000 tons or 38 per cent in one year. This is attributable to the munitions boom which increased the activities in the building and machinery manufacturing circles that use steel materials in large quantities.

Business Conditions The rapid increase in consumption and the rapid rise in quotations naturally served to improve the business conditions of the iron and steel companies to a great extent during 1936. The satisfactory business conditions may be illustrated by the following figures which cover four leading companies, based on a survey of the Mitsubishi Economics Research Institute.

	Amount	Percentage
For 2nd Term of 1936	¥	
Paid-up Capital	388,321,000	—
Net Profit	30,132,000	15.5
Dividend	13,794,000	7.1
Reserve	16,215,000	54.0
For 2nd Term of 1935		
Paid-up Capital	388,081,000	—
Net Profit	28,278,000	14.6
Dividend	12,018,000	6.2
Reserve	16,192,000	57.0

It is clear from the above table that the net profit of the four companies concerned during the second term of 1936 showed an increase of ¥1,850,000 over similar figures for the corresponding period of the preceding year and the dividend also increased by ¥1,870,000. In this respect, it must be noted that these figures are based on the actual results of the second and third quarters of the year and that in view of the abnormal rise in the quotations of iron and steel which took place afterwards, the results of the fourth quarter must have been still better.

DEMAND AND SUPPLY OF IRON ORES IN JAPAN PROPER

(in metric tons)

Year	Amount produced	Amount imported	Amount imported from Colonies	Amount exported to Colonies	Demand	Percentage of Production to Demand
1928	157,706	1,616,974	225,389	—	2,000,069	8%
1929	177,556	1,944,786	314,134	4,299	2,432,177	7
1930	245,991	1,973,659	278,727	2,466	2,495,911	10
1931	208,181	1,549,919	176,585	5,176	1,929,509	11
1932	226,722	1,482,409	151,603	4,200	1,860,734	12
1933	320,670	1,523,627	255,320	5,600	2,099,617	15
1934 (estimate)	350,000	2,131,916	—	—	—	—
1935	—	3,404.099	—	—	—	—

Pig Iron Pig iron is produced by Nippon Seitetsu Kabushiki Kaisha (Japan Iron Manufacturing Company). Coke is mostly used in its production, the amount produced with charcoal being so small that it is hardly worth mentioning. The amount of production classified according to the mode of production and raw materials from which it is produced is as follows :

Year	From Iron Ore		Reproduced	From Ores	Total
	With Coke	With Charcoal			
1927	884,341	—	10,905	925	896,171
1928	1,077,065	381	14,237	853	1,092,536
1929	1,065,908	2,000	19,138	82	1,087,138
1930	1,136,853	241	24,743	57	1,161,894
1931	896,445	—	20,897	—	917,342
1932	993,447	1,253	15,837	224	1,010,761
1933	1,403,502	—	19,924	463	1,423,889

During the war, Japan had the bitter experience of having her supplies of iron and steel cut off from Great Britain and the United States of America, and in view of this the Nippon (then Yawata) Works has steadily extended its production capacity. The 1930 production was 2.5 times that of 1919.

Japan requires about 1,500,000 tons of pig iron every year. Her own production is not enough to meet this requirement and the shortage is filled by importing from Korea, Manchoukuo and India.

PRODUCTION OF PIG IRON IN JAPAN AND MANCHOUKUO

(in metric tons)

Year	Production in Japan Proper	Production in Korea	Production in Manchoukuo	Total
1928	1,092,536	146,159	284,675	1,523,370
1929	1,087,128	153,627	295,380	1,536,135
1930	1,161,894	349,415	150,524	1,661,833
1931	917,342	147,257	342,270	1,406,869
1932	1,010,761	161,940	368,181	1,540,882
1933	1,423,889	161,163	433,523	2,018,575
1934	1,714,417	175,502	471,715	2,361,634
1935	1,906,787	—	—	2,999,328

DEMAND AND SUPPLY OF PIG IRON IN JAPAN

(in metric tons)

	1931	1932	1933	1934
Production in Japan Proper	917,342	1,010,761	1,423,889	1,714,417
Imports from Ceylon, Manchoukuo and India	494,575	650,380	801,283	786,596
Total supply	1,411,917	1,660,489	2,225,170	2,501,013
Exports to colonies	2,551	652	437	3,344
Demand in the country	1,409,366	1,661,141	2,224,733	2,497,669
Percentage of production to demand	65%	61%	64%	69%

Steel and Steel Materials Steel ingots are produced mostly from pig iron, principally by the open-hearth process. The Bessemer process is sometimes employed by small mills, but the number of mills which use either this or the crucible method is small. Recently the electric process of production has been gaining ground. The amount of steel produced by different methods are shown below.

PRODUCTION OF STEEL INGOTS (in metric tons)

Methond of Production	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Open hearth	2,238,198	2,225,451	1,828,823	2,325,306	3,456,347	3,633,610	4,459,737
Bessemer	1,210	35	—	940	—	—	—
Electric	52,654	62,140	52,765	69,740	137,600	208,790	241,649
Crucible	1,778	1,711	1,537	2,296	2,192	1,120	1,200
Total	2,293,840	2,289,337	1,883,125	2,398,282	3,596,139	3,843,520	4,702,586

PRODUCTION OF STEEL MATERIALS

CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO KINDS (in metric tons)

	1927	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Round bars	460,837	633,841	483,556	467,333	568,446	846,997	778,451	1,015,744
Square ,,	208,001	255,553	250,753	202,509	252,402	331,439	430,321	467,836
Thin plates	349,460	543,948	570,603	560,056	608,893	747,138	910,137	1,102,249
Steel pipes	50,491	78,492	88,336	63,491	95,890	117,287	136,969	166,682
Rails and fish plates	178,561	271,324	289,696	110,338	233,502	271,982	368,199	366,766
Wire rods	54,426	68,471	122,428	176,561	215,250	285,013	347,548	412,600
Black sheet	—	—	—	—	—	35,989	61,161	94,920
Others	33,783	26,048	31,709	21,513	36,724	53,110	63,522	107,994
Total	1,335,559	1,927,677	1,837,081	1,601,800	2,011,107	2,688,955	3,096,308	3,734,791
Wrought Steel materials	25,475	38,450	26,895	16,595	31,917	63,709	71,145	72,030
Cast steel	43,145	49,224	38,661	30,532	42,684	61,043	79,819	100,444
Special steel materials	10,942	18,529	18,429	13,931	27,929	49,448	57,912	72,088
Grand total	1,415,121	2,033,880	1,921,066	1,662,858	2,113,637	2,863,155	3,305,184	3,979,353

The annual requirement of steel materials in Japan is about 2,000,000 tons. Though the production in the country has greatly increased of late a quite appreciable quantity is still imported. The following statistics show how the demand is met.

DEMAND AND SUPPLY OF STEEL MATERIALS (in metric tons)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Production	1,720,489	1,921,066	1,662,858	2,113,637	2,863,155	3,805,184
Amount imported	824,237	437,103	265,548	235,165	409,862	426,658
Total supply	2,545,226	2,358,169	1,928,406	2,348,802	3,273,017	3,731,842
Amount exported	181,944	238,580	203,547	299,867	435,297	254,955
Home consumption	2,363,282	2,124,589	1,724,859	2,048,935	2,837,720	3,476,887
Percentage of production to consumption	73	90	96	103	101	95

Coal Mining

Coal surpasses all other mineral products both in quantity and money value, the 1935 production amounted to 37,726,491 metric tons with an aggregate of ¥270,177,016. Both the output and value for the year were the heaviest for 10 years since 1926. Compared with the 1935 production, the output gained 1,801,502 tons and the value ¥24,321,545.

The year 1935 was the most prosperous year for the coal industry. Details follow :

DEMAND AND SUPPLY OF COAL

(In metric tons)

	1934	1935	1936
Coal actually marketed	35,924,989	37,762,000	41,000,000
Coal imported	3,997,000	4,049,000	4,189,000
Coal stocks at the beginning of	1,226,000	657,000	722,000
Total coal supply	41,147,989	42,468,000	45,911,000
Coal exported	1,070,000	1,019,000	1,112,000
Coal stocks at the end of	678,000	722,000	698,000
Coal demand in Japan Proper	39,399,000	40,727,000	44,101,000

Japan's coal production since 1913 | follows :

(In 1,000 metric tons)

1913	21,315	1921	26,220	1929	34,257
1914	22,293	1922	27,701	1930	31,376
1915	20,490	1923	28,948	1931	27,987
1916	22,910	1924	30,110	1932	28,053
1917	26,361	1925	31,459	1933	32,523
1918	28,029	1926	31,426	1934	35,924
1919	31,271	1927	33,530	1935	37,762
1920	29,245	1928	33,860	1936	41,000

Business results of the coal-mining | companies in recent years were :

	No. of companies	Authorized capital	Reserve fund
1928	105	¥386,413,700	¥26,868,288
1929	100	368,593,200	30,326,664
1930	88	343,913,200	30,975,007
1931	87	365,800,700	30,149,827
1932	88	352,510,700	29,692,489
1933	99	—	31,822,000
1934	113	470,097,200	60,394,926

	Profit	Dividend	Net loss
1928	¥11,711,498	¥ 7,142,008	¥13,011,829
1929	12,706,871	8,568,725	3,093,942
1930	8,351,933	6,449,626	13,212,362
1931	4,424,070	4,183,130	5,654,419
1932	4,674,374	3,826,245	9,514,950
1933	—	—	—
1934	30,716,855	19,847,553	995,199

Coal Deposits No survey of coal resources was undertaken between the years 1911 and 1931, but in the latter year the Mining Bureau of the Department of Commerce and Industry commenced a survey which took 2 years to complete. The results, compared with the 1911 survey, are :

	Investigation in 1932				
	Anthracite Natural Coal	Bituminous Coal	Lignite	Total	%
Amount, already mined	29,888	984,130	6,965	1,020,483	5
Amount, unminable	39,332	991,673	18,859	1,049,864	6
Amount, minable	718,782	15,499,091	473,460	16,671,333	89
Percentage	4%	93%	3%	100%	
Amount minable					
Actual deposits	454,745	5,439,905	65,765	5,960,415	36
Probable deposits	131,944	3,780,975	132,582	4,045,501	24
Possible deposits	132,093	6,278,211	275,113	6,685,417	40

	Investigation in 1911			
	Coal	Lignite	Total	%
Amount, already mined	283,200	—	283,200	3
Amount, unminable	—	—	—	—
Amount, minable	8,792,000	347,570	9,139,450	100
Percentage	86%	4%	100%	
Amount minable				
Actual deposite	822,000	75,770	897,770	10
Probable deposits	2,940,000	205,000	3,145,000	34
Possible deposits	5,030,000	66,700	5,096,700	56

Note: "Amount unminable" indicates the deposits, such as portions between pits, officially prohibited regions and where no pick is allowed.

"Probable deposits" as judged geologically and from conditions of coal seams and which can be presumed as available in future.

"Possible deposits" repressent the deposits imagined to be there and are the most uncertain of all.

Petroleum

Production The home yield of crude oil until about 1916 was approximately 2,600,000 koku, by no means sufficient to satisfy domestic demand. Notwithstanding yearly increase in demand output was unable to keep pace with it so that by 1927 domestic production was only able to satisfy 25% of the home consumption. The percentage has since increased and in 1932 was about 44%.

According to investigations conducted by the Nippon Petroleum Oil Company, the most important producer of crude oil, wells with a daily output of 20 kilolitres (approximately 111 koku) and over numbered no more than the following 7.

Location	Name of Well	Date	Depth	Daily Output during 10 Days after Successful Date
Kashiwazaki	Warimachi Ro Style No. 3	Jan. 6	1,240 metres	24.64 kilolitres
„	Warimachi Ro Style No. 20	Feb. 11	1,246 „	27.13
„	Takamachi Ro Style No. 35	April 2	1,240 „	22.50
„	Takamachi Ro Style No. 36	April 24	1,240 „	34.08
„	Warimachi Ro Style No. 27	May 14	1,255 „	30.45
„	Warimachi Ro Style No. 14	June 11	1,325 „	32.88
„	Warimachi Ro Style No. 36	July 20	1,264 „	60.60

Demand and Supply One of the most conspicuous features in the oil production for the five years, 1931–1935 was the marked increase in the use of foreign crude oil in the manufacture of heavy oil. The amount for 1935 set an all-time record of 11,425,320 hl., far larger than the preceding four years. The supply of the heavy oil manufactured out of home crude oil for 1935 was fairly heavy, second in amount from a previous record of 3,017,310 hl. for 1931. For three years following 1931 the amount was falling, but the 1935 amount gained again, due to a rapid growth of demand at home. The amount of home consumption for 1935 was the heaviest known so far. Below are given detailed figures on the supply and demand of oil:

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF OIL (in hl.)

Classification	Year	Production		Total	Imports
		From Home Oil	Erom Foreign Oil		
Gasolene Oil	1931	799,680	2,134,930	2,934,610	3,997,620
	1932	628,474	3,105,810	2,734,284	4,401,440
	1933	394,737	3,533,429	3,928,166	4,625,860
	1934	349,470	4,436,050	4,785,520	5,505,290
	1935	436,760	5,341,710	5,778,470	5,925,440
Kerosene Oil	1931	209,880	403,870	613,750	635,810

Classification	Year	Production From Home Oil	Production From Foreign Oil	Total	Imports
	1932	244,758	579,299	824,057	700,500
	1933	208,660	589,694	798,354	576,510
	1934	206,700	709,780	916,480	877,780
	1935	296,500	828,600	1,125,100	933,560
Light Oil	1931	889,490	1,033,610	1,923,100	—
	1932	733,672	1,483,508	2,217,180	—
	1933	563,824	1,404,971	1,968,795	—
	1934	663,730	1,332,810	1,996,540	—
	1935	609,270	1,185,160	1,794,430	—
Machine Oil	1931	524,620	1,118,810	1,643,430	376,610
	1932	511,969	1,133,088	1,645,057	353,890
	1933	455,520	1,555,840	2,011,360	241,140
	1934	592,160	1,761,540	2,353,700	389,620
	1935	743,510	1,631,610	2,375,120	425,290
Heavy Oil	1931	593,640	205,310	798,950	11,007,050
	1932	205,354	507,623	712,977	12,996,530
	1933	214,203	1,062,168	1,276,371	13,016,430
	1934	376,020	1,870,990	2,247,010	16,165,550
	1935	853,190	2,438,240	3,291,430	20,959,990
Total	1931	3,017,310	4,896,530	7,913,840	16,017,090
	1932	2,324,227	6,809,328	9,133,555	18,452,360
	1933	1,836,944	8,146,102	9,983,046	18,459,940
	1934	2,188,080	10,111,170	12,299,250	22,938,240
	1935	2,939,230	11,425,320	14,364,550	28,244,280

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF OIL (in hl.)

Classification	Year	Total	Exports	Balance Consumed at Home	Percentage of Production to Demand
Gasolene Oil	1931	6,932,230	—	6,932,230	42.3
	1932	8,135,724	—	8,135,724	45.9
	1933	8,554,026	—	8,554,026	45.9
	1934	10,290,810	—	10,290,810	47.0
	1935	11,703,910	27,180	11,676,730	49.0
Kerosene Oil	1931	1,249,560	33,570	1,215,990	50.5
	1932	1,524,557	120,140	1,404,417	58.7
	1933	1,374,864	51,000	1,323,864	60.3
	1934	1,794,260	44,320	1,749,940	52.0
	1935	2,058,660	110,890	1,947,790	58.0
Light Oil	1931	1,923,100	—	1,923,100	100.0
	1932	2,217,180	—	2,217,180	100.0
	1933	1,968,795	—	1,968,795	100.0
	1934	1,996,540	—	1,996,540	100.0
	1935	1,794,430	—	1,794,430	100.0
Machine Oil	1931	2,020,040	32,060	1,987,980	82.7
	1932	1,998,947	124,850	1,874,097	87.8
	1033	2,252,500	203,960	2,048,540	98.2
	1934	2,743,320	288,640	2,454,680	96.0
	1935	2,800,410	270,540	2,529,870	94.0
Heavy Oil	1931	11,806,000	—	11,806,000	6.8
	1932	13,709,507	—	13,709,507	5.2
	1933	14,292,801	—	14,292,801	8.9
	1934	18,412,560	—	18,412,560	12.0
	1935	24,251,420	—	24,251,142	14.0
Total	1931	23,930,930	65,630	23,865,300	33.2
	1932	27,535,915	244,990	27,340,925	33.4
	1933	28.442,986	254,960	28,188,026	35.4
	1934	35,237,490	332,960	34,904,530	35.0
	1935	42,608,830	408,590	42 200,240	34.0

Artificial Petroleum In view of the necessity of developing artificial petroleum industry as a means of covering the shortage of the resources of natural petroleum in this country, the Government formulated a plan to establish a company with a capital of ¥100,000,000 to take charge of the task.

At present, the annual consumption of petroleum in this country amounts to approximately 3,000,000 metric tons, not including the demand of the Imperial Navy. As the domestic production still remains in the neighbourhood of 300,000 metric tons, the nation has to look for 90 per cent of its demand in foreign petroleum, mainly supplied by British and American oil interests. The policy for the compulsory storage of a fixed amount of oil by foreign oil concerns in the country is merely a negative meaure like the policy for economizing petroleum.

Compelled by the present extraordinary international situation to take positive measures, the Government has resolved to establish the artificial petroleum industry by three methods comprising technical assistance, financial assistance through government investments, and encouragement for products.

The Fuel Research Institute of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, which is located at Kawaguchi City in Saitama Prefecture, has succeeded in its experiments aiming to transfer from the laboratory to the plant the manufacturing of artificial petroleum by the three processes of low temperature, dry distillation, direct liquefaction and synthesization of oils. This success has led to the decision to establish a model State-managed plant in the Hokkaido at a cost of some ¥20,000,000 as an enterprise spreading over a period of three years beginning with the 1937–38 fiscal year.

Unlike the private enterprises which have already been placed on industrial basis, the enterprise of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, which is undertaken through the creation of a new department in the Fuel Research Institute, will be featured by an attempt to lower the production cost through rationally employing the aforementioned three processes. The minimum amount of annual production required for placing the enterprise on industrial basis is estimated at 20,000 tons. When this State enterprise proves successful, additional plants on the same scale are expected to be established in other suitable places.

It is to be noted that in undertaking to embark upon the enterprise, the Government also aims at the training of technicians to be charged with the task of guiding the private enterprises. In other words, the new department of the Fuel Research Institute will play the role of a pilot of new enterprises.

The organization of a ¥100,000,000 investment company as a semi-official concern was decided upon in view of the necessity of the Government extending financial aid to the industrialists for embarking upon the enterprises of national importance. According to the tentative plan, the new company will be called the Imperial Fuel Company and will aim at the annual production of 2,000,000 tons of artificial petroleum, including 1,000,000 tons of volatile oil and 1,000,000 tons of heavy oil.

This aim is to be attained through the execution of a seven-year programme. For this purpose, the Government has decided to authorize the new company to issue debentures to a total amount three times that of its capital (or five times in case the capital fails to reach ¥100,000,000 due to a curtailment of the budget estimates). In order to encourage private investments, it was also decided to gurantee a dividend of 3.5 per cent during the first three years and of 5 per cent later on for the private shares of the company, with the government shares receiving no dividend in case the profits of the company do not amount to 5 per cent.

With a view to the sound development of the artificial petroleum industry, the Government has decided to enforce a control through the adoption of the licensing system for the industry. Not only the enterprises to be launched in the future but the already commenced enterprises also are required to obtain the license so that they may enjoy the privilege of securing the investments of the semi-official investment company referred to above. It is estimated that all the enterprises will involve a huge sum of ¥700,000,000 upon the completion of the six-year programme, comprising ¥400,000,000 in the investments of the semi-official concern, ¥200,000,000 in the investments of enterprisers and ¥100,000,000 in the expenses for 10,000,000 tons of coal liquefaction to produce 2,000,000 tons of artificial petroleum.

The production costs of artificial petroleum products are estimated to average ¥0.8 per gallon under the existing circumstances while the present quotation of gasolene is ¥0.51. Through the imposition of a gasolene tax as well as the raising of the tariffs, the Govern-

ment expects to advance the prices of petroleum by about ¥0.10 per gallon. This, however, would still leave a margin of around ¥0.20 between the production cost and market price and accordingly, the Government plans to adopt a compensation system.

Producers and Operatives

Companies engaged in mining industry were as follows:

Year	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserve	Net Profit	Dividend	Net Loss
		¥	¥	¥	¥	¥
1926	349	1,086,931,420	122,146,216	36,601,718	18,348,148	9,122,589
1927	363	1,096,506,935	121,941,624	41,842,808	29,969,452	18,180,059
1928	371	1,005,230,192	131,375,307	44,281,532	30,562,085	18,457,887
1929	394	1,060,690,693	116,771,370	57,316,880	34,158,513	19,019,463
1930	376	954,242,273	100,696,580	30,339,837	22,930,041	23,112,090
1931	383	961,868,883	97,793,798	19,027,144	15,651,820	15,857,406
1932	389	951,969,923	96,981,747	26.812,546	19,093,927	12,647,560
1933	427	975,954,664	96,736,497	50,605,374	31,914,230	5,509,475
1934	515	1,066,996,905	120,127,123	76,317,610	49,989,059	2,228,960
1935	611	1,269,098,458	141,984,183	98,089,442	63,862,501	3,250,888

MINING COMPANIES BY KINDS IN 1934

(Prepared by the Department of Commerce and Industry)

Kind of Mining	Number	Amount Invested and Authorized Capital	Reserves	Profits (in yen)	Dividend	Net Loss
Metal	208	549,727,909	46,505,382	49,212,516	32,043,650	1,504,720
Coal	130	519,530,800	67,691,220	39,929,465	25,624,419	1,240,305
Petroleum	20	152,225,000	24,424,920	6,029,500	4,027,000	40,236
Others	24	19,496,400	2,628,400	2,353,172	1,738,500	128,833
Stone	229	28,118,349	734,261	564,789	428,932	336,794
Total	611	1,269,098,458	141,984,183	98,089,442	63,862,501	3,250,888

NUMBER OF OPERATIVES ENGAGED IN MINING

At the end of June	Under 16 years			16-50 years		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1929	2,870	1,085	3,955	215,895	51,934	267,829
1930	2,224	879	3,103	200,687	41,114	241,801
1931	1,045	382	1,427	167,869	24,551	192,420
1932	759	293	1,052	158,635	19,991	178,626
1933	950	339	1,289	174,021	20,358	194,379
1934	1,197	375	1,572	204,484	22,927	227,411
1935	1,521	433	1,954	222,988	24,176	247,164

	Over 50 years			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1929	13,095	2,085	15,180	231,860	55,104	286,964
1930	11,925	1,640	13,565	214,836	43,633	258,469
1931	7,458	1,050	8,508	176,472	25,983	202,985
1932	5,515	647	6,162	164,909	20,931	185,840
1933	5,969	683	6,652	180,940	21,380	202,320
1934	6,670	694	7,374	212,351	23,996	236,347
1935	7,517	780	8,297	232,026	257,415	25,389

CHAPTER XVIII

THE TEXTILE INDUSTRY

Introduction

The use of foreign-style machinery in Japan began in the Meiji Era, when cotton spinning equipment was imported from Europe and the United States. After that time the spinning industry gradually developed along modern lines, a development that was extended to weaving as well. The total capital invested in the Japanese textile industry amounts to ¥1,355,370,847, giving employment to 1,066,794 workers in 25,562 factories which corresponds to 42.5 per cent of the total industrial operatives in Japan. The products of spinning and weaving of all kinds account for 30.9 per cent of Japan's industrial production. The total production of textiles in Japan for 1935 was ¥3,352,564,198, gaining ¥185,000,000 over 1934. Of this, the production of cotton yarns headed the list with ¥877,043,443 against ¥895,884,636 in 1934, followed by cotton fabrics ¥641,-148,071 against ¥607,032,344 in 1934; raw silk ¥484,586,816 against ¥407,686,233 of 1934; silk fabrics ¥237,512,527 against ¥222,300,695 in 1934; wool, wool-cotton and other mixtures ¥200,799,657 against ¥183,071,439 in 1934; and knitgoods ¥74,-448,405 against ¥76,981,374 in 1934. The year 1935 marked the pinnacle of Japan's fibre industry.

The fact that it has developed to this point is in large measure due to the adaptability of the Japanese people to this special type of industry, an abundant supply of labour, favourable climatic conditions, brisk domestic consumption of cotton yarn, the propinquity to large foreign markets, the constant efforts of manufacturers, and the protective policy of the Government. The Government and private firms have co-operated in furthering technical improvement by the rationalization of production by large mills and by production control and improvement in the quality of products through the organization into industrial guilds of the smaller mills. There were, in 1935, 180 such guilds throughout the country. This development and co-operation enable Japanese mills to supply the world's markets with goods of excellent quality at reasonable prices.

According to the new factory law of 1926, the employment of minors and women during night hours was prohibited after July 1, 1929. As a result, workers are now divided into two shifts, each of 8½ hours, which means a 15 per cent reduction in the operating hours as compared with the old system. In order to make good this loss the cotton spinning factories have been trying to increase efficiency in other ways. Two methods have been adopted. One is to improve the technical factors of operation, and the other is to improve the workers by giving them better training, and the result has been larger individual output and the replacing of lower by higher quality goods.

Statistics The number of operatives, mills, etc. for almost all kinds of textile industry in 1935 show an increase over those of 1934, indicating that the industry as a whole was very prosperous in that year. The following table shows these figures :

NUMBERS OF OPERATIVES, MILLS, ETC. IN TEXTILE INDUSTRY IN 1935 AS COMPARED WITH THOSE IN 1934

Kind of Industry	No. of Mills		No. of Mills using Motors		No. of Officials		No. of Technician	
	1934	1935	1934	1935	1934	1935	1934	1935
Silk reeling	3,188	2,926	2,993	2,764	5,555	5,418	5,379	5,666
Cotton spinning	560	593	558	590	3,496	3,779	2,848	3,070
Twisting	1,358	1,586	1,320	1,559	413	494	261	346
Weaving	13,465	14,388	12,557	13,500	6,011	6,632	4,595	5,001
Hosiery	1,575	1,635	1,346	1,411	861	914	494	534
Dyeing, refining, bleaching, assorting	2,966	3,145	2,197	2,409	3,234	3,633	2,283	2,538
Miscellaneous	1,287	1,289	1,156	1,176	808	926	381	468
Total	24,399	25,562	22,127	13,409	20,378	21,796	16,241	17,623

Kind of Industry	No. of Operatives Male		Female		Others		Total	
	1934	1935	1934	1935	1934	1935	1934	1935
Silk reeling	21,630	22,095	258,878	255,063	4,993	4,929	296,435	293,174
Cotton spinning	33,987	34,433	200,073	205,725	7,068	7,730	247,472	254,737
Twisting	4,638	5,454	15,316	17,721	278	276	20,906	24,291
Weaving	58,087	62,653	270,145	291,614	4,950	4,921	343,788	370,821
Hosiery	8,535	9,057	14,593	15,051	310	322	24,793	25,878
Dyeing, refining, bleaching, assorting	51,288	53,509	10,089	11,965	1,796	2,107	68,690	73,752
Miscellaneous	6,640	6,665	15,421	15,695	370	387	23,620	24,141
Total	184,805	193,866	784,515	812,837	19,765	20,672	1,025,704	1,066,794

Cotton Spinning

The Year 1936 The cotton industry in this country during the latter half of the first term of 1936 and the early part of the second term was in a considerably depressed condition, not in relation to quotations but in the matter of profit. In order to cope with the situation the spinners put restrictions on the increase of spindles and at the same time strictly enforced curtailment of their operation.

This method of adjusting production began to show results in the middle of the second term of the year. It was employed in anticipation of a decrease in exports of cotton goods but the result was just the contrary, for exports mounted. This brought about a scarcity of cotton yarn which was felt especially keenly towards the end of the year when quotations recorded an abnormal rise.

The higher quotations of cotton goods continued into 1937, but though they have by now declined to a considerable extent the firm tone still continues and present conditions are such that optimism may be entertained over future prospects.

The conditions of the producing companies during 1936 were excellent both in the first and second terms. There are indications that many of those companies are considering an increase in their dividend to shareholders along with calls on outstanding shares and increases in capitalization. It is still impossible to predict that such measures will be realized during the course of 1937 but there is a possibility of their realization in the first term of 1938.

Prices of Raw Cotton The American raw cotton market, which was featureless during the first term of 1936, showed a firm tone with the advent of the second term. For a time between August and September the tone weakened, but the scarcity of goods felt after October brought about a rising tendency in spot quotations, and this, coupled with the general business boom, caused a definite improvement in the market which continued into 1937.

American raw cotton quotations in Japan began to mount in November due to the feeling of a scarcity of cotton yarn, thus occurring independently of the conditions in the American market.

Prices of Cotton Yarn Needless to say, the prices of cotton yarn vary according to the quotations of raw cotton. Like the raw cotton market, the market of cotton yarn was in a normal tone throughout the first term of 1936, when quotations fluctuated around ¥193 with a margin of ¥35. With the advent of the second term, however, prices commenced to show a firm tone, and it was seldom that quotations broke below ¥200. In the middle of October, quotations rose to ¥225–¥226 and in November the ¥240 mark was reached until finally the ¥260 level was passed toward the end of the year. This occurred in the case of current month contracts.

A salient feature in the quotations of long futures during the second term of 1936 was that prices were lower than for the near months on account of the shortage of cotton yarn which became all the more conspicuous toward the end of the year.

Demand and Supply of Cotton Yarn Throughout 1936, a curtailment of operation was continued at the high rate of 26.2 per cent. Although this was in clear contradiction to the shortage of goods, it could not be avoided because of the various contracts and agreements reached between the producing companies, brokers and other circles concerned. The increase in production of cotton yarn ranged from 250,000 to 370,000 bales annually in increasing amounts during the three years beginning with 1932, but the increasing tendency suddenly slackened during 1935, when a gain of only 90,000 bales over the figures for

the preceding year and of 47,000 bales over the figures for 1933 were recorded.

On the other hand, the exports of cotton yarn increased by 165,000 bales in 1935 and by 87,000 bales in 1936. When compared with the increases in 1932 and 1934, they were not very considerable, but the increasing rate was still higher than that of production.

While exports have increased, the domestic consumption of cotton yarn has gradually decreased in recent years, probably because of competition from the rapidly increasing rayon and staple fibre industries, and change in taste of the Japanese people.

Exports of Cotton Cloth Exports of cotton cloth during 1936 amounted to 2,709,000,000 square yards, showing a decrease of 16,000,000 square yards from the figures for the preceding year. Although the decrease in quantity was very slight, the substance of the exports during 1936 gives an unsatisfactory impression because the exports to the old markets, British India, the Dutch Indies, Egypt, Australia, the Philippines, Iraq, Argentine and Colombia declined in all cases. The decrease was barely made up for by the increase in the exports to Manchoukuo and the Kwantung Leased Territory.

The decrease in exports to the old markets is attributable to the various restrictions imposed on Japanese goods by these countries .

Prospects in 1937 The cotton situation is now stabilized on the strength of the adjustment of production through the restriction of expansion of productive facilities and the curtailment of operation. Under the present system, increased spindles cannot be operated at full capacity within three years of their installation. As a result, an increase in spindles is practically checked. In this connection, it is to be noted that a satisfactory adjustment of production has been impossible in the past because of the absence of restriction on the increase in spindles. Under these circumstances, the cotton situation is expected to continue stable.

As regards exports, it is expected that the level of 1936 will be maintained in 1937, while domestic consumption is expected to considerably increase. In case the demand should fail to increase as anticipated, further steps for adjusting production are likely to be taken, and the condition of the cotton industry will in all probability continue satisfactory.

SPINNERS' CAPITAL AND EQUIPMENT

At the end of	Cos.	Paid Cap. (000s)	Reserves (000s)	Mills	Ring Spindles	Mule Spindles	Doubling Spindles	Looms
1915	41	86,012	38,663	161	2,754,124	53,390	355,313	30,068
1916	40	99,642	48,952	161	2,825,944	49,960	370,681	31,295
1917	43	115,623	70,037	170	3,008,568	51,910	383,458	36,181
1918	43	138,495	92,426	177	3,175,768	51,910	384,872	40,391
1919	54	165,758	139,074	190	3,435,932	52,330	410,690	44,401
1920	56	276,536	165,697	198	3,761,250	52,330	466,460	50,583
1921	61	295,648	182,041	217	4,116,616	44,510	533,384	54,994
1922	64	317,148	202,774	235	4,472,112	45,500	602,032	60,765
1923	70	376,273	217,408	241	4,422,428	14,370	510,031	64,460
1924	69	398,163	219,043	247	5,100,056	25,150	685,995	68,579
1925	64	382,715	223,531	243	5,413,094	34,090	759,632	73,381
1926	64	391,305	231,149	247	5,644,772	35,080	789,688	77,043
1927	64	391,551	233,367	257	6,079,272	36,994	787,490	78,352
1928	70	419,792	249,679	259	6,425,500	41,674	804,520	81,209
1929	70	429,415	259,757	258	6,795,502	41,014	808,324	77,898
1930	74	425,346	252,095	263	7,171,527	42,474	803,094	79,466
1931	72	398,855	240,828	263	7,498,152	36,994	801,594	77,782
1932	71	397,675	245,940	265	7,929,530	35,320	810,492	79,277
1933	69	403,899	255,398	268	8,608,608	35,320	842,808	86,343
1934	61	438,573	273,315	275	9,495,254	35,320	868,440	91,146
1935	74	440,255	276,898	276	10,197,124	35,320	868,304	89,325
1936(June)	75	455,640	278,307	285	10,989,900	—	—	98,000

Note: In 1923 and in the years following, all figures include spinners not members of the Japan Cotton Spinners' Association. It must be noted that the looms include only those which are owned by spinners, not embracing those in mills which have no spinning equipment.

Source: The report of the Japan Cotton Spinners' Association.

RAW COTTON IMPORTS

(Compiled by the Finance Ministry)

(In piculs and ¥1,000)

	1934		1935		1936	
	Volume	Value	Volume	Value	Volume	Value
U. S. A.	6,486,731	400,919	5,758,430	371,952	5,928,746	372,415
British India	5,792,383	252,435	5,211,039	259,037	6,716,944	315,061
Egypt	549,551	39,787	536,917	43,009	445,463	36,415
China	330,644	15,693	427,410	20,705	463,944	22,778
Others	395,543	22,590	349,943	19,555	1,646,071	103,782
Total	13,554,852	731,424	12,283,739	714,262	15,211,168	350,452

CONSUMPTION OF COTTON

(Compiled by the Japan Cotton Spinners' Association)

(In kilogrammes)

	Indian	American	Chinese	Egyptian	African
1923	293,759,329	133,390,616	11,626,586	9,963,244	—
1924	253,786,155	126,988,661	26,499,803	11,771,141	4,508,145
1925	288,139,808	171,020,929	21,257,723	11,770,616	3,847,395
1926	299,095,073	218,908,958	8,980,391	13,690,931	5,909,891
1927	248,207,074	252,941,265	7,128,701	14,012,775	3,723,784
1928	231,727,684	232,100,809	27,636,750	12,748,245	3,989,411
1929	291,836,453	256,534,391	13,156,298	13,905,904	5,572,560
1930	284,672,288	212,634,672	5,190,675	11,585,719	4,162,196
1931	263,497,489	255,348,623	1,179,784	14,721,146	1,132,088
1932	150,411,008	412,251,821	920,678	16,970,179	74,254
1933	209,200,192	394,741,935	3,563,944	18,438,758	5,023,702
1934	276,035,861	388,724,040	5,173,796	24,023,621	8,429,535

(In piculs)

1935	5,088,775	6,341,538	32,992	513,186	66,647
1936	5,467,371	5,209,641	159,670	478,053	283,951

	Annamese	Chosenese	Others	Total
1923	1,133,771	5,424,405	3,568,234	458,866,185
1924	657,799	9,199,661	2,644,800	436,056,165
1925	1,225,313	8,581,939	4,401,705	510,245,426
1926	455,123	5,630,824	3,943,530	556,614,720
1927	1,331,385	4,395,866	3,363,323	535,104,173
1928	754,478	5,013,551	3,206,689	517,177,616
1929	259,620	6,747,870	3,293,085	591,306,180
1930	876,334	9,194,138	2,871,536	531,187,558
1931	552,548	6,389,591	2,194,039	545,015,308
1932	218,708	2,292,566	3,259,450	586,398,664
1933	260,933	7,556,580	4,909,466	643,695,510
1934	583,740	7,306,260	10,634,134	720,910,987

(In piculs)

			Iranian	Persian	Perniran	Brozilian	Miscellaneous	Total
1935	2,168	167,619	18,914	24,358	60,837	7,576	96,838	12,520,056
1936	2,529	231,676	22,969	8,029	99,934	374,883	210,536	12,670,325

PRODUCTION, CONSUMPTION, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF COTTON YARNS SINCE 1932

(In bales)

Year	Domestic output	Imports	Exports	Exported as Cotton tissues	Domestic Consumption
1932	2,810,437.0	28,586	89,604	1,437,540	1,301,877
1933	3,099,856.0	58,966	48,307	1,491,656	1,632,994
1934	3,462,442.5	54,517	64,844	1,866,542	1,585,799
1935	3,559,051.0	17,514	95,583	1,940,400	1,545,425
1936	3,607,196.0	14,119	110,833	1,921,920	1,591,162

PRODUCTION OF COTTON YARN IN 1936

(Compiled by the Japan Cotton Spinners' Association)

	Total No. of Looms	Working Looms	Rate of Resting Looms	Consumption of Raw Cotton (In Kan)	Production of Cotton Yarn (In bales)	Operatives Male	Operatives Female
January	10,296,528	8,137,277	26.2	15,703,434	281,565.5	18,168	126,620
February	10,345,528	8,192,876	26.2	16,344,044	295,402.0	18,077	126,399
March	10,397,704	8,235,838	26.6	16,395,321	293,818.5	17,909	127,808
April	10,440,348	8,258,535	26.2	16,858,762	303,850.5	17,846	132,653
May	10,494,304	8,382,596	26.2	16,852,751	303,981.0	17,918	136,520
June	10,519,980	8,508,406	26.2	17,492,032	308,585.5	18,020	137,679
July	10,688,708	8,409,607	26.2	16,471,037	294,562.0	17,791	135,465
August	10,701,548	8,406,601	26.2	16,383,015	291,787.5	17,811	132,781
September	10,738,840	8,327,445	26.2	16,283,742	290,433.5	17,673	133,263
October	10,861,708	8,424,128	26.2	16,705,686	298,387.5	17,811	133,272
November	10,991,660	8,633,349	26.2	17,938,031	318,438.5	17,947	134,572
December	11,192,072	8,787,633	26.2	18,424,395	326,646.5	18,427	137,971
Monthly Average	10,639,077	8,392,858	26.2	16,821,021	300,621.5	17,950	132,917
Monthly Average in 1935	9,736,087	8,197,422	18.25	16,591,612	296,736.0	18,640	133,899

Cotton Textiles

It may be safely said that to-day the Japanese cotton spinning industry is practically occupied in the manufacture of cotton textiles, and, therefore, the rise or fall of the industry depends on the growth or decline in the export of these textiles.

There are 71 members in the Japan Cotton Spinners' Association. This organization also reports on the yarn output of outsiders, which among them have but a few mills. These are all spinners, but some of them also weave. Less than a third of the cotton yarn consumed in this country is taken by the spinning mills in their cloth production, the balance goes to hundred of little weaving plants, scattered all over the country. Some of them are one-loom sheds, worked by a family as a household industry. The following table shows the output of cotton textiles by the member companies of the Japan Cotton Spinners' Association.

COTTON CLOTH PRODUCTION DATA IN MEMBER MILLS

Terms	Working Looms	Output Yards (000s)	Yds. per Day per Loom	Yarn Used Pounds (000s)	Waste Pounds (000s)	Operatives Men	Operatives Women
1930a	67,571	578,907	62.97	160,941	1,553	8,186	31,810
1930b	62,767	629,516	57.08	135,651	1,239	6,607	24,103
1931a	63,817	682,557	62.01	146,313	1,360	5,988	23,047
1931b	64,967	722,111	62.88	154,919	1,380	5,636	23,000
1932a	66,725	749,279	64.74	159,417	1,447	5,425	23,797
1932b	69,332	783,572	63.16	166,491	1,491	5,334	26,234
1933a	74,835	840,462	64.80	184,201	1,593	5,301	28,876
1933b	73,098	833,419	65.50	178,100	1,558	5,291	29,150
1934a	78,850	877,820	65.37	189,329	1,625	5,207	30,319
1934b	80,410	916,025	64.66	195,631	1,703	5,282	31,099
1935a	82,515	943,578	65.05	200,736	1,726	5,141	32,718
1935b	82,279	899,893	61.36	191,905	1,802	4,909	31,608
1936	85,973	1,802,400	—	—	—	4,788	33,671

VALUE OF COTTON CLOTH PRODUCTION IN JAPAN PROPER

(Prepared by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	Value (In ¥1,000)	Year	Value (In ¥1,000)
1925	774,372	1927	725,419
1926	743,315	1928	784,634

Year	Value (In ¥1,000)	Year	Value (In ¥1,000)
1929	736,534	1934	816,361
1930	498,021	1935	875,793
1931	423,023		
1932	531,915		
1933	704,893		

Note: Figures include production by small factories which employ less than 5 persons.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF COTTON CLOTH

	Production			Consumption	
	Total Production (Broad Weaves)	Production by Spinning Companies (In 1,000 yards)	Production in Weaving Districts	Exports (In 1,000 sq. yards)	Home Consumption (In 1,000 yards)
1929	2,647,524	1,538,249	1,109,275	1,790,560	856,964
1930	2,615,411	1,388,423	1,226,988	1,571,825	1,043,586
1931	2,840,161	1,404,668	1,435,493	1,413,780	1,426,381
1932	3,100,130	1,532,850	1,567,280	2,031,722	1,068,408
1933	3,610,577	1,713,878	1,896,699	2,090,228	1,522,138
1934	4,057,979	1,793,843	2,264,136	2,568,168	1,606,079
1935	4,112,111	1,843,471	2,268,640	2,711,352	1,400,759
1936	3,973,479	1,799,033	1,780,972	2,705,083	1,269,692

EXPORTS OF COTTON CLOTH

(In 1,000 sq. yards)

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Manchoukuo	8,971	91,911	170,430	161,283	223,775
China	193,623	113,248	59,443	56,046	37,329
Kwantung	88,838	86,921	83,529	68,087	127,097
Hong-Kong	23,406	28,692	36,292	49,384	479,676
British India	644,685	451,791	451,640	561,510	48,208
Straits Settlements	82,228	95,769	90,989	47,359	351,718
Dutch East Indies	352,234	422,755	440,870	372,242	44,314
Philippines	21,410	34,918	75,709	87,481	72,186
Siam	24,458	39,826	60,555	70,012	26,521
Turkey	41,529	11,157	7,835	19,480	73,444
U. S. A.	1,646	7,485	17,370	48,336	32,845
Chile	1,263	6,534	31,737	26,838	82,169
Argentine	22,461	34,942	66,365	103,377	10,938
Uruguay	396	2,611	9,559	4,664	
Egypt	195,435	210,349	233,686	163,737	
Union of South Africa	36,316	26,101	16,173	26,239	29,713
Australia	35,992	54,999	74,547	86,634	20,059
New Zealand	1,238	2,622	2,835	5,446	12,287
Hawaii	1,152	931	903	1,205	1,775
Others and Total	2,031,722	2,090,230	2,577,237	2,725,109	2,709,884
Value (¥1,000)	288,713	383,215	492,351	496,097	483,592

The Past, Present and Future of the Cotton Piece-goods Trade

The cotton piece-goods trade of Japan has recently made great development. In 1935 exports of the cotton textiles reached 2,725,000,000 square yards, which, as compared with 1,412,000,000 square yards in 1931, that is to say, in the short space of 4 years exports had practically doubled. Great Britain once made a world record of 7,000,000,000 square yards, yet, in 1935 she exported only 1,949,000,000 square yards. Japan has now come to the point, however, when she is beginning to complain of the want of export markets for cotton goods.

Japanese exports in general have increased, the total value for 1936 reached ¥2,641,488,000, an increase of ¥181,175,000 (7.3%) as compared with 1935, but the value of cotton goods exported in that year shrank by the large sum

previous year. This sharp decline in exports was caused not by any circumstances in this country, but by the lack of free markets abroad.

The markets to which Japanese cotton piece-goods are exported number 130 of which about 80 are restricting their importation through discriminatory tariffs or quotas. The remaining 50 are left free, but they are very small markets and the opportunity to push Japanese goods is limited. These circumstances, then, are a cause of a profound anxiety to those who have the future of the cotton piece-goods trade of Japan in their hands.

In the past the cotton-goods industry has been faced with many difficulties, and each time pessimistic views have been entertained as to its future; but in each case the problem has been solved and the industry has come to its present stage of prosperity through steadiness and persistence. In view of past experiences some hold that the industry will again overcome its difficulties and look upon the situation in a comparatively easy frame of mind. However, the tense international situation in recent years is such as to have made Great Britain abandon her traditional policy of free trade, and one should not, therefore, be unduly optimistic.

The history of the Japanese cotton industry begins somewhere about 1850, and by 1895, the time of the Sino-Japanese War self-sufficiency in cotton-goods was attained. Prior to that the country was an importer of cotton-goods.

The kinds of goods manufactured were simple and were mostly the coarser sorts of cotton piece-goods. But during the Great War the Japanese cotton goods industry made great progress through Britain being so occupied in war production that Japan stepped into the world as a powerful cotton-goods exporting country.

Just prior to the Great War, namely in 1913, Great Britain's exports amounted to 7,075,000,000 yards of cotton piece-goods and 527,000 bales of cotton yarn, while Japan exported 300,000,000 yards of cotton piece-goods and 468,000 bales of cotton yarn, but with the coming of the War the exports of British cotton-goods began suddenly to decline, while Japan's exports increased just as suddenly. During the closing years of the War the exports of Japanese cotton piece-goods amounted to 800,000,000 yards. But prosperity did not last long. The great economic crisis of 1920 gave a severe blow to the industry, and for a time there was a great deal of pessimism as to its future.

At that time from 70 to 80 per cent of the exports of Japanese cotton goods went to China. But the Great War also acted as a stimulant to the Chinese cotton-goods industry, and since the Japanese goods depended too much upon the Chinese market, where the quality of the goods was of such a character as to be readily replaceable by China-made goods, it was quite natural that the rise of the Chinese cotton goods industry should cause Japanese exports fall. Moreover, the boycotting of Japanese goods and the return of British goods into the market with the cessation of the War made the Japanese cotton-goods trade extremely difficult.

Unfortunately conditions in China went from bad to worse. The periodic obstinate exclusions of Japanese goods, the raising of the tariff, and the development of the Chinese cotton-goods industry made great inroads into the Japanese export trade and compelled Japan to develop markets in British India and other countries to make up for the loss in China.

When night work was abolished through international agreement, the industry had to make tremendous efforts to prevent the lowering of production and the raising of production costs. During the depression of 1930 and 1931 the industry was forced into a most difficult position because of the higher yen exchange through the raising of the gold embargo. Fortunately, however, the industry was able to overcome these difficulties, through the rationalization of management and increased efforts to secure further overseas markets.

The expansion of the Japanese cotton-goods trade after 1932 has been partly due to the low yen exchange, but efforts to reduce the cost of production on the one hand and obtain new markets on the other have borne fruit.

The table given below shows the percentage of exports of cotton textiles classified according to their destinations, and shows in what way the country's cotton-goods trade moved.

PERCENTAGE OF EXPORTS OF COTTON TEXTILES ACCORDING TO DESTINATIONS

	1928	1931	1933	1935
Total exports (In 1,000 sq. yards)	1,418,435	1,412,071	2,088,383	2,715,980
China	26.16	15.46	5.42	2.06
Manchoukuo	15.13	4.17	8.52	8.18
Hong-Kong	4.89	4.48	1.37	1.82
Siam	0.45	0.41	1.90	2.62
Philippines	2.18	2.38	1.67	3.20
Dutch East Indies	12.22	15.05	20.23	13.62
Straits Settlements	1.08	2.93	4.61	1.62
Australia	0.73	1.51	2.74	3.19
British India	25.17	28.61	21.60	20.55
Africa	7.57	15.94	20.26	17.51
South America	1.17	1.17	2.75	7.29
Others	3.25	7.89	8.93	18.31

Freedom of trade has now practically disappeared and not only has it become difficult for Japan to find new markets, but the maintenance of her present position in the old markets has become difficult. Even with a low cost of production a further expansion of the cotton-goods trade can hardly be expected unless some fresh outlet is found for the goods produced. There is a limit to the size of the world's markets, and these are gradually being narrowed by new economic blocs, restrictions of imports, reciprocal trade agreements and the like. As many as eighty countries are restricting imports of Japan's cotton-goods by discriminatory tariffs or quotas, and Great Britain and her colonies are the ones which are most openly and effectively bringing pressure upon her goods.

Besides Great Britain, not a few other countries are restricting imports of Japanese cotton-goods by reciprocal or barter agreements, which do not always work in farvour of Japan.

In 1935, Japan's total imports (including those of Saghalien) amounted to ¥2,472,000,000 while exports reached ¥2,499,000,000 leaving an excess of exports valued at ¥27,000,000. Twenty-five countries sold to Japan more than they bought, the excess of imports from them amounted to ¥740,000,000, 80 per cent of which was divided between the four countries of the United States of America, Canada, Australia and Germany. To the rest of the countries Japan sold more than she bought.

The effect of trade restrictions is acute and gives a direct and immediate blow to Japanese exports and imports, but in addition, one thing that cannot be over-looked for the future is the development of the cotton-goods industry in other countries less advanced, together with the rise of artificial-fibre industries the world-over.

The consumption of cotton in the world at present is 27,000,000 bales which, as compared with the pre-war figures of 20,000,000 bales shows an increase of more than 30 per cent in about twenty years. During these years the amount of trade in cotton-goods has decreased inversely, through the productive capacity of many countries approaching self-sufficiency. This tendency will probably increase, and before long we shall probably find China and India competing for the few then existing markets.

The world production of artificial fibres expressed in terms of piece-goods, reaches the large amount of about 6,000,000,000 square yards (of which Japan's share is about 1,400,000,000 square yards). The fact that it has made such an advance within the short space of fifteen years is in itself marvellous, but the consequences are of paramount importance. Of course the world demand for textiles increases every year in accordance with the increase in population and the rise in the standard of living. During the twenty years ending with 1930 the production of textiles increased at the average rate of 100,000,000 lbs a year. On the other hand the average increase in the production of artificial fibres in the last five years was 120,000,000 lbs per year, while that in 1936 reached the stupendous amount of 250,000,000 lbs.

The cotton-goods trade is thus hard pressed by the development of the cotton-goods industry in the less advanced countries and the rise of the artificial fibre industries at home and abroad. It appears then that salvation will probably have to be sought in qualitative

exports rather than quantitative, the production of the cheaper lines being left to the new and unskilled entrants to the trade.

Silk Textile Industry

Silk Weaving Districts As early as the days of the Emperor Suinin, about 1,960 years ago, weaving was already carried on, on a fairly large scale, under encouragement of the Imperial Court. During the Yedo Age the weaving industry made marked development as one of the most important domestic industries. The Ryomo district, which is one of the chief weaving districts for silk textiles for domestic use, has been known as a very prosperous weaving centre for centuries. This district is in Gumma and Tochigi prefectures and includes great weaving centres such as Ashikaga, Kiryu, Isézaki, Sano and Tatebayashi. The district may be likened to Paterson, New Jersey, U.S.A.

Another important weaving district is Fukui, followed by Kyoto, Ishikawa, Niigata and Tokyo in the order named. Among silk weaves of Japanese manufacture habutaé, taffeta, popline, chiffon, pongee, fuji silk, crêpe, etc, are well-known abroad. In addition to these, however, there are many varieties, which are used by the Japanese at home, but these weaves are generally of narrow width, omeshi, ro, sha, meisen, nishijin, etc.

The Industry in 1935 Continued prosperity featured the silk weaving industry in Japan in 1935, low price of silk and low wages accounting for this. Exports again increased. Though British-India and some countries in Europe tried to bar imports of Japanese silk weaves, the depreciation in currency enabled Japan to counteract such moves successfully, for her exports experienced an unprecedented boom.

In 1935 the number of silk weaving factories in Japan proper was 72,311 with 334,845 looms and 290,912 operatives.

Production of Silk Weaves Owing to the increase in consumption both at home and abroad production showed great gains. Most weavers, except those in Kyoto, turned to weaves intended for export, so that those engaged in weaving textiles intended for domestic consumption were also kept busy and prosperous. Total production in 1935 was valued at ¥632,933,188, a gain of ¥32,062,526 over the previous year. Of the total, crépes amounted to ¥82,973,754 and showed an increase of ¥9,252,513 over 1934; habutaé totalled ¥21,888,845 and decreased by ¥5,285,862; and fuji silk ¥27,804,750 with a loss of ¥3,350,301. Weaves which are mainly consumed at home, omeshi, nishijin, meisen, etc. showed increases in production. The industry as a whole profited through the low price of silk. Production of silk textiles since 1926 follows:

PRODUCTION OF SILK TEXTILES[1]

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	Broad Weaves					
	Crêpes and Kabe-ori		Habutaé		Pongee	
	Qt'y in 1,000 metres	Value in ¥1,000	Qt'y in 1,000 metres	Value in ¥1,000	Qt'y in 1,000 metres	Value in ¥1,000
1926	24,703	38,215	58,835	39,816	25,873	18,719
1927	23,426	32,434	61,957	40,385	21,963	14,683
1928	31,385	43,116	60,392	42,965	29,809	16,606
1929	30,511	42,244	64,244	39,156	26,834	12,564
1930	32,233	33,606	45,545	21,434	20,665	7,091
1931	34,646	27,964	31,213	11,907	33,071	9,655
1932	45,812	33,546	36,060	13,273	32,550	11,164
1933	85,385	66,105	48,735	19,281	35,636	12,699
1934	124,950	73,721	109,110	27,174	37,109	10,790
1935	179,348	82,973	81,858	21,888	22,807	6,838

Broad Weaves

Year	Fuji silk		Satin		Others & total
	Qt'y in 1,000 metres	Value in ¥1,000	Qt'y in 1,000 metres	Value in ¥1,000	Value in ¥1,000
1926	34,993	32,197	11,307	16,019	169,004
1927	45,128	34,986	9,665	12,703	159,893
1928	56,050	40,726	10,229	13,388	181,074
1929	60,872	40,085	14,104	15,896	194,288
1930	51,320	26,862	21,581	16,653	150,657
1931	51,551	24,851	25,490	14,268	137,251
1932	56,619	28,896	45,799	20,048	175,640
1933	65,945	33,216	45,527	21,904	235,902
1934	59,439	31,155	74,577	26,546	273,097
1935	50,866	27,804	91,087	26,790	283,420

Narrow Weaves

Year	Omeshi		Crêpes and Kabé		Habutaé, etc.	
	Qt'y in 1,000 tan	Value in ¥1,000	Qt'y in 1,000 tan	Value in ¥1,000	Qt'y in 1,000 tan	Value in ¥1,000
1926	895	17,040	4,763	64,587	2,951	34,536
1927	891	16,751	4,537	54,457	3,720	31,159
1928	1,082	19,988	6,388	69,782	4,074	35,103
1929	1,020	18,003	5,236	55,607	3,077	25,321
1930	1,208	17,954	7,248	59,511	3,986	24,158
1931	1,783	22,577	10,659	67,670	3,701	20,475
1932	2,102	21,195	9,611	60,952	3,495	20,241
1933	1,493	15,809	10,979	69,207	2,911	17,553
1934	1,783	17,398	15,199	93,761	3,748	19,389
1935	2,095	19,975	17,865	101,236	4,688	23,365

Year	Ro and Sha		Meisen, etc.		Others & total
	Qt'y in 1,000 tan	Value in ¥1,000	Qt'y in 1,000 tan	Value in ¥1,000	Value in ¥1,000
1926	1,125	11,980	7,699	57,915	233,978
1927	1,129	11,889	7,419	57,861	215,030
1928	1,197	13,021	10,229	75,353	260,714
1929	1,321	13,353	12,386	71,003	221,026
1930	1,368	11,111	14,432	68,500	209,774
1931	1,347	8,352	13,526	57,017	207,898
1932	2,139	12,231	12,601	48,132	198,869
1933	1,894	11,319	12,117	46,096	197,349
1934	2,717	12,868	12,735	49,641	234,353
1935	2,567	12,367	11,205	44,907	242,750

Year	Special Weaves	Total of Silk Textiles	Silk-Cotton Mixtures	Grand total
	Value in ¥1,000	Value in ¥1,000	Value in ¥1,000	Value in ¥1,000
1926	23,931	426,914	67,460	494,374
1927	36,180	411,104	58,305	469,408
1928	40,893	482,682	57,986	540,669
1929	30,234	445,549	48,301	493,850
1930	31,175	391,606	33,532	425,138
1931	31,599	376,749	30,107	406,857
1932	33,351	407,860	31,159	439,019
1933	30,931	464,183	36,912	501,095
1934	47,091	554,542	46,328	600,870
1935	53,053	579,223	53,709	632,933

Note: (1) Figures given here show products by all mills, regardless of the size of mills, or the number of operatives employed.

EXPORTS OF SILK TEXTILES

Kind		1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Habutaé	quantity in 1,000 kin	7,078	663	911	20,840	—
	value in ¥1,000	6,333	6,823	8,314	9,844	10,840
Satin	quantity in 1,000 sq.-yds.	3,322	2,988	7,215	6,279	—
	value in ¥1,000	1,822	1,744	4,442	4,043	3,281
Fuji silk	quantity in 1,000 sq.-yds.	30,333	32,449	32,267	22,973	—
	value in ¥1,000	15,014	17,179	18,578	13,670	13,573
Crêpes	quantity in 1,000 sq.-yds,	23,785	28,844	42,953	50,476	—
	value in ¥1,000	18,893	25,188	34,546	38,827	31,274
Pongee	quantity in 1,000 sq.-yds,	24,222	31,075	22,011	17,093	—
	value in ¥1,000	6,520	9,668	6,732	5,085	2,976
Others and Total	Value in ¥1,000	50,286	63,543	77,487	77,444	68,027

Rayon

Rise of Rayon Industry

In 1926, the total production of rayon yarn in Japan amounted to only 5,000,000 lbs. while in 1932 it increased to more than 64,000,000 lbs. The output was 223,024,400 lbs. in 1935 and 276,505,100 lbs. in 1936, thus making Japan one of the chief producing countries in the world. Only a few of the existing rayon manufacturing companies, such as Teikoku and Asahi, were established before 1926. Since then, quite a number of new companies have been added, including Nihon, Tokyo, Showa and Kurashiki.

The Industry in 1936 The rayon industry in this country during 1936 was in a depressed condition during the first half of the year due to the aggravated relations of demand and supply and the reactionary decline in the prices of commodities in general. When the second half of the year set in, however, the demand-supply relations improved and general commodity prices began to rise rapidly, which enabled the quotations of rayon to recover from the depression.

The improvement in the relations of demand and supply is attributable to various factors, including the strengthened curtailment of operation, the establishment of a definite policy for restricting the addition of new spindles and the participation of outsider manufacturers in the Rayon Association's work enabled a strengthened control of production. Another important factor was the increased demand for rayon yarn and rayon taxtiles, especially in the Oriental markets, though a slight decline marked the demand in the Dutch Indies, Egypt and Australia, where severe restrictions were put on the importation of Japanese goods.

With the advent of the year 1937, rayon quotations showed some signs of a reactionary decline, the key note of the rayon industry, however, remained firm. This, coupled with the anticipated continuance of a rising demand, gives a feeling of optimism to the industry.

Changes in Quotations From January till March, 1936, rayon quotations on the Fukui market were at the low level of ¥52. As the relations of demand and supply improved with the advent of the second half of the year, however, the quotations began to show a firm tone. Toward the end of the year, when the prices of cotton yarn and raw silk soared and the general commodity prices also showed a rapidly rising tendency, speculative buying was conducted in anticipation of higher quotations with the result that even futures were sent up to the high level of ¥76. Details are shown in the following table :

RAYON QUOTATIONS ON FUKUI MARKET

	Current Month		Futures	
	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest
January, 1936	¥56.60	¥52.40	¥55.20	¥52.60
February ,,	54.60	52.60	54.80	53.00
March ,,	57.20	52.10	58.10	51.70
April ,,	61.50	58.70	61.40	58.70
May ,,	64.70	57.80	63.10	56.50
June ,,	60.90	57.20	58.50	55.90

	Current Month		Futures	
	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest
July „	62.60	59.80	60.60	58.10
August „	66.10	63.00	62.70	59.60
September „	63.60	61.40	60.40	58.60
October „	63.30	59.20	61.90	57.40
November „	67.90	63.20	64.70	61.70
December „	67.40	65.60	76.00	63.50
1936 Average	67.90	52.10	76.00	51.00
1935 Average	86.70	53.70	80.00	55.10
January, 1937	93.70	81.00	91.00	80.40
February „	87,10	78.20	86.50	77.40

Note: The figures for Febuary, 1937, do not cover the latter 12 days of the months.

As is clear from the above table, the average quotations during 1936 were still considerably low when compared with those during the preceding year. Since the beginning of 1937, however, the upward trend of rayon quotations has been further accelerated. In this connection, it must be noted that the afternoon sessions of all the rayon exchanges in the country on January 11 were forced to be suspended because of an abnormal rise in prices on account of the strengthened import exchange control. On January 13, current month quotations rose above the ¥93 mark, setting an all-time high since November, 1934.

The abnormal rise was brought about by a fear that the strengthened exchange control might check even the importation of rayon pulp. It is therefore natural that rayon quotations should have suffered a reactionary fall when it became clear that the Ministry of Finance did not mean to restrict the importation of rayon pulp in view of the poor conditions of the rayon industry of the country. In February, prices fell to the ¥80 level and the declining tendency continued until the ¥70 level was finally reached. As compared with 1936, however, the level was still rather high.

Increased Production The production of rayon in this country has been increasing remarkably during recent years. During 1936, the member companies of the Rayon Association and the outsiders turned out a total of 2,765,000 cases which represented an increase of 535,000 cases or about 2.4 per cent over the figures for the preceding year. The increasing rate in 1936, however, was rather low when compared with the preceding years, as is shown in the following table:

RAYON PRODUCTION (In cases)

	Amount of Production	Increase Over Preceding Year	Percentage of Increase
1929	269,970	104,970	63.7
1930	359,590	89,620	33.1
1931	476,141	116,551	32.4
1932	689,273	213,132	44.7
1933	974,285	285,012	41.3
1934	1,589,951	610,666	62.6
1935	2,230,214	645,263	40.7
1936	2,765,051	535,337	24.0

The slackened increasing tendency of rayon production is attributable to the fact that besides strengthening the curtailment of operation, the Rayon Association imposed restrictions upon the addition of new spindles and the control of production was further strengthened by the participation of the outsider manufacturers in the work of the Association. The curtailment of operation, which was 20 per cent for the first three months of the year, was expanded to 30 per cent for the following three months and further increased to 35 per cent as from July. The restriction of the addition of new spindles was enforced on May 1.

In this respect, mention must be made of the fact that although the increasing rate of production thus slackened during 1936, it was still remarkable when compared with that of other countries. To cite an instance, rayon production in this country during 1936 amounted to 2,765,000 cases, equivalent to some 276,000,000 pounds against 275,000,000 pounds for the United States.

Increased Consumption The consumption of Japanese rayon recorded a marked increase both at home and abroad during 1936 on the strength of the improved quality which served to enhance the popularity of the yarn and the goods, made from it. The demand for rayon for mixed use with other

fibres also advanced and the scope for its utilization was enlarged through the emergence of higher-grade material. With reference to exports, it is to be noted that in spite of the various restrictions put on Japanese goods by various foreign countries, Japanese rayon continued to make a notable advance chiefly owing to its improved quality and low price. As another factor contributing towards the advance of Japanese rayon may be mentioned the world-wide improvement in business conditions and the increased purchasing power thus brought about.

The exports of rayon yarn during 1936 amounted to more than 443,000 cases and those of rayon textile reached upwards of 871,000 cases in term of yarn. The former increased by 139,000 cases and the latter by 170,000 cases over the figures for the preceding year. The domestic consumption of rayon amounted to more than 1,451,000 cases during the same year, gaining by 216,000 cases over the figures for 1935.

The remarkable advance of the Japanese exports of rayon during 1936 was achieved perhaps, at the expense of a slight decline in the exports of cotton cloth. The total value of the rayon exports during the year reached the neighbourhood of ¥200,000,000 including ¥149,000,000 in textiles, ¥29,000,000 in yarn and ¥20,000,000 in miscellaneous goods. The important position held by rayon in the export trade of this nation is well illustrated by the fact that it is second only to cotton cloth and raw silk.

Details of the relations of the demand and supply of rayon during 1936 are tabulated below, the figures being given in unit of cases :

	Production of Yarn	Imports of Yarn	Exports of Yarn	Exports of Textiles	Domestic Consumption
January	202,564	4	42,769	49,623	20,175
February	200,146	2	43,894	63,323	92,926
March	216,066	5	47,494	73,335	95,241
April	228,043	22	50,769	81,564	95,732
May	231,447	10	37,434	83,766	110,256
June	231,471	11	26,728	73,493	131,260
July	226,563	42	28,531	69,445	128,628
August	230,006	32	29,649	70,041	130,348
September	237,196	64	25,523	70,641	141,096
October	245,893	291	29,972	75,411	140,539
November	253,107	8	28,379	67,152	157,583
December	263,107	7	52,229	93,405	117,488
Total	2,765,552	238	443,371	871,203	1,451,277
1935	2,230,214	433	304,279	700,837	1,235,023

Exports of Rayon Yarn. As already stated, the exports of rayon yarn during 1936 amounted to more than 443,000 cases, which represented a gain by 139,000 cases over the figures for the preceding year. During the first three months of the year, the exports ranged between 40,000 and 50,000 cases, but in April the amount rose to 50,769 cases (see the table of the relations of demand and supply). This sudden rise was brought about by the situation surrounding the Italo-Ethiopian controversy and the exportation of a part of the rayon which had been warehoused by the rayon companies as a means of regulating the prices.

After April, exports began to decrease because of the season. The aggravated situation surrounding the China question and the temporary halt of trade in North China combined to pull down exports to the 20,000-case level in June. The conditions, however, suddenly changed in December when as many as 52,229 cases were exported. This sudden change was caused by the world-wide business recovery, the subsequently increased purchasing power and the decrease in stocks in India and Manchuria which are both principal markets for Japanese rayon, as well as the resultant speculative buying in anticipation of higher quotations.

The increase in the exports of rayon yarn was particularly notable in the case of Manchoukuo, including the Kwantung Leased Territory, and British India. These two markets between them take more than 60 per cent of the total exports. During 1936, British India imported upwards of 141,000 cases of rayon yarn from this country, an increase of 39,000 cases over the figures for the preceding year, while Manchoukuo imported 131,000 cases or 59,000 cases more than 1935. In other words, the Japanese exports of rayon yarn in-

creased by nearly 100,000 cases during the year for these two markets alone, and accounted for about 70 per cent of the total increase.

The exports of rayon yarn to the Dutch Indies and the South Sea region also continued to increase. As other principal markets for Japanese rayon yarn must be mentioned Australia, Egypt and Central America. The increase in the exports to Australia during 1936, however, was very slight on account of the restrictions put by the Commonwealth on Japanese goods, but the increase in the exports to Egypt and Central America was considerable. What should be noted here is that the exports to South America shrank a little because of a decline in the exports to Argentine. The exports to Europe and North America, however, continued to increase.

Exports of Rayon Textile Material Rayon textiles also advanced remarkably despite the trade barriers built up in various lands. The exports of rayon materials during 1936 amounted to 527,942,000 square yards valued at ¥149,170,000. Compared with the preceding year, an increase of 103,820,000 square yards or 26.8 per cent was recorded in volume while the value gained by ¥21,000,000 or 16.4 per cent.

The advance of Japanese rayon material in the Oriental markets was particularly phenomenal during 1936, which shows that this market is steadily increasing in importance for this kind of Japanese manufacture. The exports to Manchoukuo including the Kwantung Leased Territory during the year increased by 30,000,000 square yards over the exports in 1935, those to British India increased by 17,000,000 square yards and those to China by 15,000,000 square yards. A total increase of 24,000,000 square yards was recorded in the exports to the South Seas and other parts of Asia.

While the exports to both Central and South America as well as Europe continued to expand, those to Australia and Egypt showed a decline because these lands adopted extreme measures to check the imports from Japan. The exports to the Dutch Indies were also in a depressed condition. Detailed figures in this connection are given below :

	1936 (In square yards)	Increase Compared with 1935
Asia	318,937,000	89,676,000
Europe	21,401,000	9,514,000
North America	5,289,000	3,834,000
Central America	23,328,000	7,763,000
South America	28,626,000	7,739,000
Africa	56,667,000	(dec.)13,211,000
Oceania	73,694,000	(dec.) 1,536,000

The above table indicates that the future expansion of Japanese exports of rayon textiles is to be made chiefly in the Oriental markets inasmuch as the exports to Africa and Oceania are already on a downward trend. Further details of the exports of rayon yarn and rayon textiles according to destinations are tabulated below :

EXPORTS OF RAYON YARN AND RAYON TEXTILES ACCORDING TO DESTINATIONS

	Rayon Yarn		Rayon Textiles	
	1936 (In cases)	Increase Compared with 1935	1936 (In square yards)	Increase Compared with 1935
China & Hong-Kong	36,011	(dec.) 2,219	28,676,900	15,639,000
Manchoukuo & Kwantung Leased Territory	131,597	59,719	58,814,200	30,470,900
British India	141,124	39,793	92,081,200	17,410,400
Dutch East Indies	12,638	5,649	51,555,600	1,568,300
Other Parts of South Sea Region and Asia	18,060	5,745	87,809,300	24,566,700
Europe	18,949	10,027	21,401,300	9,503,500
North America	6,798	3,380	5,288,800	3,833,400
Central America	38,168	14,399	23,337,700	7,762,000
South America	4,706	(dec.) 6,062	28,625,500	7,767,100
Egypt & Africa	18,853	7,741	56,667,200	(dec.)13,211,100
Australia	16,468	920	73,693,800	(dec.) 1,534,900

Prospects of Rayon Industry So far, the conditions of the rayon industry in this country have shown a marked improvement on the strength of the strong control of production enforced by the various companies and the increased

demand both at home and abroad. Though, as already pointed out, the abnormal rise in the quotations from toward the end of 1936 till the early part of 1937 was followed by a reactionary decline, the general conditions of the rayon circles are still satisfactory. When the adjustment of the reaction is completed, a further improvements is expected.

Production will no doubt continue to increase. In January, 1937, production amounted to 259,000 cases, but as expansion activities are being displayed by some companies, it is expected that the monthly production will be increased to about 270,000 cases in the latter half of the year. On the basis of this expectation, it is estimated that the total production during 1937 will reach some 3,180,000 cases, which would represent an increase of 42,000 cases over the figures for the preceding year.

There is no need for pessimism over the future relations of demand and supply if the satisfactory conditions of the demand both at home and abroad as recorded since autumn of 1936 are maintained. In other words, if the conditions of the consumption in December, 1936, when a total of 263,000 cases of rayon were either consumed at home or exported to overseas markets, are maintained, the total consumption in 1937 will reach some 3,150,000 cases against the estimated production of 3,180,000 cases and present indications support such a supposition.

As regards the trade barriers built up in overseas markets against Japanese goods, it is impossible to find any factors which would cause such barriers to be further raised. What should be noted here is that the expansion of the exports of rayon will be retarded if the quotations of rayon yarn should rise suddenly, but it will not be amiss to expect a further expansion of exports provided the rayon yarn quotations are stabilized around ¥80.

Taking a general view of the situation, it is also expected that inflation will serve to stimulate the demand for rayon. Mention also must be made of the fact that the scope of the utilization of rayon has been expanded of late. A remarkable increase is being made in the number of miscellaneous goods manufactured through the utilization of rayon, the demand in this field, which amounts to about 20,000 cases monthly at present, is on an upward tendency.

The Output Observation of the development of the rayon industry in Japan discloses that, while in 1928 the output was only 4.5 per cent of the world output, in 1931, it represented over 10 per cent and in 1934 it had risen to 17 per cent, with the result that, in point of production of rayon, Japan ranks second to the United States and has an output 50 per cent greater than Great Britain and Germany, and 30 more than Italy.

This rapid development is traceable primarily to the cheapness of fibrous material in this country, but partly to the improvement in the quality of the product, the progress of technical skill and the extension of the use of rayon during the last few years and, moreover, to the extensive markets that Japanese products enjoy in China, India, the Dutch East Indies, the Straits Settlements and the Philippines.

Production The tables below show the development of the production of rayon yarn and its exports and exports of rayon fabrics during the years 1925-36.

RAYON YARN

(In pounds)

Year	Production	Imports	Exports	Real Supply
1925	3,200,000	824,285	—*	4,024,285
1926	5,000,000	3,288,149	—*	8,288,149
1927	10,500,000	791,650	37,524	11,254,126
1928	19,652,000	256,763	68,155	16,840,608
1929	25,716,000	624,980	153,877	26,187,103
1930	35,959,000	842,467	3,204,363	33,597,104
1931	46,764,120	1,154,634	2,555,521	45,363,233
1932	70,389,606	376,184	7,294,735	63,471,049
1933	90,428,900	509,147	8,859,500	82,078,447
1934	158,995,270	69,010	22,182,510	136,881,770
1935	223,021,400	43,300	30,427,900	223,064,700
1936	276,505,100	23,800	4,433,710	232,191,800

* Exports before the year 1927 are negligible both in quantity and value.

EXPORTS OF RAYON FABRICS

(In 1,000 yards)

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
China and Hong-Kong	352.0	822.9	2,323.9	13,037.9	28,677
Manchoukuo and Kwantung	1,216.3	6,156.2	16,344.1	28,343.3	58,814
India	92,571.9	61,982.3	76,283.4	74,670.8	92,081
Dutch East Indies	59,393.1	60,798.1	46,726.1	49,987.3	51,556
South Sea Region	18,232.3	20,553.2	36,361.4	63,242.6	87,809
Europe	1,368.4	4,499.6	5,301.4	11,892.8	21,401
North America	2,616.7	631.6	852.1	1,455.4	5,289
Central America	3,074.5	9,930.5	20,743.8	15,565.7	23,328
South America	1,682.2	4,814.0	13,382.5	20,838.4	28,626
Egypt and Africa	45,644.8	50,395.9	68,156.7	69,878.3	56,667
Australia and New Zealand	9,214.2	22,749.2	46,402.1	75,228.7	73,694
Others	6,306.8	15,272.1	12,773.0	—	—
Total	241,719	260,054	345,655	424,000.0	527,942
Total Value (in ¥1,000)	60,539	77,381	113,484	128,260	149,170

Note: Figures of the Rayon Manufacturers' Association

EXPORTS OF RAYON YARN

(In case of 100 lbs.)

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
China and Hong-Kong	33,924.8	5,116.5	24,786.0	38,230	36,011
Manchoukuo and Kwantung	3,616.0	57,354	81,858.0	71,878	131,597
India	21,247.9	13,503	84,303.5	101,331	1,411,244
Dutch East Indies	82.5	554.0	3,000.0	6,989	12,638
South Sea Region	148.7	652.7	6,940.3	12,315	18,060
Europe	1,565.7	4,168	1,212.6	8,922	18,949
North America	376.2	95.0	9.5	3,418	6,798
Central America	940.1	3,432	15,329.8	23,769	38,168
South America	165.1	105.1	500.3	10,768	4,706
Egypt and Africa	296.4	16.6	3,193.0	11,111	18,852
Australia and New Zealand	10,581.1	3,630.9	449.9	15,548	16,468
Others	—	4.0	183.8	—	—
Total	72,944	88,627	221,771	304,279	443,371
Total Value (in ¥1,000)	5,860	9,483	22,397	22,852	29,173

Note: Figures of the Rayon Manufacturers' Association

Woollen Industry

Introduction

The establishment of a Government woollen textile mill at Senju, Tokyo, in 1876, was the origin of this industry in Japan. Many private companies were organized after the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese Wars, but owing to the pressure of foreign competition only a few companies were able to survive. By the World War the industry was given a further good opportunity for trial at development, an opportunity that was not neglected, and which turned out more successful than previous attempts, as a very big demand for woollen goods was created.

The production of woollen goods in Japan is carried out by two classes of manufacturers. The first are the large scale producers, all joint-stock companies, who carry through the whole process of spinning the yarns, weaving them on power looms and dyeing them. The other class is that of the small producers who buy yarns from others and weave by hand looms. There are about 39 companies which belong to the former class, while there are numerous weavers who belong to the latter class and who produce considerable quantities of serge, muslin, etc.

Woollen textiles are manufactured from wools mostly imported from Australia. Japan does not produce any wool herself. Formerly, in addition to greasy wools, tops were imported in large quantities, but, as the facilities

for preparing tops from greasy wools have been greatly improved, the importation of tops has recently been drastically reduced.

Present Condition

1936 Woollen Industry The conditions of the woollen industry in Japan began to improve in the middle of the second half of 1936 owing to the world-wide shortage of wool and the advent of a general business boom in various countries.

During the spring of 1936, the woollen industry was in a depressed condition because the market prices of woollen goods were not sufficiently high to meet the rise in the price of wool. When the second half of the year set in the market conditions showed signs of a slight improvement, and towards the end of the year the prices of woollen goods started rising quickly under the impetus of the world-wide increase in commodity prices.

The abnormal rise in the prices of woollen goods left its effect upon the conditions of the industry during the early part of 1937, in that although the production decreased by about 10 per cent on account of restricted imports of wool, business conditions of the various companies showed a remarkable improvement. Conditions during the latter half of the year, however, are not expected to be so satisfactory because the high-priced wool is to be then consumed.

Generally speaking, the woollen industry of Japan has just commenced to develop, so Japanese woollen goods have to compete with the products of the leading woollen manufacturing nations in the world's markets. The present indications are that the restriction of imports of wool was enforced just at the time that there appeared signs of a great possibility of Japanese woollen goods coming out victorious in their competition with foreign goods in the world's markets. Under present conditions, the development of the industry is likely to be retarded although the producing companies are assured of a normal profit.

Wool Quotations During the early part of the 1935–36 wool year, wool quotations were at a low level. Merino Nos. 64–70 was quoted on the Melbourne market at from 26 to 27 pence in September, 1935, but had reached the level of 33 pence by March, 1936, quotations in the 1936–37 wool year also started from a comparatively low level, rising to 31 pence at the end of August, 1936, but the latter part of September witnessed a fall to 29 pence.

On account of the shortage of wool and also under the influence of the higher prices of commodities throughout the world, wool prices rose to 35 or 36 pence towards the end of 1936 and further soared to the 40 pence level in January, 1937.

The shortage of wool was felt particularly keenly in Japan. As a result of the Australian question which arose in May, 1936, Japan adopted a policy of boycotting Australian wool and purchasing South African and South American wool instead. As practically no dealings in raw wool were conducted in Japan proper, there were no domestic quotations for raw wool, but the shortage of wool was reflected in the prices of woollen goods.

Prices of Yarn and Materials The prices of woollen yarn and woollen textiles gradually advanced after May, 1936, and began to rise abnormally towards the end of the year. On the whole, the prices of yarn and textiles advanced along with the rise in the price of raw wool but it is to be noted that the prices did not fall during the period between the end of August and the latter part of September in spite of the decline in the price of raw wool. This is attributable to the fact that Japan was particularly badly in need of it.

The following is a table showing the average prices of woollen yarn and woollen materials during the past six years or so :

	Serge Yarn	Worsted	Muslin
1931	—	¥1.46	¥0.31
1932	¥1.97	1.42	0.32
1933	2.45	1.78	0.36
1934	2.31	2.07	0.39
1935	2.25	1.82	0.37
1936			
January	2.43	1.99	0.39
February	2.43	2.05	0.40
March	2.44	2.09	0.39
April	2.40	2.10	0.38
May	2.53	2.12	0.38
June	2.59	2.34	0.40
July	2.62	2.43	0.41
August	2.57	2.42	0.42
September	2.58	2.42	0.41
October	2.70	2.49	0.43
November	2.68	2.50	0.41
December	3.06	2.80	0.46
1937			
January,	3.52	3.34	0.51
	3.34	3.20	0.49

Exports and Imports of Woollen Goods The woollen industry of Japan

is now in the process of development but, unlike the rayon and staple fibre industries which are just rising, it has a long history to its credit. To be more accurate, it is comparable to the cotton industry from the historical point of view. Its development has been very slow until very recently because it was not so conformable to conditions in this country as was the cotton industry.

The fact that the woollen industry is still in the process of development is clearly reflected in the exports and imports of woollen yarn and woollen materials, exports have been rapidly increasing while imports have been decreasing. In 1932, there was an excess of imports over exports, amounting to ¥9,429,000 but the following year witnessed an excess of exports over imports. The favourable balance was increased to as much as ¥49,720,000 in 1936. The rapid progress achieved by the woollen industry during the past few years is well illustrated in the following table :

DEMAND AND SUPPLY OF WOOLLEN YARN

(In 1,000 pounds)

	Production by Associated Co's.	Imports	Total	Exports	Balance
1931	77,586	9,550	87,136	698	86,438
1932	89,660	3,219	92,879	1,249	91,630
1933	101,361	1,638	102,999	3,168	99,831
1934	103,246	913	104,159	5,920	98,239
1935	113,098	1,085	114,183	5,319	108,864
1936	121,957	905	122,862	7,140	115,722

Note: The balance represents domestic consumption.

According to the above figures, the production of woollen yarn by the member companies of the Woollen Industrial Association, which amounted to 77,586,000 pounds in 1931, swelled to 121,957,000 pounds in 1936, achieving an increase by about 70 per cent in only five years. While imports in 1936 shrank to merely 955,000 pounds, exports in the same year mounted to 7,140,000 pounds.

Further details of the exports and imports of woollen yarn and woollen textiles are tabulated below (all figures being given in units of 1,000) :

EXPORTS

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Woollen yarn					
Quantity (pounds)	1,289	3,169	5,920	5,319	7,140
Value (yen)	1,697	5,293	12,185	9,688	15,312
Woollen materials					
Value (yen)	5,679	12,770	30,420	32,401	45,956
Total value	6,376	18,063	42,605	42,089	61,266

IMPORTS

Woollen yarn					
Quantity (pounds)	3,219	1,638	913	1,085	905
Value (yen)	5,143	3,021	1,708	1,931	1,873
Woollen materials					
Value (yen)	10,662	7,338	5,316	6,753	9,675
Total value	15,805	10,357	7,024	8,684	11,548
Balance between Exports & Imports (yen)	9,429	7,706	35,581	33,405	49,720

Prospects As already stated, the woollen industry of this country has advanced remarkably during recent years, reaching a point where its products are able to compete with foreign goods in the word's markets. Just at this juncture when an epoch-making expansion of the productive equipment of the industry is considered inevitable, the nation is being compelled to adopt such measures as will retard the further development of the industry on account

of the necessity of importing raw wool. The imports of wool for the 1936-37 wool year are limited to about 300,000 bales of Australian wool and 500,000 bales of wool from other sources. Under these circumstances, production is expected to remain at the same level as in the preceding year.

As a result of the control of production, there is no possibility of increasing exports and the market prices of woollen yarn and woollen textiles are expected to continue firm. In view, however, of the fact that further development would be possible if it were not for the restriction on the importation of raw wool, it must be said that the condition of the woollen industry is generally satisfactory.

Business Conditions of Companies The business conditions of the woollen companies during 1936 were very satisfactory, because the raw wool consumed during the year was purchased at low prices in 1935 while the quotations of wool in 1936 were much higher. The higher quotations were partly attributable to the Australian question, which caused the purchase of Australian wool to be suspended for a time, and as practically no dealings in raw wool were conducted in Japan proper during the time of the dispute, the rise in the quotations for raw wool took the form of advanced prices of woollen goods, and enabled the producing companies to gain a good profit.

As these excellent business conditions were abnormal, there naturally existed misgivings about the prospects. Consequently, all the companies refrained from increasing the percentage of dividend for their shareholders as explained by the following figures:

Companies	Dividend for 2nd Half of 1936	Dividend for 2nd Half of 1935
Itami Seiju	15%	15%
Nippon Keori	12	12
Nippon Keito	8	8
Toyo Keito	6	6
Toyo Keori	8	—
Chuo Keito	8	8
Kyodo Keito	12	10
Showa Keito	12	12
Shinko Keori	10	12
Manmo Keori		
Preferential	8	8
Ordinary	5	5

Generally speaking, production this year will not be less than that in the previous year. It is to be noted, however, that the productive facilities at the end of 1936 were more than 20 per cent greater than those at the end of 1935 and that as the increased spindles are also covered by the allotments of raw wool, the share of the old facilities will be reduced accordingly. To put it in another way, those companies which have not increased their spindles will have to reduce their production on account of their reduced share in the allotments of raw wool.

This question concerns the latter half of the year rather than the first half because there is some low-priced wool brought over from the previous year. When the Japanese-Australian agreement was concluded which enabled the resumption of the purchase of wool from the Commonwealth, the Australian wool had already advanced in price. The higher prices are bound to affect the whole of the second half of this year.

With the purchase of raw wool being restricted, it is inevitable that a shortage of wool will come about. This in turn will cause a firm tone in the prices of woollen goods, and will assure the companies of a normal profit. As restrictive measures are in force, however, a further considerable development of the woollen industry cannot be expected and the business conditions of those companies which have to reduce production on account of the shortage of raw wool will be effected accordingly.

Japan's imports of wool in the past 7 years are shown below:

JAPAN'S IMPORTS OF RAW WOOL[1]

	Quantity in 1,000 lbs.	Value in ¥1,000
1930	115,999	73,919
1931	191,374	86,518
1932	206,858	88,321
1933	242,620	165,818
1934	184,379	187,667
1935	247,275	193,090
1936	219,951	204,343

Note: (1) Including tops and goat and camel hair.

IMPORTS OF RAW WOOL BY COUNTRIES

(According to the Woollen Industrial Assn. Statistics)

(In 1,000 lbs.)

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Australia	198,426.5	227,430.6	155,375.9	230,269.6	154,691.3
New Zealand	2,992.1	1,835.0	10,187.7	7,276.1	23,737.4
South American Countries	1,341.4	6,126.6	10,579.3	4,212.7	9,707.0
Union of South Africa	2,323.1	4,029.5	5,233.0	2,594.6	18,621.6
Great Britain	575.0	1,245.4	854.7	783.7	1,123.8
Kwantung L. T.	44.3	167.8	163.4	63.4	5.1
China	1,044.1	1,675.8	1,854.2	1,927.3	673.9
Others	111.2	108.4	130.7	147.7	8,454.7
Total	206,858.1	242,620.4	184,379.2	247,275.5	217,015.1

Note: Figuires for 1936 are of sheep's wool only.

WOOLLEN TEXTILE MANUFACTURING FACILITIES

(At the end of the year)

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Number of woollen textile factories	1,039	1,138	1,178	1,226	1,421
Number of weaving machines	22,484	26,554	26,923	27,162	29,421
Number of operatives	37,955	41,606	41,311	44,347	47,142
Number of worsted spindles[1]	563,710	581,564	667,390	763,878	870,066
Number of weaving machines[1]	9,391	10,043	9,871	10,257	10,248
Number of woollen spindles[1]	75,096	87,893	88,403	91,272	97,917

Note: 1 Only member companies of the Woollen Industrial Association.

PRODUCTION OF WOOLLEN TEXTILE MATERIALS

Year	Muslin		Serge for Japanese Clothes		Serge for Foreign Clothes	
	Quantity in metres	Value in yen	Quantity in metres	Value in yen	Quantity in metres	Value in yen
1926	148,761,608	87,563,887	18,212,026	26,604,904	5,400,150	16,133,503
1927	151,504,365	87,456,216	18,243,816	28,103,617	5,475,992	13,745,387
1928	167,767,956	96,128,166	18,278,821	26,006,532	11,241,774	25,933,480
1929	155,520,238	86,382,054	17,981,742	25,477,646	8,087,637	17,767,617
1930	144,761,911	59,238,243	19,191,778	20,509,696	8,584,950	14,454,176
1931	150,123,006	47,541,759	21,115,651	16,531,059	17,492,010	25,228,168
1932	160,905,369	48,245,070	19,221,833	14,963,040	18,759,694	30,804,399
1933	130,698,059	47,974,272	13,660,552	13,733,495	23,311,081	47,538,799
1934	126,563,482	52,759,710	14,431,770	13,817,615	28,223,375	47,713,751
1935	130,332,357	53,762,835	18,271,400	19,622,663	33,659,334	54,424,688

Year	Woollen Cloth		Flannel		Blankets (including travelling rugs)	
	Quantity in metres	Value in yen	Quantity in metres	Value in yen	Quantity in metres	Value in yen
1926	6,338,701	19,512,850	14,529,252	14,469,609	512,027	2,746,512
1927	4,295,625	12,156,580	2,528,866	4,045,635	485,991	3,228,532
1928	9,706,449	29,362,162	2,445,326	4,249,922	479,084	3,109,202
1929	11,375,568	32,419,984	2,154,519	3,344,022	821,178	3,512,149
1930	8,916,418	21,546,853	2,510,269	3,039,433	743,293	3,066,618
1931	10,514,367	19,765,358	2,494,499	2,662,740	1,283,660	3,786,538
1932	12,104,818	21,641,679	3,180,952	2,944,438	1,492,742	4,307,015
1933	13,516,375	29,573,573	2,260,368	2,504,560	1,553,527	5,801,610
1934	19,127,217	45,569,431	1,525,375	2,018,748	1,790,142	6,135,739
1935	22,633,718	51,485,561	1,253,199	1,162,626	1,900,562	7,163,880

	Carpets Value in yen	Rugs Value in yen	Plush and Velvet Value in yen	Others Value in yen	Total Value in yen
1926	585,259	326,010	121,014	4,692,037	172,755,585
1927	156,649	38,964	219,766	13,925,724	163,077,070
1928	493,504	97,106	452,848	4,585,363	190,418,285
1929	177,399	154,151	800,596	6,859,964	176,895,582
1930	215,696	204,146	590,269	9,674,832	132,539,962
1931	150,980	203,082	606,856	3,803,130	120,279,670
1932	199,939	163,054	565,167	4,176,248	127,910,049
1933	291,267	285,872	805,695	6,130,280	154,639,423
1934	394,565	183,904	904,195	11,938,645	181,436,303
1935	530,069	116,425	1,582,754	12,783,253	202,634,734

JAPAN'S EXPORTS OF WOOLLEN GOODS

	Yarn		Muslin		Cloth and Serge		Others
	Quantity in 1,000 lbs.	Value in ¥1,000	Quantity in 1,000 sq. yards	Value in ¥1,000	Quantity in 1,000 sq. yards	Value in ¥1,000	Value in ¥1,000
1931	698	861	660	280	727	695	—
1932	1,289	1,697	1,516	569	2,854	2,531	—
1933	3,168	5,292	2,559	1,199	7,654	8,020	3,157
1934	5,919	12,184	4,202	2,185	16,128	19,098	8,564
1935	5,277	9,688	2,397	1,227	18,873	23,415	8,757
1936	7,140	15,313	2,096	1,066	—	34,358	11,598

CHAPTER XIX

MACHINERY AND ENGINEERING

Machinery

Introduction

The manufacture of machinery in Japan started after the Restoration. The progress at first was very slow, and it was only after the Russo-Japanese War of 1904–1905 that the public began to take any real interest in investment in this kind of industry. Improvement was gradually being made before the Great War, but with the outbreak of war the situation completely changed. Prior to the War Japan had to import large quantities of machinery, but during the War imports were stopped, and a great stimulus was thereby given to home production. During the war years Japan became able to supply not only most of her own needs, but also some of those of foreign countries. Factories for manufacturing arms and various kinds of machinery, as well as shipbuilding-yards, were established in many parts of the country, and these profited both financially and in the experience they acquired in skilled mechanical work of various kinds. The great boom in shipbuilding stimulated the establishment of many new works for turning out engines and other equipment for steamers, while the difficulty of obtaining imported machines for spinning, weaving, papermaking, etc., caused a rapid establishment of new works for their manufacture. This cutting off of imports also served to encourage the manufacture of motors, electrical machinery, automobiles and aeroplanes. With the great post-war slump, naval disarmament, general depression the world over, embargo on gold, high tariffs, and all the other ills from which industry suffered the machinery production industry was heavily hit. The outbreak of trouble in Manchuria in September, 1931, and the military operations which followed, created a new demand for arms, while the reimposition of the gold embargo, and subsequent decline of the value of the yen served to revive the industry.

Machinery Manufacturing Industry in 1936

The machinery manufacturing industry in this country has been very active since it was decided to perfect national defence. The advance achieved by the industry during 1936 was quite remarkable, all the companies concerned recording an improvement in their business conditions without exception, and conditions in 1937 are expected to be satisfactory under the influence of the enormous spending envisaged from the budget.

With expansion in armaments being a phenomenon common to every nation in the world, Japan could not leave her defences in the state they were. Expansion was necessary and this assured the machinery industry of five or six busy years. Particularly are the leading companies affected because they are required to expand their productive equipments, and many companies are expected to increase their capitalization.

The position is not without its difficulties. There is the worry of the higher prices of materials, and a strong fear of higher wages. The Government is trying to ease the position by endeavouring to control the prices of steel and iron, but in any case it will be the consumer who pays for the increased prices of materials and labour will be passed on to them by manufacturers.

Increase in Deliveries Ever since the quasi-emergency began, the production of machinery has shown an increase every successive business term. The big seven machinery manufacturing companies, the Mitsubishi Heavy Industry, the Hidachi Seisakusho, the Kokusan Kogyo, the Shibaura Seisakusho, the Niigata Iron Works, the Ishikawajima Works and the Daido Denki Seiko manufactured various sorts of machinery to a total value of ¥288,700,000 during 1936 against ¥249,000,000 for the preceding year. Their total annual production during the past five years was :

1932	¥ 75,310,000
1933	98,140,000
1934	163,907,000
1935	247,819,000
1936	288,707,000

Note: A part of the figures for 1936 is based on estimation.

The increase in production has been especially remarkable since 1934. When considered in terms of index numbers, the increase was from 100 in 1932 to 399 in 1936. The following table shows the production by each of the big seven:

Companies	1934	1935	1936
Ishikawajima	¥ 13,300,000	¥ 15,422,000	¥ 17,724,000
Daido Seiko	4,712,000	6,238,000	6,575,000
Hidachi Seisaku	38,637,000	56,912,000	68,952,000
Kokusan Kogyo	20,210,000	25,556,000	26,389,000
Shibaura Seisaku	20,487,000	28,348,000	35,853,000
Niigata Iron Works	10,011,000	13,342,000	15,207,000
Mitsubishi Heavy Industry	56,548,000	103,001,000	118,007,000
Total	163,907,000	248,819,000	88,707,000

Fixed Capital of Manufacturers Compared with the increase in production, the fixed capital of the various manufacturing companies has swollen only slightly. Many companies have employed their old facilities to their full capacity but very few of them added new equipment. The raising of the fixed capital of the principal companies including the aforementioned big seven, the Tokyo Gas & Electric Industrial Company, the Ikegai Iron Works and the Osaka Machinery Works during the past five years is tabulated below :

1st half of 1932	¥ 85,380,000
2nd half ,,	86,164,000
1st half of 1933	83,424,000
2nd half ,,	¥ 86,224,000
1st half of 1934	100,915,000
2nd half ,,	105,447,000
1st half of 1935	108,619,000
2nd half ,,	118,031,000
1st half of 1936	119,634,000
2nd half ,,	126,012,000

The above figures show that the fixed capital of the principal companies in the second half of 1936 had gained by ¥40,632,000 or 47 per cent over the figures for the first half of 1932. To go into details, the fixed capital of some of the companies increased while that of others decreased on account of readjustment, as shown in the following table :

	1st Half of 1932	1st Half of 1936	2nd Half of 1936
Ishikawajima Works	¥ 6,829,000	¥ 6,124,000	¥ 5,654,000
Daido Seiko	2,564,000	3,836,000	3,981,000
Hidachi seisakusho	11,232,000	28,478,000	—
Kokusan Kogyo	5,989,000	12,607,000	12,600,000
Gas & Electric Industrial	12,955,000	7,348,000	7,517,000
Ikegai Iron Works	3,196,000	2,579,000	2,633,000
Shibaura Seisakusho	13,572,000	12,167,000	12,065,000
Niigata Iron Works	3,945,000	4,124,000	4,162,000
Mitsubishi Heavy Industry	24,521,000	40,435,000	—
Osaka Machinery Works	563,000	1,926,000	2,299,000
Total	85,381,000	107,151,000	—

It is shown in the above table that the fixed capital decreased in the case of the Ishikawajima Works, the Tokyo Gas & Electric Industrial Company, the Ikegai Iron Works and the Shibaura Seisakusho, while a remarkable increase was recorded in the case of the Mitsubishi Heavy Industry, the Hidachi Seisakusho, and the Kokusan Kogyo Kaisha. The fixed capital of the Daido Denki Seiko and the Niigata Iron Works increased but slightly. From this fact may be judged the business policy of the various companies.

On the other hand, the floating capital has increased quite markedly. At the end of first half of 1932, the floating capital of the 10 principal companies totalled ¥123,310,000 but by the end of the first half of 1936, the amount had

risen to ¥289,370,000. Although accurate figures are still unavailable, it is estimated that the amount further increased to ¥312,040,000 in the latter half of the year. The increase in floating capital is attributed to the increase in the amount of goods manufactured, materials and deposits with banks. It must be noted that the increase in manufactures and materials does not occasion any unrest under prevailing conditions because they are readily convertible into cash.

The increased capital was obtained either through raising the capitalization or securing loans. Particularly notable was the increase in internal liabilities, as shown in the following table :

INTERNAL LIABILITIES

1st half of 1932	¥106,871,000
2nd half ,,	108,101,000
1st half of 1933	106,972,000
2nd half ,,	123,220,000
1st half of 1934	168,977,000
2nd half ,,	180,316,000
1st half of 1935	188,508,000
2nd half ,,	235,510,000
1st half of 1936	235,807,000
2nd half ,,	250,956,000

The above figures show that the internal liabilities of the principal companies have increased by ¥144,000,000 since the state of quasi-emergency first arose. Of this amount, ¥94,470,000 was increased paid-up capital and the remaining ¥49,600,000 represented reserved savings. As the increased internal liabilities were insufficient to meet the needs of the expanded activities, it was necessary to increase external liabilities. The following is a comparison of the external liabilities of the principal companies in the first half of 1932 and in the latter half of 1936 :

EXTERNAL LIABILITIES

	1st half of 1932	2nd half of 1936
Ishikawajima Works	¥7,659,000	¥9,908,000
Daido Seiko	546,000	2,342,000
Hidachi Seisakusho	7,312,000	28,768,000
Kokusan Kogyo	4,810,000	12,474,000
Tokyo Gas & Electric	30,340,000	11,712,000
Ikegai Iron Works	1,123,000	1,100,000
Shibaura Seisakusho	9,684,000	15,212,000
Niigata Iron Works	1,236,000	914,000
Mitsubishi Heavy Industry	38,584,000	90,800,000
Osaka Machinery Works	362,000	1,776,000
Total	101,836,000	175,205,000

Thus, the increase in the external liabilities was the most remarkable in the case of the Mitsubishi Heavy Industry, then followed the Hidachi Seisakusho, the Shibaura Seisakusho, the Kokusan Kogyo and the Ishikawajima Works in the order named. It is to be noted that the external liabilities shrank in the case of the Tokyo Gas & Electric Industrial Company, the Ikegai Iron Works and the Niigata Iron Works. The first named effected a readjustment of its capital while the two others did not need to secure loans because they had ample funds on hand.

Bright Prospects The new estimates for the various sections of the Government as included in the budget for the 1937–38 year, which almost doubled the amount for the 1931–32 fiscal year reached upwards of ¥900,000,000. Of this sum, about ¥600,000,000 was allotted to the defence services which thus share a total of ¥1,360,000,000 in the entire budget including the basic items. This shows strong signs of a quasi-war time economic system.

The expenditure on the defence services is expected to continue swelling in and after the 1938–39 fiscal year. It is intimated that the Army has a 6-year programme calling for a total expenditure amounting to ¥3,200,00,000. The expenses of the Navy, too, are of an increasing tendency. Needless to say, the national defence expenditure is centering around the perfection of equipment and the augmentation of materials. As machines and weapons are estimated to account for from 70 to 80 per cent of such cost, and as the principal items are ships, arms, motorcars and chemicals, it may be noted that the munitions industry is assured of busy years to come.

The Tokyo Gas and Electric Industrial Company is expanding its facilities for producing motor cars, aircraft and weapons, the Mitsubishi Heavy Industry is also concentrating upon the manufacture of aircraft and motor cars. The Hidachi Seisakusho, the Ikegai Iron Works, the Shibaura Seisakusho and the Niigata Iron Works have started manufacturing Diesel cars. The Ishikawajima Works is encouraging its subsidiary companies which produce aircraft and turbines to expand their activities while the Daido Denki Seiko is taking to the supply of parts for automobiles and aircraft.

In other words, all these companies are adjusting their activities in conformity with the national policy, and under the circumstances, it is expected that the production of machinery during the

1937–38 fiscal year will further advance, and set a new record.

As the present prosperity is due to the munitions boom, the interested companies are not allowed to increase their dividends to shareholders on the strength of increased profits while the people at large are suffering from higher prices of commodities. They may increase their capitalization for the purpose of expanding their productive equipment but any change in policy to benefit the shareholders and directors is subjected to control.

Such being the situation, it is expected that the principal companies will increase their reserves with a view to expanding their facilities and strengthening the positions, conducting researches and improving the treatment of their employees.

The rise in the prices of materials will cause the shipbuilding and machinery manufacturing companies to suffer to some extent but there are measures of relief in this connection. Furthermore, as the principal companies concerned are splitting the profits, it is possible for them to meet the situation with some degree of composure.

GROWTH OF MACHINERY INDUSTRY

(Amount in ¥1,000)

Kind	No. of mills	No. of operatives	Value of production
1914	388	80,862	110,906
1921	526	162,724	568,322
1926	4,429	273,269	538,917
1929	5,296	190,154	682,162
1930	5,604	205,308	615,682
1931	6,479	—	443,340
1932	6,738	230,896	543,842
1933	7,850	249,323	888,195
1934	9,181	314,669	1,159,167
1935	10,352	367,263	1,462,539

PRODUCTION OF ENGINES

(Value in yen)

Year	Steam Engines		Steam Turbines		Gas Engines		Internal Combustion Engines: Light Oil Engines		Internal Combustion Engines: Oil Engines	
	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value
1926	370		294,506				18,778		18,017,677	
1927	234		1,251,468				15,307		13,982,015	
1928	313		397,036				19,644		19,118,828	
1929	931	2,615,111	15	754,858	128	104,545	965	9,660,598	23,828	9,900,571
1930	74	298,341	42	2,220,460	575	340,416	1,337	11,852,363	104,854	9,671,130
1931	97	80,769	17	1,458,889	10	8,800	778	5,008,217	15,295	5,228,870
1932	77	150,006	86	1,022,760	103	76,472	2,371	20,587,362	16,558	4,420,307
1933	162	580,519	51	7,269,146	142	116,780	5,546	32,360,597	17,229	4,049,818
1934	105	617,215	102	6,893,407	54	15,948	4,866	19,784,471	53,889	6,856,672
1935	144	1,308,033	187	10,551,116	14	43,260	8,439	21,092,789	35,603	8,832,063

Year	Internal Combustion Engines: Heavy Oil Engines			Water Wheels: Turbine Water Wheels		Water Wheels: Pelton Water Wheels			Production of Fittings	Grand Total
	No. Produced	Value	Total	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value	Total		
1926			18,017,677	268		1,445,262	1,445,262		1,313,492	21,070,937
1927			13,982,015	625		2,008,930	2,008,930		7,154,090	24,396,503
1928			19,118,928	590		1,278,773	1,278,773		2,944,316	23,739,051
1929	1,579	7,557,746	27,123,260	261	2,031,407	23	221,580	2,253,087	1,189,408	33,935,624
1930	2,274	6,759,923	29,723,832	115	1,890,568	17	35,811	1,926,376	2,207,825	36,377,837
1931	2,002	8,248,660	18,494,447	111	765,540	7	81,521	847,063	1,333,930	22,215,098
1832	1,783	5,790,541	30,874,682	173	575,847	1	1,492	577,339	1,493,765	34,118,552
1933	3,961	11,618,068	46,605,230	91	183,076	57	318,189	501,265	2,867,389	59,365,582
1934	4,151	15,267,978	41,925,069	164	1,319,476	21	133,348	1,452,824	3,483,848	54,372,363
1935	4,310	17,680,899	47,649,011	124	1,541,528	5	298,999	1,840,527	7,558,079	68,906,766

PRODUCTION OF BOILERS

(Value in yen)

Year	Water-Tube Style		Cast Iron		Others		Fittings and Accessories	Total	Machinery for Producing Gas
	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value			
1926		869		1,630,391				1,630,391	328,505
1927		762		1,221,052				1,221,052	160,841
1928		1,482		3,028,145				3,028,145	108,198
1929	179	2,375,285	295	42,032	1,529	1,968,055	1,264,520	5,649,982	106,443
1930	143	2,573,593	374	249,798	844	1,097,745	1,283,860	5,169,731	952,585
1931	86	2,388,832	89	50,330	1,180	1,197,505	2,724,523	6,369,190	727,929
1932	86	1,185,444	264	178,000	1,257	2,384,306	701,659	4,449,409	586,440
1933	120	2,071,541	281	217,976	2,020	5,617,207	3,647,849	11,554,573	1,210,160
1934	155	8,327,410	14	386,254	1,531	5,965,028	6,413,992	21,092,684	1,092,612
1935	255	19,863,758	382	437,146	1,743	3,942,038	10,226,313	34,469,255	1,594,975

PRODUCTION OF PUMPS, COMPRESSORS AND FANS

(Value in yen)

	Pumps		Hydraulic Compressors		Gas Compressors		Blowing Machines (Fans)	
	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value
1926	97,692	77,689,720	—	—	2,327,097		69,001	
1927	94,100	7,863,534	—	—	1,407,917		35,508	
1928	114,450	9,812,981	—	—	1,551,576		2,602	
1929	170,258	8,608,986	756	439,835	1,244	1,535,262	12,004	838,693
1930	515,642	8,002,940	1,084	452,580	9,239	3,152,991	1,475	599,142
1931	398,632	6,837,801	686	358,938	2,230	1,627,198	13,266	748,891
1932	290,480	6,510,822	1,102	720,903	2,199	1,123,213	28,433	755,241
1933	290,477	9,669,019	833	810,502	1,969	1,721,220	4,152	1,143,718
1934	427,999	13,027,236	1,152	1,175,656	3,323	3,993,231	5,425	2,410,354
1935	322,667	15,153,628	1,166	1,346,068	5,026	5,350,943	12,369	3,914,662

PRODUCTION OF METAL MANUFACTURING MACHINES AND MACHINE TOOLS

(Value in yen)

Year	Metal Manufacturing Machines		Machine Tools		Total
	No. Produced	Value	Drills, Cutters, etc.	Others	
1926	—	7,045,657	—	—	—
1927	—	8,259,271	—	—	—
1928	—	7,671,887	—	—	—
1929	464,252	5,585,895	942,269	3,398,818	4,348,087
1930	32,737	4,436,549	1,167,163	3,179,858	4,347,021
1931	114,756	3,944,923	1,280,939	2,530,871	3,811,810
1932	33,654	8,198,267	879,924	3,081,695	3,961,619
1933	50,103	15,403,826	1,504,395	3,963,961	5,468,356
1934	330,863	23,460,057	3,430,479	6,321,597	9,752,076
1935	72,425	30,175,664	5,769,157	6,997,441	12,766,598

PRODUCTION OF OPTICAL INSTRUMENTS

(Value in yen)

Year	Lenses, Including Prisms	Microscope	sTelescopes	Field-glasses	Glasses
1929	543,059	49,561	18,118	193,163	260,100
1930	402,739	94,172	16,470	2,955,885	317,550
1931	433,338	72,076	20,885	98,741	230,338
1932	572,961	54,750	182,302	227,325	360,114
1933	787,249	261,727	1,433,169	3,304,068	126,050
1934	954,515	328,834	2,160,119	5,539,078	62,400
1935	1,276,617	391,474	5,488,746	2,235,208	90,483

PRODUCTION OF MEASURING AND WEIGHING INSTRUMENTS

(Value in yen)

Year	Rules	Measures	Scales	Gas Meters	Water Meters	Accessories and Fittings	Total
1926	806,309	363,948	4,782,282	397,736	612,435	198,755	7,161,465
1927	1,371,711	807,119	3,224,781	3,353,941	59,500	215,927	9,032,979
1928	1,150,781	714,147	3,210,425	1,791,125	844,280	372,705	8,083,963
1929	1,027,579	849,754	3,239,202	5,202,256	576,789	477,360	11,372,946
1930	794,776	298,269	3,033,458	2,998,262	1,379,397	411,724	8,915,886
1931	581,717	248,705	2,443,134	1,998,534	1,345,382	264,173	6,881,645
1932	705,516	175,568	2,228,220	1,870,250	1,485,165	466,348	6,931,071
1933	869,288	298,100	3,692,690	2,042,099	1,391,487	467,937	8,761,607
1934	1,019,479	228,432	3,848,631	2,064,405	1,141,105	508,076	8,810,128
1935	1,224,720	580,202	4,200,844	2,236,139	1,660,923	642,901	10,545,729

PRODUCTION OF VARIOUS METERS

(Value in yen)

Year	Thermometers No. Produced	Thermometers Value	Clinical Thermometers No. Produced	Clinical Thermometers Value	Electricity Meters No. Produced	Electricity Meters Value	Others	Total Value
1926		1,484,508			4,720,281			6,204,789
1927		1,069,946			4,785,048			5,854,994
1928		923,156			7,933,606			8,856,764
1929	732,099	425,584	912,172	795,286	184,181	2,128,677	2,890,857	6,240,404
1930	745,307	381,415	1,046,500	841,766	209,287	2,772,177	2,984,421	6,979,779
1931	676,743	310,924	1,237,192	777,377	213,011	2,657,049	3,066,257	6,811,607
1932	511,786	273,356	1,388,889	883,335	395,298	3,997,290	2,622,110	7,776,091
1933	750,742	431,194	1,518,544	839,151	439,268	7,312,489	4,696,288	13,279,122
1934	987,023	393,973	1,884,875	1,095,826	539,273	7,247,533	7,838,757	16,576,086
1935	1,024,870	388,441	1,886,433	1,088,657	517,888	8,901,676	12,851,744	23,230,418

PRODUCTION OF CLOCKS AND WATCHES

(Value in yen)

Year	Electric Clocks No. Produced	Electric Clocks Value	Stand Clocks No. Produced	Stand Clocks Value	Clocks No. Produced	Clocks Value	Watches No. Produced	Watches Value	Fittings, etc.	Total
1926	—	—	844,350	2,377,272	576,926	3,921,602	399,566	1,928,334	1,349,070	9,576,278
1927	—	—	1,079,542	2,535,241	590,464	2,921,621	104,771	976,043	2,445,318	8,873,413
1928	—	—	1,135,958	2,612,744	425,257	2,606,781	78,097	866,169	3,318,187	9,403,881
1929	6,870	303,946	1,232,269	2,664,390	506,504	2,176,758	238,236	1,365,932	2,555,567	9,066,593
1930	11,699	579,919	1,155,988	2,055,593	474,565	1,911,182	181,233	1,013,042	5,846,179	11,405,915
1931	11,250	366,148	993,287	1,350,822	362,011	1,390,718	169,358	657,528	2,310,248	6,075,464
1932	6,151	216,019	857,594	1,552,117	436,513	1,629,130	160,288	681,156	2,590,187	6,668,669
1933	7,654	240,388	1,270,467	2,047,417	514,626	2,122,065	153,247	794,183	3,160,690	8,364,743
1934	51,373	574,365	1,728,567	2,637,488	876,747	2,748,623	158,520	936,942	4,684,064	11,581,482
1935	78,675	892,791	1,930,234	3,076,711	543,069	3,000,328	165,962	952,875	5,136,344	13,059,049

PRODUCTION OF CRANES, ELEVATORS, etc.

(Value in yen)

Year	Cranes Quantity	Cranes Value	Hoists, Conveyors, etc.	Elevators Quantity	Elevators Value
1926		8,727,437		9,847	
1927		4,369,902		2,325	
1928		6,757,231		7,777	
1929	2,538	4,052,380	4,157,486	502	1,408,330
1930	3,138	5,834,200	3,254,024	815	1,800,499
1931	396	1,828,835	2,174,962	519	1,502,950
1932	637	2,303,674	2,269,622	691	1,509,437
1933	1,278	5,402,508	4,607,460	614	1,238,638
1934	1,078	8,306,927	7,716,384	904	2,889,608
1935	1,339	12,961,504	10,134,238	640	2,118,757

PRODUCTION OF VARIOUS MACHINERY FOR INDUSTRIAL PURPOSES

(Value in yen)

Year	For Agriculture	For Building and Civil Engineering Work	Instruments for Farming, etc.	For Mining	For Spinning and Textile Industries	For Ceramic and Cement Industry
1926	6,126,536		4,389,531	2,241,981	18,883,435	997,926
1927	6,491,882		4,436,543	3,335,031	21,344,424	1,461,975
1928	6,595,176		3,854,062	5,221,161	28,804,281	1,221,839
1929	4,418,756	1,273,047	4,181,265	3,557,658	30,058,863	2,774,032
1930	3,589,150	751,150	3,016,369	3,124,345	21,221,689	1,387,210
1931	2,914,996	981,111	2,459,796	2,047,128	22,756,086	709,668
1932	4,297,720	898,830	3,187,430	3,060,091	27,478,898	1,044,278
1933	4,756,029	1,559,468	5,023,786	6,190,028	44,151,201	4,351,629
1934	5,720,304	1,351,098	5,178,672	9,672,126	64,653,507	5,258,333
1935	8,599,530	1,639,373	5,814,586	14,326,438	86,016,362	3,869,844

Year	Printing	For Sawmills	For Paper Manufacturing	For Various Chemical Industries	For Food Manufacturing	Printing Type	Miscellaneous
1926	2,440,522	1,397,646	2,100,520	1,825,134	3,362,918	1,113,687	7,736,500
1927	4,018,304	1,842,597	1,872,688	1,617,056	3,395,474	1,435,545	3,327,681
1928	4,826,703	1,890,320	2,020,132	2,117,131	3,900,812	1,453,085	3,488,396
1929	7,076,059	1,625,210	1,409,687	3,875,862	4,930,476	2,681,617	4,319,305
1930	6,006,587	1,034,264	957,295	2,895,738	5,887,896	1,903,982	3.151,624
1931	5,320,524	1,419,285	695,861	2,638,421	3,443,043	2,462,696	3,696,522
1932	6,615,661	1,354,372	509,207	4,869,055	3,563,442	1,855,639	5,271,977
1933	6,992,743	1,976,830	1,642,611	14,341,447	5,195,501	2,085,210	6,788,473
1934	7,496,270	2,336,224	2,731,426	21,662,391	7,447,799	1,988,371	8,335,473
1935	7,333,681	3.171,813	3,890,798	23,577,954	9,421,217	2,251,215	11,331,071

PRODUCTION OF MISCELLANEOUS INSTRUMENTS

(Value in yen)

Year	Safes	Gas Utensils	Water-service Apparatus	Valves, Cocks, etc.	Fly Wheels, Gears, Axles, etc.	Fittings and other Accessories	Others
1926	2,981,931	1,078,575	589,726	—	10,626,359	—	—
1927	2,585,416	407,042	1,223,757	—	12,104,986	—	—
1928	2,131,932	880,300	2,274,056	—	10,628,650	—	—
1329	1,935,008	940,621	2,724,438	3,929,240	3,497,804	21,253,630	42,687,650
1930	1,025,262	317,309	1,478,908	2,227,996	6,565,132	20,002,974	32,278,969
1931	1,200,092	406,968	1,136,255	1,641,080	5,962,705	11,660,398	32,121,271
1932	1,264,764	723,906	2,019,744	2,369,581	7,714,205	29,484,929	48,954,102
1933	1,486,533	1,049,967	1,610,242	3,623,998	14,310,795	38,256,100	72,104,704
1934	1,588,840	970,178	1,899,536	7,155,687	14,622,842	46,770,100	89,859,874
1935	1,785,588	1,913,606	1,571,696	8,270,095	21,689,987	85,077,533	98,318,435

PRODUCTION OF MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS, etc.

(Value in yen)

Year	Pianos	Organs	Violins, Mandolins, etc.	Others	Total	Gramophones	Arms
1926			3,087,683		3,087,683	1,433,578	15,536,865
1927			4,507,534		4,507,583	888,073	16,000,494
1928			5,187,348		5,187,348	837,390	22,294,332
1929	2,254,873	1,048,930	166,123	1,554,083	5,024,018	1,939,877	18,646,292
1930	1,878,800	1,016,210	119,188	1,147,472	4,161,670	2,096,439	13,141,067
1931	2,078,406	1,199,649	77,464	910,694	4,266,213	2,811,850	13,443,520
1932	1,907,456	941,951	52,184	994,383	3,868,974	3,110,657	23,185,829
1933	2,325,781	961,622	96,027	1,421,028	4,804,458	4,657,102	32,217,961
1934	2,465,038	931,591	134,802	1,943,023	5,474,454	6,355,129	42,162,028
1935	2,619,122	991,996	179,751	2,353,701	6,144,590	5,347,772	59,914,364

PRODUCTION OF SCIENTIFIC AND MEDICAL INSTRUMENTS AND TESTING MACHINES, etc.

(Value in yen)

Year	Experimental and Testing Machines	Scientific Instruments	Surgical, or Orthopædic Instruments	Surveying and Drawing Instruments	Registers, Typewriters, Adding Machines, etc.	Cameras, Magic Lanterns, Movie Cameras, etc.
1926	365,491	1,505,410	1,405,402	421,685	—	121,300
1927	569,452	798,785	1,827,135	299,541	—	1,113,697
1928	666,481	874,240	1,826,025	759,336	—	933,354
1929	736,400	7,175,891	2,295,556	904,369	1,529,458	769,608
1930	496,019	918,322	2,284,228	564,193	1,274,223	746,914
1931	481,364	476,407	1,902,771	427,924	1,388,942	1,126,227
1932	428,942	585,089	2,372,813	978,680	2,021,363	917,335
1933	1,414,604	871,644	4,572,566	778,229	2,157,272	1,085,272
1934	1,604,568	1,063,271	4,167,285	925,448	3,590,114	1,587,971
1935	1,469,971	1,879,028	4,970,556	1,153,736	3,697,656	2,570,575

PRODUCTION OF ELECTRICAL MACHINERY

(Value in yen)

Year	Dynamos		Electric Motors		Rotary Converters		Frequency Changers	
	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value
1926			51,080			23,661,235		
1927			61,131			21,299,433		
1928			66,900			20,421,677		
1929	13,949	7,913,875	77,039	16,032,609	6,610	1,714,285	9	52,151
1930	10,914	4,415,105	115,420	14,795,641	136	1,578,456	8	109,278
1931	3,953	4,865,869	88,083	10,369,400	1,161	1,082,559	6	22,251
1932	9,748	4,638,302	99,809	9,886,162	1,461	599,177	11	12,184
1933	58,600	7,720,547	195,005	21,553,794	1,269	1,470,000	3	14,006
1934	26,378	11,243,516	387,750	34,750,828	703	1,358,357	2	6,280
1935	13,285	14,784,166	374,319	43,914,591	10,042	1,776,216	2	13,276

Year	Transformers		Rectifiers		Electric Fans		Electric Heaters		Insulated Wires	Cables
	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value	No. Propuced	Value	No. Produced	Value		
1926									78,025,372	
1927									77,611,760	
1928									92,808,367	
1929	329,388	12,330,728	2,393	189,520	79,834	1,719,114	255,848	1,904,604	36,651,108	21,315,991
1930	387,333	9,307,652	3,628	160,218	88,047	1,855,294	218,797	989,583	27,134,916	18,051,756
1931	341,561	5,883,660	275	315,327	44,019	761,538	535,869	1,130,569	21,441,985	10,421,985
1932	290,887	6,618,334	2,881	156,547	35,328	610,008	542,766	1,311,409	26,329,442	10,189,503
1933	324,167	9,976,642	1,097	278,657	46,041	866,070	733,819	1,415,757	39,487,609	17,850,301
1934	416,970	15,400,423	3,640	238,892	76,234	1,188,010	985,948	2,124,990	42,929,887	16,185,546
1935	288,774	19,936,149	19,588	523,097	45,342	911,892	912.524	2,646,725	56,721,405	21,920,622

PRODUCTION OF ELECTRICAL INSTRUMENTS

(Value in yen)

Year	Instruments for Wireless Communication	Instruments for Telegraphic & Telephonic Comm's	Storage Batteries		Electric Batteries Dry Cells		Total	Other Electrical Instruments
			No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value		
1926					26,241,262			
1927					33,149,629			
1928					25,231,644			
1929	4,714,704	9,111,019	793,456	6,480,389	25,881,277	5,940,331	12,420,720	39,624,228
1930	6,357,315	9,109,054	205,753	4 144,403	70,576,043	9,658,359	13,802,762	29,294,850
1931	9,582,428	6,284,448	206,278	3,337,901	23,552,992	4,242,700	7,580,601	21,929,303
1932	11,552,221	7,034,435	281,980	3,425,373	33,032,783	5,172,392	8,597,765	24,167,329
1933	19,293,426	7,696,588	358,871	4,819,752	41,729,522	6,636,878	11,456,635	39,175,923
1934	26,420,734	13,143,143	154,111	6.575,986	51,425,306	7,268,713	13,844,699	50,722,078
1935	24,591,013	12,824,613	101,984	7,566,928	69,600,657	8,513,616	16,080,544	78,233,349

PRODUCTION OF ELCTRIC BULBS, SEARCHLIGHTS, etc.

(Value in yen)

Year	Electric Bulbs		Searchlights			
	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value	Others	Total
1926	63,630,842	15,225,423	—	—	—	—
1927	87,254,705	26,315,412	—	—	—	—
1928	97,549,985	24,327,175	—	—	—	—
1949	134,183,114	17,763,744	10,344	2,464,676	2,507,385	22,736,805
1930	114,811,775	15,192,305	20,752	2,400,744	3,539,177	21,132,225
1931	202,054,444	18,038,888	—	968,606	3,459,829	22,467,323
1932	286,653,068	19,685,338	169	831,379	4,692,485	25,209,302
1933	340,392,875	21,970,879	174	679,973	6,942,939	29,593,791
1934	310,750,142	19,997,704	154	893,804	7,115,004	28,006,512
1935	308,683,271	21,209,930	283	100,473	9,040,724	30,351,127

Locomotives and Rolling Stock

Of all the mechanical industries, few compare with that of the manufacture of locomotives and rolling stock in largeness of amount of production and value. Nearly 90,000 locomotives, passenger cars, freight cars, electric cars, etc., are owned by the Department of Railways of the Imperial Government, most of which manufactured in the Department's works in Omiya, Oi, Hamamatsu-cho in Tokyo, Takatori in Kobé, Kokura, etc. In addition they are manufactured by a few private companies.

When the first railway was constructed, in 1872, between Tokyo and Yokohama, locomotives were imported from Great Britain, so in the beginning nearly all the locomotives were of English-make, but later they were replaced by locomotives imported from America.

The first locomotive to be manufactured in Japan was turned out by a Kobé mill, now belonging to the Department of Railways, in 1893, and the Kisha Seizo Kaisha turned out its first in 1896. Later, in 1910, the Hyogo mill of the Kawasaki Shipbuilding Co., Ltd., started manufacturing locomotives on a large scale, and about the same time the Department of Railways began to do the same. From that time locomotive manufacturing developed at a great pace and since 1912 their importation has practically ceased. During the World War, the Nippon Sharyo Kaisha, Ltd., and the Kasado mill of the Hidachi Seisakusho were established, and in 1924 the Mitsubishi Shipbuilding Co., Ltd. entered the industry. At present Japanese works are not only filling home requirements but are exporting to Korea, Formosa, Manchoukuo and China.

The manufacture of passenger cars has also advanced. The highest speed of passenger trains has been increased to 64 m.p.h. and as the Japanese gauge is a narrow one of 3'6" it has been necessary to make intensive studies to reduce rolling. As the result of the studies, new devices have been applied and good results achieved.

Electric locomotives were first imported from Germany in 1912, but in recent years most of them are manufactured at the Omiya Works of the Department of Railways.

Through the popularity of streamline cars and locomotives and the attempt to make higher grade cars, locomotive and rolling stock manufacturing is showing great activity, especially those works which have orders from Manchoukuo. Making of higher grade cars has a direct bearing upon makers of parts and trucks. On account of increased demand for Diesel and gasolene locomotives, the demand for small-sized steam locomotives has somewhat slackened. But on the other hand, the demand for cars for electric tramways, etc. has increased.

Steam Locomotives Owing to the electrification of private railways and the more extensive use of gasolene cars, private railway companies use very few steam locomotives, and the makers have now hardly any orders coming to them except from the Department of Railways. There are still a few makers manufacturing small-sized locomotives for mining and public works but these are now being driven out by small-sized gasolene or Diesel locomotive builders. Some makers have, therefore, totally given up the manufacture of steam locomotives and are concentrating on the manufacture of locomotives using Diesel engines.

Electric Locomotives On account of the increased electrification of railways, great efforts are constantly being made for the improvement of electric locomotives especially by the application of electric arc welding and the lightening of weight. In future, the centre of gravity of locomotives will be lowered and the "streamline form" will be adopted in order to increase the speed.

New improvements such as sand sprinkling devices to prevent racing, or equipment to recover lost electric power, are constantly being experimented with.

Rolling Stock Orders coming from private railway companies for rolling stock are very small, being limited to a few gasolene or ordinary passenger cars. However, makers are well satisfied with orders coming from electric tramway companies, and especially wih orders coming from Manchoukuo.

Electric Cars Electric cars are divided into those equipped with motors and those not, the latter being subdivided into passenger, freight and emergency cars. In order to keep pace with the government railways the private railways are forging ahead with electrification and replacement of their equipment, giving bright prospects to the industry.

Aerial Cable Cars As the safety of aerial cable transport has come to be recognized, the fever for its construction has become intense. For the carriage of goods, various mining and cement companies are now changing from ground railways into aerial cables, making this industry very active, the activity being further stimulatd by construction of aerial cables in Manchoukuo.

Various Appliances Controllers, brakes, brake shoes, pointers, separators, etc. are successfully manufactured and the mills are fairly active.

PRODUCTION OF LOCOMOTIVES AND ROLLING STOCK

(Value in yen)

Year	Steam Locomotives No. Produced	Steam Locomotives Value	Electric Locomotives No. Produced	Electric Locomotives Value	Gas Locomotives No. Produced	Gas Locomotives Value	Fittings, etc.	Total Value
1926	231			13,453,346			—	13,453,346
1927	257			13,091,554			—	13,091,554
1328	287			18,893,325			—	18,898,225
1929	229	13,629,665	36	1,285,567	78	484,280	2,631.372	18,030,884
1930	233	9,400,067	41	884,035	129	1,192,624	270,255	11,748,481
1931	109	5,029,536	47	1,506,247	163	1,454,003	216,223	8,206,009
1932	60	2,976,606	47	503,464	223	1,333,485	298,250	5,111,805
1933	167	6,270,177	29	609,386	288	1,486,822	1,340,408	9,706.793
1934	192	12,485,274	71	2,392,319	236	824,323	1,091,564	16,793,481
1935	347	21,878,540	51	846,003	336	2,196,869	812,492	25,733,904

Year	Coaches and Freight Cars No. Produced	Coaches and Freight Cars Value	Fittings for Coaches and Freight Cars	Electric Cars No. Produced	Electric Cars Value	Fittings of Electric Cars	Rikisha No. Produced	Rikisha Value	Waggons
1926	3,936	12,122,955	—	828	7,418,375	—	1,277	85,900	—
1927	3,558	12,769,427	—	582	5,236,179	—	363	46,775	—
1928	5,597	16,873,994	—	845	7,564,572	—	950	92,100	—
1929	3,996	14,532,052	919,049	535	5,882,521	1,618,233	1,668	107,750	184,914
1930	3,831	9,306,425	1,582,700	355	3,607,416	3,672,732	947	75,610	161,005
1931	1,508	3,881,066	221,088	180	2,019,861	1,492,455	1,448	72,060	165,710
1932	1,106	3,980,922	181,345	178	1,259,789	213,153	489	50,400	458,515
1933	1,452	8,064,776	853,179	129	1,663,722	501,857	550	58,220	341,099
1934	2,640	15,070,988	2,703,857	189	1,530,634	285,731	848	64,561	118,757
1935	4,804	18,986,601	3,035,150	237	2,783,499	225,086	760	62,660	216,087

Aircraft

Introduction Captain Tokugawa was the first pilot to fly a heavier than air machine in Japan. This was in 1910. The manufacture of aircraft was commenced in the Army and Navy arsenals and manufacture under licence was farmed out to private companies, in this way the manufacture of aeroplanes was greatly encouraged and military and naval aircraft can now be satisfactorily manufactured at home.

History Dr. Ichita Kishi, a physician, constructed at his own expense various workshops in his own residence at Tsukiji, Tokyo, and, in 1914, with the help of several expert engineers, succeeded in constructing an aeroplane engine, the first to be maufactured in this country. A trial flight of the aeroplane using this engine was very suc-

cesful, so he manufactured his second aeroplane in 1916. In 1917, Mr. Nakajima, a retired engineer captain of the Navy, manufactured various kinds of aeroplanes with the help of Messrs. Mohei Ishikawa and Seibei Kawanishi. In 1920, the Aichi Tokei Denki Kaisha, Ltd. (Aichi Clock Electric Machinery Co., Ltd.) established an aeroplane department and in the same year turned out a seaplane. From that time this department has developed rapidly. In 1921, the Kawanishi Machine Company established an aeroplane factory in Hyogo, and started the manufacture of seaplanes in 1923. Also, in 1921, the Mitsubishi Aircraft Co., Ltd., brought nine experts in aeroplane manufacturing from Great Britain and began to manufacture both aeroplanes and engines on a large scale. The Kawasaki Shipbuilding Co., Ltd., following in the steps of the Mitsubishi Aircraft Co., Ltd., began manufacturing aeroplanes in 1922.

Present State of the Industry The aircraft manufacturing industry has shown considerable activity in recent years. Aside from military requirements, manufactures have received good orders from public bodies who have raised subscriptions to denote aeroplanes to the army and navy. Japanese manufactured civil planes have had many successes of late and orders have been coming in for these. Manufacturers of aircrafts at present are as follows :

MANUFACTURERS OF AIRCRAFTS

Year	Makers of Bodies and Motors	Makers of Balloons and Airships
1926	6	2
1927	6	2
1928	6	3
1929	6	3
1930	6	3
1931	7	2
1932	7	2
1933	8	2
1934	8	2
1935	8	3

Automobile Manufacturing

History The first automobile to be manufactured in Japan was by the Tokyo Motor Car Works, under the management of Mr. S. Yoshida, in the year 1909, but until the present progress has been very slow. In 1910, several military motor cars were manufactured for the Army in the Osaka Arsenal, and in 1911, the Tokyo Automobile Factory commenced the manufacture of "DAT" cars.

The Tokyo Gas and Electric Co., Ltd., began to manufacture military automobiles "T.G.E." in 1916, and trucks in 1917. In 1918, the Military Automobile Subsidy Act was put into force and this company was the first to get a subsidy from the Army Department under the act. In 1920 the Tokyo Ishikawajima Shipbuilding Co., Ltd., began to manufacture passenger cars. Companies other than the above which are making automobiles are Hakuyosha, Ltd., and the Oriental Automobile Co.

Present State of the Industry The motor car industry is perhaps the only one of all the heavy induistries in Japan of which the country has not anything to feel proud of to-day. While there are more than 176,000 cars, buses and trucks of all kinds in the country, almost all of them are imported, about 80 per cent of them being Chevrolets and Fords. Of the balance, a considerable number are other American and European makes. However, inasmuch as the motor car industry is as yet undeveloped a great future can be prophesied for it.

Passenger Cars The "Atsuta-go", modelled after the Nash and White, and from this year, the "Nissan" are the only passenger cars manufactured in Japan aside from the baby cars.

Buses and Trucks Bus and truck manufacturing is slightly better than passenger car making. The "Chiyoda" manufactured by the Tokyo Gas and Electric Co., and the "Sumida" made by the Jidosha Kogyo Kaisha have long histories. These companies are also jointly making the "Isuzu," designed by the Department of Commerce and Industry. These three classes of buses and trucks are supplied to the market in considerable numbers. Kyodo Kokusai Jidosha, which was established in 1933 by these two companies, is selling domestic trucks and buses of five classes. The Mitsubishi Heavy Industry Co., Ltd. is making the large-sized bus "Fuso-go" at its Kobé plant, the Kawasaki Sharyo Kaisha, Ltd. the truck and bus "Rokko".

Baby Cars and Motor Cycles Small motor cars are defined, in dimensions and power, by the "Regulations of Motor Cars" and include such small-sized cars as the "Dutsun" car, rear cars, etc. Rear cars have made a marvellous development in Japan as a means of carrying small parcels. Their production totals 15,000 a year, for they are not only in use throughout Japan but are exported to Manchoukuo, the

South Sea Islands, etc. The sales of small-sized cars like the "Datsun", are rapidly increasing.

Accessories and Parts Associations nd parts of motor cars used in Japan vere almost exclusively of American nake before replacement of the em- bargo on gold in 1931. Owing to the low exchange rate which followed thereafter their importation became very difficult and domestic makes took their place. At present, even Chevrolet and Ford parts are being replaced by demestic makes. They are also being exported.

PRODUCTION OF AUTOMABILES AND MOTOR CYCLES

(Value in yen)

Year	Imported Parts Assembled		Others		Accessories and Parts	Total	Motor Cycles	
	No.	Value	No.	Value	Value	Value	No.	Value
926			32,665					18,624,309
927			10,789					25,256,332
928			23,347					43,049,420
929	11,221	12,484,951	18,058	71,177,299	6,219,850	89,884,750	204	112,925
930	20,596	34,903,822	1,254	3,626,252	4,493,958	43,024,032	793	413,808
931	19,935	32,099,506	971	2,576,231	6,535,494	41,211,231	1,451	826,320
932	13,853	28,869,297	710	4,748,608	6,095,992	39,703,897	2,113	1,619,279
933	14,373	37,690,059	1,657	9,493,251	10,960,059	58,143,369	4,613	3,651,570
934	29,889	75,955,529	2,770	15,671,197	22,736,076	114,362,802	7,750	6,029,283
935	27,021	69,928,985	5,307	22,908,967	28,234,962	121,072,914	8,845	7,342,114

Imports of Automobiles In 1914 imports barely amounted to ¥500,000, but by 1929, they amounted to ¥30,000,000. Owing to the depression there was a drop to ¥20,000,000 in 1930, and to ¥14,000,000 in 1933. The figures then took an upward course, rising to ¥32,302,000 in 1934, ¥32,589,000 in 1935, and ¥37,036 in 1936.

IMPORTS OF AUTOMOBILES & ACCESSORIES

(Value in yen)

Year	No. of Automobiles	Value	Value of Accessories	Total Value
1926	2,362	5,324,535	10,397,666	15,722,201
1927	3,895	8,063,063	10,218,909	18,281,971
1928	7,873	13,770,655	18,474,167	32,244,822
1929	5,018	9,545,870	24,062,513	33,608,383
1930	2,591	4,896,992	15,178,000	20,773,000
1931	1,887	3,378,000	12,951,000	16,329,000
1932	997	2,894,000	11,927,000	14,821,000
1933	491	1,864,392	12,517,753	14,382,145
1934	896	3,357,061	28,945,163	32,302,224
1935	943	3,302,241	29,387,106	32 589,347
1936	1,117	3,577,000	33,459,000	37,036,000

Bicycle Manufacturing

History A bicycle was first introduced into Japan in 1881 by an Englishman. In 1889, an American brought a bicycle with him from America. In 1904, frames and other accessories were imported from Great Britain, and the making of bicycles at a lower cost became comparatively easy and bicycles became very popular.

Before 1913, accessories other than saddles, rims, and chains were being manufactured at home. Factories capable of manufacturing these latter articles on a large scale did not exist and it was impossible for small scale producers to compete against foreign products. From 1913 on, however, the demand for bicycles increased at great speed, and as the manufacturing of each of the above parts on a large scale became possible, bicycles came to be produced at a very low cost, though until the World War, those manufactured in Japan could not compete with European-made ones. During the War, the art of manufacturing advanced so much that domestic bicycles could well compete in both quality and price with imported ones, and not only were home demands satisfied, but the Japanese

product was exported to China, Russia, India and other countries.

Bicycles in 1935 Bicycles in use in Japan proper numbered 7,303,660, which means that one in every nine persons owned a bicycle. This compares favourably with Holland where the ratio is one bicycle to every seven persons. Moreover, the quality of bicycles made in Japan is so good that no country in the world can compete with her at the price at which she can sell. Exports of bicycles and accessories amount to ¥25,000,000 a year, and bicycles made in Japan can be seen in every country except Soviet Russia. There are some 800 manufacturers.

Conditions Suitable for Bicycles Conditions in this country are well suited to the use of this vehicle. The factors which have made for the increased demand are :

(1) Individual wealth is comparatively small and the use of automobiles has not yet become universal.

(2) Roads are mostly too narrow, though greatly improved of late, to take automobiles.

(3) The making of bicycles, especially accessories like rims, is purely artisans' work, and is a type of work in which the Japanese people excel.

PRODUCTION OF BICYCLES IN JAPAN

(Value in yen)

Year	No. Produced	Value	Value of Accessories Produced
1926	41,832	1,112,621	—
1927	89,629	3,093,083	—
1928	125,588	3,323,999	—
1929	90,285	2,593,051	16,138,063
1930	136,985	2,790,331	12,206,374
1931	105,088	2,022,013	13,747,235
1932	63,988	1,315,748	20,666,605
1933	118,405	2,164,804	26,396,495
1934	152,920	2,542,376	34,462,225
1935	90,885	2,260,889	38,889,853

The principal places of production are Tokyo, Osaka, Aichi, Hyogo, and Fukuoka prefectures.

Imports and exports of cycles and ascessories since 1926 are as follows :

Year	Imports	Exports
1926	5,923,000	1,959,000
1927	3,527,000	1,879,000
1928	1,634,000	2,557,000
1929	1,280,000	3,429,000
1930	1,563,000	5,274,000
1931	1,153,000	7,119,000
1932	795,000	6,028,000
1933	619,000	12,114,000
1934	73,308	18,904,257
1935	85,545	17,436,446
1936	27,000	20,575,000

Note:—Tyres are not included.

Imports of Machinery

Imports of machinery in 1935 totalled ¥158,984,000 and in 1936 ¥153,087,000. The increase over 1934, when imports were ¥143,590,000, was due to lower exchange rate and increase of imports of some special machinery on account of the general industrial activity in the country. However, these figures were smaller than the 1929 figures of ¥186,832,556.

Imports of machinery by Japan, excluding automobiles and their accessories, from 1919 to 1928, were somewhere between ¥100,000,000 and ¥140,000,000. There was a sharp reduction in 1930, and in 1931 the bottom was reached, but since then there has been a yearly increase. (See Chapter XI.)

IMPORTS OF MACHINERY (unit ¥1,000)

Articles	1929	1930	1931	1332	1933	1934	1935
Watches, and parts thereof	6,369	4,338	2,161	2,853	2,094	2,684	4,021
Clocks, and parts thereof	616	434	205	140	147	112	191
Microscopes, etc.	456	324	166	255	126	230	279
Ammeters, voltmeters, etc.	328	215	141	101	78	64	60
Wattmeters	907	367	401	211	99	63	74
Other meters	2,063	1,465	1,030	1,074	1,526	1,479	2,246
Electric batteries, and parts thereof	422	259	176	176	106	134	85
Surgical or orthopædic instruments	484	388	277	311	156	200	238
Surveying and drawing instruments	449	349	422	363	812	97	515
Registers, calculating machines, typewriters, etc.	1,924	794	738	590	574	1,020	1,247
Scientific instruments	2,998	2,429	1,017	1,039	1,049	1,003	1,529
Cameras, and parts thereof	1,088	1,423	1,419	966	765	1,418	2,582

Articles	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Gramophones, etc.	591	268	240	98	38	41	32
Musical instruments	940	576	375	296	185	182	197
Telegraphic and telephonic instruments	3,871	1,832	1,223	1,664	2,989	1,468	1,513
Other scientific instruments	—	—	—	1,681	2,140	1,264	1,659
Fire-arms	1,967	837	777	5,826	6,451	1,031	1,117
Railway carriages, etc.	1,420	234	132	74	47	65	62
Boilers	2,376	3,124	2,237	1,192	1,790	4,090	6,109
Fuel economizers	—	—	—	—	—	393	732
Steam turbines	825	1,024	695	182	58	430	804
Internal combustion engines (weighing not more than 250 kg.)	7,354	4,460	4,206	2,292	1,826	3,253	343
Internal combustion engines (weighing not more than 2,500 kg.)	5,224	3,897	5,486	9,507	13,954	17,277	14,801
Internal combustion engines (others)	5,535	6,119	1,237	667	366	247	413
Water-turbines and Pelton wheels	1,095	36	—	9	—	150	90
Dynamos, motors, etc. (weighing not more than 100 kg.)	1,926	1,491	1,126	1,405	1,372	829	1,044
Dynamos, motors, etc. (weighing not more than 5,000 kg.)	1,599	664	285	233	192	145	209
Dynamos, motors, etc. (others)	3,306	1,382	587	4	166	248	1,003
Transformers	653	354	162	111	64	85	75
Dynamos combined with motive machinery	1,325	1,199	161	47	112	2	6
Cranes	479	300	284	4	58	12	7
Capstans and other winding machines	1,347	1,215	142	34	117	35	90
Gas compressors	2,539	2,024	642	809	669	1,742	1,053
Sewing machines and accessories	9,501	4,066	2,924	3,265	2,183	5,866	6,473
Pumps	1,883	2,017	740	370	726	999	711
Blowing machines	1,464	1,436	541	161	145	231	192
Hydraulic presses	133	227	106	6	4	54	1,480
Pneumatic tools and machines	981	453	264	276	256	633	587
Metal or wood-working machines	5,622	4,849	3,069	5,807	16,246	21,433	18,295
Spinning machines	14,486	6,365	3,515	7,998	3,520	6,394	4,612
Weaving looms	637	279	55	106	12	40	224
Tissue-finishing machines	411	375	161	342	116	62	264
Knitting machines	222	814	145	75	82	1,773	1,645
Paper-making machine	346	127	38	37	9	—	616
Printing machines	1,631	690	195	291	20	224	502
All other machinery	24,486	20,767	11,908	12,463	11,440	11,510	16,730

Automobiles, cycles and steam vessels are not included.

Exports of Machinery

In 1936 Japan witnessed the highest record in exports of machinery of her own making. The value of exports was ¥174,541,000 which was an increase of 53 per cent as compared with the preceding year. The future of Japan's machinery manufacturing depends upon the degree to which her exports expand, and especially upon the development of The market is Manchoukuo. The invasion of Japanese products into the Dutch East Indian, Indian and other foreign markets is a matter of future prospect. The exportation of Japanese made spinning and weaving machines is very promising. The Toyoda Automatic Weaving Machines are very much in demand wherever the spinning industry prospers. Diesel-engines to be fitted into fishing vessels are built in Japan and shipped to the Dutch East Indies. Japanese made machines exported during the last three years follow :

	1934	1935 (In ¥1,000)	1936
Hanging clocks	1,561	1,567	1,584
Table clocks	1,659	1,832	1,916
Surgical instruments	1,439	2,203	2,516

	1934	1935 (In ¥1,000)	1936
Electric batteries	1,443	1,723	1,909
Meters	—	1,318	1,543
Physical and chemical instruments	2,494	945	981
Musical instruments	465	628	693
Telephonic instruments	5,241	5,066	5,562
Phonographs	3,263	3,601	4,491
Measuring instruments	—	709	1,239
Other scientific instruments	1,933	2,258	3,073
Steam boilers	2,652	1,901	1,731
Motors and dynamos	—	2,811	
Transformers	—	1,243	15,963
Switch boards	—	653	
Other electrical machinery	10,055	3,334	
Pumps	1,571	1,622	1,952
Metal or wood working machinery	1,189	1,941	4,907
Spinning machinery	6,281	8,977	15,121
Weaving machines	2,096	3,563	
Printing machines	1,127	1,104	1,000
Locomotives	8,422	13,776	15,087
Cranes	—	1,122	1,417
Internal combustion engines	—	1,910	4,058
Others and Total	124.892	141,205	174,541

Shipbuilding

Introduction

The mercantile shipbuilding industry in Japan developed with the shipping business, while the development of warship building was mainly due to the urgent demands created by the Sino-Japanese and the Russo-Japanese Wars.

Owing to the construction of new vessels to be placed on subsidized lines, easy money and low interest rates, the shipbuilding industry which had been depressed since the close of the World War, revived and boomed temporarily in 1928. Tonnage output, which in 1919 amounted to as much as 674,000 tons, dropped to 53,000 tons in 1926. This was increased to 112,583 tons in 1928 and to 167,365 tons in 1929. However, as the improvement was brought about artificiallyl and not by general improvements in economic conditions, the industry soon became dull again, and was further depressed by the enforcement of the conditions of the London Disarmament Agreement. Naval orders to private shipbuilding companies were reduced by 30%, which, together with the decreased orders from private transportation companies reduced the 1931 output to 84,004 tons and in 1932 to 58,763 tons.

Owing, however, to the subsidies granted by the Department of Communications since 1932 for the improvement of steamers, the shipbuilding industry has been fairly active. The subsidies were granted with an aim of constructing 200,000 tons of new steamers, and closed at the end of March, 1935. In addition to this, due to the low exchange rate, enquiries for steamers are forthcoming from Brazil, Siam, Italy, France, Sweden, Soviet Russia, Manchoukuo, China, etc. (See Chapter XXVI, Sea Transportation.)

Shipbuilding in 1936

The condition of the shipbuilding industry in Japan during 1936 was characterized by great activity throughout the year. The total tonnage of ships launched by the end of October reached 216,000 tons and it is estimated that with those launched from the beginning of November until the close of the year included, the total tonnage must have risen above the 280,000-ton level, thus doubling similar figures for the preceding year and quadrupling those for 1932.

Indications are that the shipbuilding circles in this country will witness still busier days this year. During the early part of November, 1936, there were already orders outstanding for ships totalling 600,000 tons, all of which had to be filled by the end of 1938. It is expected that the vessels already launched or to be launched by the end of 1937 will total more than 300,000 tons.

The recent rise in the prices of ma-

terials has been hindering the conclusion of new shipbuilding contracts but as soon as prices have become stable many new orders are expected to be placed. The optimism over shipbuilding prospects is backed by the scheduled construction of warships to replace superannuated ones, new building, and the construction of superior merchantmen.

The Navy's orders for new vessels are bound to increase from this year because the first non-treaty year arising from the expiration of the Washington and London naval treaties is intended to be marked with the commencement of a five-year shipbuilding programme. As the naval years are insufficient to execute this, a considerable portion of it is expected to be carried out at the hands of civilian shipbuilders. It follows that the shipbuilding companies, which already have too many orders to fill, will have to expand their facilities in order to meet the demand.

Under these circumstances, the business conditions of the shipbuilding companies are expected to continue improving although the raising of wages and increases in taxes may be inevitable. However, it is difficult for the shareholders of the shipbuilding companies to expect dividends of a higher percentage in view of the specific nature of the shipbuilding industry. Instead, payments on outstanding portions of shares and capital increases are possible. Special interest attaches to the expansion of the medium-size and small-scale shipbuilding companies.

The great activity of the shipbuilding companies in this country during 1936 were the most remarkable of the kind since the close of the European War. As already stated, the total tonnage of ships launched by the end of October reached 216,000 tons and the 280,000-ton mark is believed to have been exceeded by the end of the year. A comparison with similar figures for the preceding four years is tabulated below :

SHIPS LAUNCHED

	No. of Ships	Total Tonnage
1932	61	71,791
1933	67	79,820
1934	177	154,860
1935	195	145,901
1936 (Until October)	175	216,499

Some circles even estimate that the total tonnage of ships launched during the year may reach the neighbourhood of 300,000 tons which would more than double similar figures for the preceding year and quadruple those for 1932. Needless to say, the activities of the shipbuilding circles are based on the improvement in the shipbuilding business. In this respect, it may be noted that there has arisen the necessity of replacing those ships which were constructed hurriedly during the European War. Further, the need for superior ships from the standpoint of profits is also accelerating shipbuilding programmes.

The bright prospects of the shipping business and the anticipation of higher prices of ships combine to increase the number of ships planned for construction. To make the shipbuilders busier, the imports of petroleum have been increasing rapidly and have caused successive orders to be placed for tankers. The development of the whaling enterprises is also increasing the orders for new whalers and catcher boats.

Statistics shows that a total of 830,000 tons under construction and ordered at the close of 1936. In addition, there were naval orders placed with civilian shipbuilders.

Prospects The present conditions are such that it is anticipated that the shipbuilding boom will continue until 1939. Barring unforeseen developments, no sudden unfavourable changes are expected even after 1939. As a matter of fact, some of the orders in hands are intended to be filled by 1939 because earlier filling is considered difficult. In spite of this fact, further orders are expected to be forthcoming.

According to a survey, the ships under construction as on November 1 totalled 218,000 tons. In addition, there were a total of 377,000 tons involved in ships the keels of which were in process of being laid. These two items make a total of nearly 600,000 tons. Supposing that it takes one year to complete the construction of ships totalling 300,000 tons, two years will be required for the filling of the orders now being worked on. In other words, the shipbuilding companies will be kept busy until the end of 1938 by those orders alone.

Also to be considered in this connection is the fact that there will be more orders for ships forthcoming from the Navy as presaged by the enormous naval estimates, which represent an increase of over ¥100,000,000 when compared with similar figures for the preceding year. As it is considered urgent to construct capital ships for replace-

ment purposes in view of the advent of the non-treaty era, civilian shipbuilders are expected to be required to make good the shortage of facilities of the naval yards.

PRODUCTION OF VESSELS

(Value in yen)

Year	Steel Vessels No.	Steel Vessels Value	Ships Other Classes No.	Ships Other Classes Value	Total Value	Fittings of Ships
1926			1,956		62,608,381	2,386,822
1927			1,433		65,930,642	1,583,123
1928			1,890		48,894,095	1,872,064
1929	846	45,108,579	2,611	79,600,721	52,709,300	1,090,042
1930	269	111,590,483	2,376	3,547,239	115,137,722	807,727
1931	245	34,991,786	1,840	3,184,897	38,176,683	638,378
1932	509	44,224,579	1,987	1,880,400	45,104,979	475,363
1933	335	37,208,750	2,558	2,767,288	38,976,038	316,170
1934	277	53,481,053	2,588	3,994,369	57,475,422	448,353
1935	328	81,875,746	2,234	4,875,522	86,751,268	836,511

NUMBER OF DOCKYARDS, EMPLOYING MORE THAN 5 PERSONS AND THOSE EMPLOYED

End of	Dockyards	Officials	Technicians	Workmen	Others	Total
1926	—	2,507	3,393	86,391	2,192	94,283
1927	—	2,281	3,380	93,807	2,142	101,610
1928	—	2,628	3,464	91,237	3,110	100,439
1929	—	2,546	3,376	49,855	3,762	59,539
1930	—	2,224	3,002	38,036	3,675	46,937
1931	—	2,053	2,805	33,439	1,207	39,514
1932	—	1,832	2,495	33,611	1,262	39,200
1933	360	2,069	2,677	39,068	1,878	45,692
1934	394	2,267	3,026	50,116	1,520	56,929
1935	395	2,302	3,416	53,918	1,692	61,328

CHAPTER XX

UTILITIES

Electricity

Historical Survey

The electric light and power industry in this country dates from November, 1887, when the Tokyo Electric Light Company undertook to light 75 incandescent lamps, using a home-made generator installed at the first commercial plant at Nihonbashi, Tokyo.

Hydro-electric power production was started in 1891 in Kyoto in connection with the Lake Biwa canal works. Two motors of 80 kw. each were installed.

The electric railway industry began with the establishment of the Kyoto Electric Railway Co., Ltd., in 1895, followed by the Nagoya Electric Railway Co., Ltd., in 1898. With respect to long distance transmission of electric power, Koriyama Kenshi Boseki Kaisha, Ltd. (Koriyama Silk Spinning Co., Ltd.) succeeded, in 1889, in transmitting 10,000 volts 15 miles. In 1907, Tokyo Electric Light Co., Ltd., completed the hydro-electric power station of 15,000 kw. in Komabashi, Yamanashi prefecture, and succeeded in transmitting 55,000 volts for a distance of 50 miles. This marked a new era for the hydro-electric industry.

The Hydro-Electric Industry

For over 15 years after the electric power industry was first started, coal produced electric power was supreme, and the development of the hydro-electric industry was very slow. In 1903, of the total electric power of 44,000 kw., 31,000 kw. were produced by coal, the remaining 13,000 kw. were generated by water. However, after the Russo-Japanese War, the hydro-electric industry developed very quickly.

About that time, in view of the success in transmission of power for long distances, the Temporary Investigation Bureau of Hydro-Electric Power was established under the direct supervision of the Minister of Communications, and investigations as to the available water power were made throughout the country. As the result of these investigations and encouragement from the Bureau, hydro-electric power production quickly developed and by 1912 had increased to 233,000 kw. exceeding the thermally produced power by 4,500 kw. Development during and after the World War was rapid, especially after the great earthquake in the Kanto Distric in 1923. In 1933 the hydro-electric power developed totalled 3,168,705 kw., while the thermal power amounted to 1,827,131 kw. The rapid increase in production finally resulted in an oversupply of power, a factor which later became the weakness of the industry. However, a combination of factors has aided the industry to regain prosperity. At the end of 1935 the number of concerns engaged in the electric business was 818, and the number of private electric plants in factories, etc. was 8,398. The total capacity of these 9,216 plants aggregated 6,050,000 kw., the hydro-electric 3,410,000 kw. and the thermal-electric 2,640,000 kw. Plants under construction were to have a further combined capacity of 2,090,000 kw.

ELECTRIC POWER GENERATED FOR INDUSTRIAL PURPOSES
(in kw.)

Year	Hydro-electric	Thermal	Total
1907	38,622	76,288	114,910
1912	233,339	228,864	462,203
1917	511,090	364,474	875,563
1918	597,124	386,842	983,966
1919	710,929	422,314	1,133,243
1920	825,387	552,159	1,377,546
1921	914,744	611,974	1,526,718
1922	1,070,060	709,113	1,779,173
1923	1,307,706	755,079	2,062,785
1924	1,474,357	763,146	2,237,503
1925	1,813,508	954,633	2,768,141
1926	1,965,970	1,236,644	3,202,614
1927	2,111,087	1,356,044	3,467,131
1928	2,290,351	1,531,703	3,822,054
1929	2,581,949	1,611,674	4,193,623
1930	2,797,637	1,601,677	4,399,314
1931	3,056,936	1,599,588	4,656,524
1932	3,105,930	1,827,131	4,933,061
1933	3,168,705	1,912,037	5,080,742
1934	3,268,834	2,223,113	5,491,947
1935	3,407,997	2,638,572	6,046,569

TOTAL VOLUME OF ELECTRIC POWER GENERATED FOR LIGHTING AND INDUSTRIAL PURPOSES

(In kw. h.)

		Rate of Increase
1926	9,091,211,608	17.5
1927	9,746,104,610	7.2
1928	11,060,496,894	13.5
1929	12,207,749,306	10.4
1930	12,160,082,885	—
1931	11,892,215,264	—
1932	12,557,696,988	5.6
1933	16,961,724,058	35.1
1934	18,793,610,146	10.8
1935	21,548,700,173	14.7

Trend of Demand

For Lighting In 1935 the number of electric-lighted households increased by 233,259 as compared with the previous year, the number of lamps being 61 to every 100 persons. Of the total number of electric lamps which reached 42,477,828 in 1935, those in the 127 cities comprised 55 per cent, the average number of lamps in an urban household being 5.2.

The growth of the demand for power for lighting purposes in the country as a whole and in the prefectures, in 1935, is as shown in the followng two tables :

GROWTH OF DEMAND FOR POWER FOR LIGHTING

Year	No. of Consumers	No. of Lamps	Candle-power	Electric Power
1926	10,165,739	30,159,042	547,918,369	683,584
1927	10,547,235	32,322,991	605,604,846	736,169
1928	10,847,432	33,909,420	656,348,698	797,458
1929	11,170,618	35,893,353	704,634,862	863,046
1930	11,352,372	36,839,607	728,869,987	887,703
1931	11,446,539	37,413,988	782,340,943	959,144
1932	11,530,440	38,048,413	799,183,116	978,846
1933	11,383,235	38,382,771	810,000,000	990,000
1934	11,715,694	40,532,219	—	—
1935	11,948,953	42,477,828	—	—

ELECTRIC LIGHTING IN VARIOUS PREFECTURES AT THE END OF 1935

(Number of lights per 100 persons)

Prefecture	No.	Prefecture	No.	Prefecture	No.	Prefecture	No.
Tokyo	123.8	Yamanashi	36·4	Osaka	87.4	Hiroshima	61.9
Kanagawa	87.2	Aichi	70.6	Kyoto	125.6	Tottori	47.8
Saitama	43.4	Miyé	50.3	Hyogo	83.0	Shimané	50.0
Gumma	45.4	Gifu	54.3	Nara	64.7	Okayama	60.8
Chiba	40.6	Nagano	49.3	Shiga	57.0	Yamaguchi	55.8
Ibaraki	27.9	Fukui	75.4	Wakayama	59.4	Kagawa	50.6
Tochigi	35.7	Ishikawa	70.7	Tokushima	44.0	Ehimé	47.2
Shizuoka	57.0	Toyama	58.5	Kochi	45.1	Kumamoto	51.2
Nagasaki	38.9	Miyazaki	39.7	Niigata	50.4	Yamagata	36.4
Fukuoka	57.4	Kagoshima	29.0	Fukushima	31.5	Akita	29.9
Oita	54.9	Okinawa	6.8	Iwaté	26.0	Hokkaido	37.7
Saga	48.0	Miyagi	40.2	Aomori	37.2	Average	61.3

For Power Purposes The increase of demand for electric power is even more marked than that for light. At the end of 1935, the power contracted for reached 3,129,071 kw.

Electric power for purposes other than lighting or motive power contracted for amounted to 183,945 kw. The increase in demand for electric power for industrial purposes deserves special notice and the following table showing the amount consumed in the chief consuming industries in 1934 and 1935.

AMOUNT OF ELECTRIC POWER CONSUMED BY VARIOUS KINDS OF INDUSTRIES, ETC.

at the end of 1934 and 1935

(In 1,000 kw.)

	1934	1935
Textile	552	574
Metal	501	676
Machinery	203	229
Ceramics	211	242
Chemical	773	825

Saw mills and wood-working	145	151
Printing and bookbinding	21	23
Foodstuff	311	320
Mining	302	333
Agricultural and aquatic	81	84
Miscellaneous	74	70
Other than industry	641	645
Total	3,818	4,178

Electric Power Suppliers

The following tables show the number of suppliers of electric power with the power supplied in 1935.

POWER SUPPLY COMPANIES

Year		Generating Water	Steam	Purchasing	Total
1931	Opened	305	45	385	733
	Unopened	5	7	28	40
	Total	310	52	411	733
1932	Opened	366	59	391	816
	Unopened	8	5	21	34
	Total	374	64	412	850
1933	Opened	345	56	417	818
	Unopened	7	3	15	25
	Total	352	59	433	843
1934	Opened	331	60	413	804
	Unopened	11	3	12	26
	Total	342	63	425	830
1935	Opened	319	59	410	788
	Unopened	12	3	15	30
	Total	331	62	425	818

The rate of profit earned by all companies is as shown in the follwing table:

PROFITS OF ELECTRIC INDUSTRY

1924–1934

Year	Paid-up Capital	Profit	Rate of Profit against Paid-up Capital
1926	2,453,588,000	279,331,000	11.0
1927	2,677,153,000	279,541,000	10.5
1928	2,868,717,000	282,880,000	10.0
1929	3,019,222,000	301,900,000	10.0
1930	3,180,810,000	255,800,000	8.0
1931	3,234,181,000	227,061.830	7.0
1932	3,326,834,000	195,887,000	5.9
1933	3,494,202,000	183,100,000	5.2
1934	3,956,686,518	205,005,470	5.2
1935	4,124,389,526	225,730,583	5.5

Electric Industry in 1936

There was a rapid increase in the demand for electricity during 1936, the demand for electric power being greater than that for electric light, the increased demand for power being engendered by the increase in industrial activity.

The receipts of the electric companies have included large amounts from electric light charges in the past, but at present the greater part of the receipts consists of electric power charges, attributable to the increased demand for power and electricity for general heating purposes, electrolizing, and the electric furnace industries. The increasing tendency of this kind of demand has been going on for five years but it becomes more conspicuous every year.

A large number of new thermal and hydraulic power stations were constructed during 1936, but in spite of the expansion no signs of over-production have appeared.

During the tenure of the Hirota Cabinet, there existed misgivings over the prospects of the stocks of the electric industry under State management. These misgivings, however, have been removed, at least for the time being, as a result of the postponement of the electric control plan by the Hayashi Cabinet. It must be noted that the Hayashi Cabinet postponed the plan in view of the dissatisfaction and opposition voiced by the industrialists.

In its stead it has been decided to enforce a licensing system for the fixing of electricity charges. As this system aims at the supply of electricity of good quality, both in abundance and at low rates, it must be anticipated that the possibility of the electric companies receiving increased profits has lessened.

Demand on Upward Trend A further increase was recorded during 1936 in the demand for both electric light and electric power. The demand advanced even after the outbreak of the February 26 Incident which caused chaos to prevail in financial circles for a time. The total number of electric lamps installed by the electrical bureau of the Tokyo Municipal Office, the Tokyo Electric Light Company and the electrical bureau of the Osaka Municipal Office during the year reached the prodigious total of 17,580,000, showing an increase of 920,000 lamps or 5.5 per cent as compared with the end of the preceding year. The increase was bigger than that for 1935 by 1.5 per cent. The following is a table showing the increasing demand for electric light during recent years :

DEMAND FOR ELECTRIC LIGHT

(In units of 1,000 lamps)

	Tokyo Electric Light Company	Tokyo Municipal Electrical Bureau	Osaka Municipal Electrical Bureau
1931	10,246	1,046	2,882
1932	10,607	1,078	2,984
1933	11,002	1,119	3,084
1934	11,374	1,161	3,434
1935	11,869	1,214	3,581
1936	12,567	1,263	3,749

The rate of increase in the demand for electric power has been even higher than that for electric light, the total demand in 1936 was for 1,360,000 kilowatts, an increase over the preceding year of 98,000 kilowatts or 7.6 per cent. Details of the increasing demand for electric power during recent years are shown below :

DEMAND FOR ELECTRIC POWER

(In units of 1,000 kilowatts)

	Tokyo Electric Light Company	Tokyo Municipal Electrical Bureau	Osaka Municipal Electrical Bureau
1931	742	39	147
1932	816	41	157
1933	887	42	166
1934	931	43	187
1935	1,016	44	204
1936	1,095	47	220

The business receipts of the electrical organizations have also increased, especially in the case of electric power charges. The greater part of the receipts has been derived from supply of electric light in the past but the electric power charges have gradually replaced the electric light charges as the principal item in the receipts of the electrical organizations. This tendency has of late become all the more conspicuous.

The receipts derived from the supply of electric light are seasonal. The receipts from the supply of light during 1936 were for the latter half of the year, smaller than those for the first half, but the receipts from electric power charges were free from any such influence. Details of the receipts from electricity charges during the four years beginning with 1933 are shown in the following table :

RECEIPTS FROM ELECTRICITY CHARGES

(In 1,000 yen)

	Tokyo Electric Light Co.		Toho Electric Power Co.	
	Light Charges	Power Charges	Light Charges	Power Charges
1st half, 1933	31,962	25,096	11,806	12,569
2nd half, 1933	29,475	25,434	10,715	12,009
1st half, 1934	31,869	28,379	11,509	13,732
2nd half, 1934	31,049	29,226	10,999	13,954
1st half, 1935	33,457	33,400	11,787	15,084
2nd half, 1935	32,098	34,135	11,273	15,420
1st half, 1936	35,161	37,596	12,264	16,658
2nd half, 1936	33,404	38,633	11,473	16,487

Expansion of Facilities Not a few heat-engine and hydraulic power stations were newly established during 1936. The Sasado plant of the Daido Electric Power Company, the Kasagi plant of the same company, the Kanetsuri plant of the Nihon Electric Power Company, the Nagura plant of the Toho Electric Power Company and the new hydraulic power plant of the Oigawa Electric Power Company were all completed during the year. The Tsurumi plant of the Tokyo Electric Company, the Nagoya plant of the Toho Electric Power Company and the facilities of the Kwansai Kyodo Electric Power Company were expanded. Along with the expansions in industry following the advent of the quasi-emergency situation, new expansion programmes had to be worked out to meet the increasing demand for electricity, thus presenting the most active conditions in the electric industry for several years.

Increase in Dividend Despite the fact that the electric industrialists were kept busy considering measures to cope with the plan of the Hirota Cabinet to place the electric industry under State management, the Tokyo Electric Company increased its dividend shareholders

to 8 per cent while the Daido, Uji and Godo electric power companies increased their dividends by one per cent each. The dividends of the Kwanto, Japan Sea, Chuo, Kinugawa and Fuji electric companies were also increased. Besides increasing their dividends, the Uji and Nihon electric power companies raised their capitalizations.

Merger of Leading Companies The Dai-Nippon Electric Power Company absorbed the Tobu Electric Power Company while the Toho Electric Power Company has decided to absorb the Godo Electric Power Company. Mergers of several local companies also took place. It is to be noted in this connection that the merging of the electric power companies in recent times is principally aimed at the expansion and strengthening of their organization as a means of providing against possible disturbances in the future and as such is considerably different from former times when such mergers were effected usually by way of readjustment necessitated by business depression.

Assets and Liabilities The assets and liabilities of the various electric power cmpanies increased on account of the expansion programme which became necessary because all the idle facilities had been put into use to meet the needs of the new situation.

The Toho called in a part of its unpaid share capital to pay off some of its indebtedness, a noticeable fact in the following statistics, where internal liabilities have increased in proportion to the decrease in external liabilities, evidencing a soundness of business policy.

Details of the assets and liabilities of the Tokyo Electric Light Company and the Toho Electric Power Company during the past four years are tabulated as follows :

1. ASSETS

(In 1,000 yen)

	Tokyo Electric Light Co.		Toho Electric Power Co.	
	Fixed Assets	Floating Assets	Fixed Assets	Floating Assets
1st half, 1933	779,598	139,013	160,273	130,775
2nd half, 1933	774,313	134,758	160,132	111,662
1st half, 1934	768,074	132,291	159,509	125,552
2nd half, 1934	765,983	144,732	160,225	117,302
1st half, 1935	765,307	151,920	161,846	109,612
2nd half, 1935	769,184	148,194	164,211	113,522
1st half, 1936	769,838	148,659	169,126	106,125
2nd half, 1936	772,691	151,317	171,203	106,429

2. LIABILITIES

(In 1,000 yen)

	Tokyo Electric Light Co.		Toho Electric Power Co.	
	Internal Liabilities	External Liabilities	Internal Liabilities	External Liabilities
1st half, 1933	462,108	456,504	144,788	146,261
2nd half, 1933	462,119	446,952	145,237	126,558
1st half, 1934	461,821	438,533	146,828	138,233
2nd half, 1934	472,959	437,756	247,982	129,544
1st half, 1935	481,379	435,849	166,275	105,182
2nd half, 1935	488,090	429,288	168,199	109,534
1st half, 1936	490,426	428,071	187,036	88,216
2nd half, 1936	493,658	430,350	187,827	89,806

Decline in Stock Value Electric shares began to lose popularity when the plan of the Hirota Cabinet for "an electric industry owned by private organizations and managed by the State" was about to be presented to the 70th session of the Imperial Diet because the realization of the plan would have limited dividends to shareholders. Even the shares of those copmanies not covered by the plan came to be disliked by investors on account of the anticipated enforcement of a licensing system for the fixing of electricity charges, and electric shares, which were at a high level immediately before the formation of the Hirota Cabinet, suddenly commenced to fall.

The highest and lowest quotations for shares of the various electric companies during 1936 are tabulated as follws :

Description	Highest	Lowest
Tokyo Electric Light	¥65,90	¥50.30
Daido Electric Power	55.50	39.90
Toho Electric Power	65.01	52.80
Nihon Electric Power	61.70	46.90
Ujigawa Electricity	56.30	42.30
Kyushu Hydraulic Power	59.80	50.50
Dai-Nippon Electric Power	67.50	51.60
Kinugawa Hydro-electricity	54.40	42.00
Toshin Electricity	79.70	65.10
Hokkai Hydraulic Power	44.50	38.50
Kwanto Hydraulic Power	77.50	55.90
Chubo Electric Power	63.00	55.50
Chuo Electricity	62.50	56.00
Godo Electricity	54.00	46.40
Hiroshima Electricity	63.20	52.20
Kyoto Electric Light	65.80	51.50
Chugoku Godo	76.00	57.20
Kumamoto Electricity	77.80	59.50
Taiwan Electric Power	54.80	50.50

The highest quotations of electric shares were recorded in February and the lowest in November when it was definitely decided that the plan to place the electric industry under State management would be submitted to the Diet session.

Prospect It is anticipated that the increasing demand for electricity will continue in 1937. As the enormous budget of the 1937–38 fiscal year becomes effective on April 1, industrial facilities will be expanded and productive capacity increased, advances being expected in the machinery manufacturing, chemical and pharmaceutical industries especially.

On the other hand, the price of coal will rise, but profits are expected to increase to a greater extent than that of the rise in the fuel price. The "extraordinary situation" boom will be particularly remarkable in the electric heating, electrolizing and electric furnace industries. It follows that the conditions of the electric light and electric power companies will improve.

Licensing System The proposed licensing system for the fixing of electricity charges will become effective after December, 1937. Under this system, the Ministry of Communications is to conduct a careful examination before authorizing the electricity charges fixed by the various companies. Although it is unlikely that the Ministry of Communications will force a reduction of the charges by a wide margin, it has already been made known that the Ministry expects the supply of electricity of good quality at once, in abundance and at low rates.

As the standard for computing electricity charges will be decided on the basis of the yields of public bonds and in consideration of fair profits derived from enterprises, electricity charges will inevitably be reduced gradually. Indications are that appliance rents will be reduced by as much as 50 per cent. This means that the receipts of the various companies concerned will be greatly affected.

As regards the limitation of dividends to shareholders, direct interference by the Government is now considered unlikely as the tenure of office of the Hirota Cabinet has come to a close and the threatened control has not received the same support from his successors. Nevertheless, barring special circumstances, dividends are not expected to be more than 8 per cent under prevailing conditions.

Gas Industry

Introduction

When compared with the electric industry, the gas industry has been very slow in its development. The introduction of gas took place in 1885, when it was used in Yokohama for street lighting purposes. Later in the same year Tokyo adopted it for the same purpose. The capital invested in 1885 was ¥54,000, and a slow but steady increase took place until 1925, when the invested capital stood at ¥276,373,000. After that year the industry made great strides as the following figures show :

End of	Material Consumed	Supply		Consumption			
	Coal	Output	Amount Supplied to Consumers	No. of Consumers	No. of Lights and Burners	Motors	
						Number	Horse-power
	Metric ton	Thousand cubic metres	Thousand cubic metres				
1926	904,087	444,890 * 42,580	423,932	795,226	2,043,829	429	6,638
1927	1,036,552	496,810 * 68,096	486,911	953,688	2,234,722	358	6,524
1928	1,191,007	576,140 * 88,884	578,493	1,212,024	2,623,257	308	6,162
1929	1,343,137	639,972 * 88,566	653,837	1,462,221	3,057,487	265	6,023
1930	1,305,297	668,329 * 103,088	700,249	1,622,982	3,438,194	224	4,712
1931	1,329,869	691,222 * 89,742	740,081	1,716,662	3,704,090	193	3,307
1932	1,283,216	734,188	712,717	1,785,205	3,921,620	186	3,237
1933	1,402,000	770,447	709,967	1,866,369	4,145,549	—	—
1934	—	1,046,639	741,787	1,906,409	4,242,215	—	—
1935	—	1,219,746	771,534	1,995,000	4,453,919	—	—

Note: * Aqueous Gas.

Gas Industry in 1936

A further improvement in the conditions of the gas industry was achieved during 1936, partly because the demand for gas continued to increase and partly because the profits derived from coke and other by-products swelled rapidly, and in spite of a rise in the price of coal.

The expansion work in the gas industry, started following the emergence of the extraordinary situation, has been practically completed. As the need for the installation of iron pipes and machinery has decreased, the effect of the higher prices of these will not be felt to any great extent by the gas industry.

Gas charge will continue to be lowered in many cases. The gas charges in Tokyo, Kyoto and Kobe have already been lowered as a result of the adoption of the licensing system for the fixing of electricity charges. Except in Yokohama, the charges in the six principal cities of the country are now not considered high. The licensing system for electricity charges, which is scheduled to be enforced after December, 1937, is expected to be followed by a reduction in the gas charges of the local gas companies.

During 1936, the Kyoto Gas Company, one of the six leading organizations of the kind, reduced its dividend to shareholders by 2 per cent. It is expected that some of the local gas companies will have to reduce their dividends in 1937.

Continued Active Demand The demand for gas, being on an upward trend since the start of the extraordinary situation, recorded a further increase during 1936. The increase was particularly remarkable in the case of the Tokyo Gas Company, reflecting the increased activities in the munitions industry and the permeating of the "extraordinary situation" boom to the lower classes. The consumption of the gas produced by the Tokyo and Toho Gas Companies during the past six years is tabulated as follows:

GAS CONSUMPTION

(In units of 1,000 themal units)

	Tokyo Gas Co.	Toho Gas Co.
1932	143,115	14,524
1933	149,842	14,382
1934	154,880	13,691
1935	158,298	14,028
1936	164,002	15,018

Illustrative of the relations between the extraordinary situation and the demand for gas is the fact that the rate of increase in the demand for gas has been higher than that of the increase in the number of gas-meters installed. The gas-meters installed by the Tokyo and Toho Gas Companies during the past four years are shown below:

Gas-Meters Installed

	By Tokyo Gas Co.	By Toho Gas Co.
At end of 1933	826,200	75,609
At end of 1934	826,539	76,310
At end of 1935	864,511	77,468
At end of 1st half of 1936	880,779	80,436
At end of 2nd half of 1936	907,664	83,752

Note: The figures for the Toho Gas Company during the 2nd half of 1936 do not cover any increase after September.

Decreased Expenditure The industrial expenditure of the six leading gas companies in the country, when considered as a whole, is now on a downward trend. When considered separately, the expenditures of the four companies other than the Tokyo and Seibu Gas Companies show a slight but insignificant, increase in 1936, as compared with the prceding year and 1934.

On account of their specific nature, the gas companies are not in a position to increase their dividends to shareholders, consequently surplus funds are being placed to reserve. The shrinkage in the amount of industrial expenditure may be attributed partly to the fact that part of the expenses required for expansion work were included in business expenditure acconts. A comparison of the industrial expenditure of the six leading gas companies during the past three years is tabulated below :

INDUSTRIAL EXPENDITURE

(In 1,000 yen)

Companies	1934	1935	1936
Tokyo	134,524	135,018	135,898
Osaka Gas	46,383	49,197	51,078
Toho	9,359	9,302	10,040
Kyoto	12,968	13,524	*13,670
Kobe Gas	14,889	15,237	15,921
Seibu Gas	4,933	5,030	*4,926

* Do not cover the period after July.

Profits from By-Products The profits derived by the various gas companies from their by-products have increased rapidly since the commencement of the extraordinary situation. The by-products include coke, coal-tar, ammonium sulphate, crosote and cresol, the first named being the principal item. The rise of the metallurgic and refining industries accounts for the increased demand for cokes. A comparison of the receipts from gas with profits derived from by-products of the Tokyo Gas Company and the Toho Gas Company is shown in the following table :

	Tokyo Gas Co.		Toho Gas Co.	
	Gas Charges (1,000 yen)	Profits Derived from By-Products (1,000 yen)	Gas Charges (1,000 yen)	Profits Derived from By-Products (1,000 yen)
1933	32,476	5,941	2,994	1,156
1934	33,513	7,475	3,084	1,427
1935	34,280	8,633	3,116	1,760
1936	35,536	9,346	3.228	1,765

Prospects The foundation of the gas industry has become consolidated, for while the demand for gas has been steadily increasing, industrial expenditure has been on a downward trend. Furthermore, the profits derived from by-products have been increasing rapidly. In spite of the rise in the price of coal and the higher prices of iron pipes and machinery, the gas companies have been operating satisfactorily. Sound conditions are also expected to be witnessed in 1937.

Of late, gas charges have begun to be reduced. From January, 1937, the gas charges of the Tokyo Gas Company for the new city and adjoining districts were reduced from ¥2.18 to ¥2.08 per 10 thermal units. It has also been announced that a further reduction by ¥0.09 will be carried out in April, 1938. The Kyoto Gas Company has decided to raise the heating quality of the gas it supplies from 3,800 to 4,000 calories and to reduce its rent for appliances. On this account, its dividend has been reduced by 2 per cent. The Kobé Gas Company has also effected a reduction of its gas charges.

As all the leading gas companies have reduced their charges, there will be no more question in this direction during the current year (1937). It may be repeated that the lowering of gas charges has come as a result of the adoption of the licensing system for the fixing of electricity charges. In view of the fact that this licensing system will be enforced after December, 1937, throughout the country, local gas companies are

expected to be affected as the gas charges imposed by many of them are still considered too high.

BUSINESS RESULTS OF GAS COMPANIES

(In ¥1,000)

March	Paid-up Capital	Fixed Capital	Profit	Percentage of Profit against Fixed Capital	Dividend Rate
1930	350,232	459,686	48,874	9.2%	9.6%
1931	382,930	555,614	50,896	9.0	8.7
1932	395,632	571,564	51,452	8.7	8.3
1933	400,908	580,053	50,317	9.1	8.0
1934	419,096	584,323	53,029	9.1	7.8
1935	440,210	585,998	60,295	13.6	7.6
1936	458,196	591,637	70,302	11.9	7.8

Warehousing

History

Since warehousing depends on the storing of large quantities of goods, transportation facilities are the factors which influence its success, an expansion of one calls for an expansion of the other and, in Japan, it was the development of transport facilities in the days of Meiji which gave rise to the modern warehousing business.

Warehouses of kinds have always existed. Emperors in olden times kept rice and cereals in warehouses for military purposes. Later, cereals were kept to provide for relief of the people in case of poor crops, but in either case, the warehouses were used for military or political, not commercial, purposes. When the Tokugawas came to rule the country as Shoguns about three hundred years ago, both Yedo (present Tokyo) and Osaka became great cities where trade and commerce flourished. Transportation by sea developed, and many feudal lords came to reside in these cities, bringing with them, or having sent to them, the agricultural products of their country districts. The produce was stored at the lords' residences, which became, in a sense, public warehouses. The produce was sold by public tender and to the successful bidder a memorandum was given against receipt of payment in cash. This memorandum was equivalent to the warehouse receipt of the present day, and the holder of the memorandum was authorized to keep his cereals in the warehouses for the time stipulated on it. Loans were often raised with memoranda as collaterals.

After the Restoration, owing to development of commerce and activity in the movement of goods, many warehouse businsses were started, the first company, to operate on a modern basis being the Soko Kaisha in Fukagawa, Tokyo, established in 1881 with a capital of ¥65,000. Dissolution took place 3 years later. In Osaka, the Konoiké family organized the Osaka Soko Kaisha with a capital of ¥200,000 in 1882. In 1883, the Sanbashi Kaisha in Kobé, and in 1884, the Otsu Soko Kaisha in Otsu in Shiga prefecture, were established. In 1886, the Tokyo Soko Kaisha, Ltd., was founded by the Iwasaki family. After that year there was no great change until after the Sino-Japanese War, when with increased foreign trade and improved transportation ficilities by land and sea, the number of warehouse companies rapidly increased. In 1906, there were 536 people engaged in the warehouse business, either on private account or on an incorporated basis.

Present State of the Business

At the end of 1936 the number of warehouse managements which belonged to the Japan Warehouse Association was 127, the value of commodities stored, being, on the average throughout the year, ¥614,381,000. However, there are many warehouse managements, incorporated or otherwise, which do not belong to the Association. According to an investigation made by the Department of Commerce and Industry, the number of warehouse managements in the country totalled 345 in 1935.

Value of Commodities The values of commodities stored in the 107 warehouses, above mentioned were as follows :

STOCKS IN WAREHOUSES IN JAPAN PROPER

(According to the Japan Warehouse Association)

Year	Average			End of June			End of December		
	Warehouses	1,000 Parcels	Value ¥1,000	Warehouses	1,000 Parcels	Value ¥1,000	Warehouses	1,000 Parcels	Value ¥1,000
1927	98	19,162	511,307	98	18,869	545,386	96	20,278	518,036
1928	99	20,105	500,294	100	18,467	519,851	99	19,960	471,490
1939	98	22,295	497,271	99	23,272	533,403	97	22,299	473,253
1930	98	23,691	483,436	99	24,866	603,941	97	21,270	356,844
1931	96	22,322	432,715	96	22,113	458,917	96	24,134	410,988
1932	97	26,732	510,957	98	29,712	546,683	98	23,134	486,144
1933	101	27,041	577,555	99	28,901	629,965	105	28,892	585,085
1934	107	37,467	719,276	108	40,208	775,846	107	33,016	661,809
1935	108	31,750	645,913	107	33,449	686,155	111	27,284	537,809
1936	127	29,461	614,381	114	39,935	683,639	155	26,026	539,635

Stocks in Warehouses by Districts

Year	Tokyo-Yokohama District			Kobe-Osaka District			Other District		
	Warehouses	1,000 Parcels	Value ¥1,000	Warehouses	1,000 Parcels	Value ¥1,000	Warehouses	1,000 Parcels	Value ¥1,000
1927	19	5,885	148,878	13	7,869	259,978	64	6,523	109,179
1928	19	4,644	130,908	13	7,821	226,993	67	7,494	113,587
1929	19	5,590	153,982	14	9,603	214,872	64	7,105	104,399
1930	19	4,825	144,265	14	9,099	146,342	64	7,345	66,236
1931	19	6,020	159,453	14	9,581	164,500	63	8,532	87,033
1932	20	6,782	182,114	14	8,849	213,263	64	7,492	90,765
1933	21	7,337	187,227	14	11,350	270,406	70	10,204	127,451
1934	21	8,770	202,383	14	10,670	297,127	72	13,575	162,293
1935	20	6,314	165,953	16	8,339	217,798	75	12,630	154,158
1936	22	5,808	134,435	16	7,850	254,873	117	12,368	150,426

STOCKS IN WAREHOUSES BY IMPORTANT COMMODITIES

(In 1,000 percels)

At the end of	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Rice	63.6	83.8	75.6	29.0	77.2	86.7	122.3	198.2	108.7	75.3
Other Cereals and Flour	15.9	13.4	10.8	7.1	6.4	14.6	9.5	15.3	19.3	27.9
Sugar	33.1	12.8	15.8	14.2	22.2	46.9	39.5	12.4	15.1	15.3
Foodstuffs	16.7	19.2	23.1	24.5	24.0	21.0	18.1	30.7	35.4	43.5
Cocoons	21.5	24.6	25.7	10.4	10.6	15.2	18.2	9.6	15.2	17.2
Cotton	61.2	44.5	22.7	14.5	9.6	46.1	68.1	82.7	22.8	68.3
Wool, etc.	22.2	23.4	18.2	3.9	8.0	21.6	43.9	35.1	37.2	21.1
Yarns	100.8	66.4	84.5	103.1	119.2	126.6	123.3	115.8	102.3	77.3
Textiles	54.3	55.0	48.1	23.4	24.9	21.1	44.2	45.1	49.4	43.9
Paper and Materials	39.5	41.6	44.5	49.5	42.6	29.0	22.2	25.5	31.3	29.6
Fertilizers and Materials	9.8	12.2	19.5	15.7	17.0	12.7	7.6	6.6	9.6	15.5
Iron and Manufactures	29.7	22.4	32.7	24.7	17.1	14.6	27.4	22.6	36.0	34.9
Cemicals Dyestuff, Fats	16.4	17.9	18.1	12.7	10.7	9.3	13.7	12.9	17.5	21.4
Others	32.5	33.8	33.3	23.6	21.0	20.1	26.5	33.7	37.3	48.2
Total	518.0	471.4	473.2	356.8	410.9	486.1	585.0	661.8	537.8	539.6

(Value in ¥1,000,000)

At the end of	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Rice	4,834	6,803	6,811	4,188	10,386	9,966	14,381	18,630	9,714	6,525
Other Cereals and Flour	2,194	1,323	1,399	1.335	1,186	1,741	1,384	2,118	2,267	2,870
Sugar	1,580	674	842	894	1,597	2,637	2,156	818	910	1,011
Foodstuffs	1,480	2,592	2,439	4,443	1,911	1,464	1,493	2,373	2,776	3,914

At the end of	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Cocoon	325	330	338	247	269	246	338	218	211	298
Cottons	330	237	143	103	83	242	368	383	127	303
Wool, etc.	65	69	67	23	75	115	153	126	139	77
Yarns	255	126	158	240	309	212	194	223	245	173
Textiles	205	193	213	158	219	165	305	301	1,162	362
Paper and Materials	918	996	985	1,233	1,022	541	418	680	810	720
Fertilizers and materials	3,220	2,133	3,530	3,882	3,026	2,400	1,959	1,610	2,127	2,550
Iron and Manufactures	2,230	1,894	2,849	2,516	1,856	1,603	3,303	2,809	3,452	3,826
Cemicals Dyestuff, Fats	618	741	700	615	605	470	472	572	914	1,181
Total	20,278	19,960	22,299	21,270	24,134	23,134	28,892	33,016	27,284	26,026

Chief Warehouse Companies

Companies	Year Established	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital	Places Where Warehouses are Located	Head Office
Mitsubishi Warehouse Co., Ltd.	1886	10,000,000	10,000,000	Tokyo, Yokohama, Kobé, Osaka and Moji	Tokyo
Toshin Warehouse Co., Ltd.	1909	15,000,000	12,500,000	Tokyo, Yokohama, Nagoya, Osaka, Kobé & Moji	„
Sumitomo Warehouse Co., Ltd.	1925	15,000,000	15,000,000	Osaka, Kobé & Tokyo	Osaka
Toyo Warehouse Co., Ltd.	1926	6,000,000	3,500,000	Nagoya, Toyohashi, Ichinomiya and Tsushima, all of which are in Aichi prefecture	Nagoya
Teikoku Zanshi Soko Co., Ltd.	1926	3,000,000	750,000	Yokohama	Yokohama
Shibusawa Warehouse Co., Ltd.	1909	2,000,000	2,000,000	Tokyo, Otaru and Moji	Tokyo
Koa Kogyo Co., Ltd.	1919	10,000,000	5,000,000	Tokyo, and Yokohama	Tokyo
Tokyo Warehouse Co., Ltd.	1904	750,000	625,000	Tokyo	Tokyo
Teikoku Soko Unyu Co., Ltd.	1907	2,000,000	2,000,000	Tokyo	Tokyo
Yokohama Warehouse Co., Ltd.	1906	3,800,000	1,748,000	Yokohama	Yokohama
Naniwa Warehouse Co., Ltd.	1931	3,000,000	3,000,000	Osaka, Yokohama, Kobé and Shimonoseki.	Osaka

CHAPTER XXI

FOODSTUFFS

Wheat Flour

Historical Survey

Before the Russo-Japanese War It was not until after the Russo-Japanese War (1904–5) that the wheat flour industry made any progress in Japan. Prior to the war there was a fairly large consumption, but manufacturing was only in the infant stage, most of the production being with the help of water-wheels. The daily output by this method was only 10 to 50 or 60 bags; the quality was poor and not uniform and, being packed in straw bags, the product was not at all satisfactory. It was only in the year 1895 that wheat flour was first produced on a modern basis by machinery. In that year, the Nippon Seifun Kaisha, Ltd., began to operate mills with a capacity of 200 koku per day, and gradually, mills with capacities of 50 to 100 koku a day were established, but progress was very slow. However, the demand for flour increased and as production could not keep pace with it imports naturally increased. In 1895, imports were 280,000 bags, valued at ¥400,000, ten years later imports had increased to 4,990,000 bags, valued at ¥9,950,000. Imported and water-mill produced domestic flour together satisfied practically the whole of home consumption, while domestic flour made by machinery formed but a very small part of the supply. The imported flour coming chiefly from the United States of America, was of a far superior quality to the home product.

Yield of Wheat Before 1901, the land used for wheat planting averaged between 440,000 and 480,000 cho, and in 1905, it was 450,000 cho. The yield of wheat gradually increased up to 1901, when it was 4,370,000 koku, but during the next few years there was a gradual decrease until in 1905 the yield was 3,600,000 koku.

As regards imported wheat, the amount imported usually depended upon the domestic wheat crops, but showed in general a gradual increase. In 1895 imports were only 1,600 koku with a value of ¥7,500. In 1902 they had increased to 38,000 koku, valued at ¥240,000. The year 1903 proved to be a lean year for domestic wheat, and imports suddenly increased to 560,000 koku, of a value of ¥4,760,000. After that, owing to the prosperity which visited Japan after the war with Russia, wheat continued to be imported in large quantities. In 1904 it was 170,000 koku, valued at ¥1,530,000, and in 1905, 450,000 koku, valued at ¥4,000,000.

After the Russo-Japanese War Many flour mills were established on a modern basis during the time of the great boom which followed the Russo-Japanese War, and production capacity was greatly expanded, but a contraction was brought about by the closing down of many of the newly established mills when the reaction later set in. In 1914, when the World War started the capacity of production by machinery was 9,060 barrels and this, by 1922, had increased to over 20,000 barrels. During those seven years the industry experienced unprecedented prosperity, and with this development on modern lines, domestic producers who make flour in the old-fashioned way have lost nearly all their customers and, further, imported flour has been practically shut out of the country.

The Industry at Present

Production and Imports of Wheat After 1918 the demand for wheat flour, keeping pace with the advance in the standard of living, greatly increased. The extended westernization of the country in recent years largely accounts for this and has brought about a consequent heavy demand for wheat. Home production has not increased to meet the demand, the result being, as the following tables show, heavy annual importations of wheat. An attempt, therefore, has been made by the Government to increase domestic production through tariff and increase of wheat acreage, in which they were highly successful. The production increased very much in 1933 in proportion to the increased acreage, which was further accelerated in 1935, when an all-time record high was established. The pro-

duction in 1936 decreased by 7.2 per cent as compared with the preceding year.

PRODUCTION OF DOMESTIC WHEAT AND ITS ACREAGE

Year	Production koku	Acreage cho
1927	6,059,000	473,000
1928	6,389,000	489,000
1929	6,323,000	494,000
1930	6,124,000	491,000
1931	6,405,000	501,000
1932	6,497,000	508,000
1933	8,013,000	616,000
1934	9,450,700	648,000
1935	9,660,386	663,700
1936	8,961,762	688,900

QUANTITIES OF WHEAT IMPORTED

Countries from Which Imported

(Quantities in piculs)

Year	China	Kwantung Peninsula	U.S.A.	Canada	Australia	Other Countries	Total
1925	8,406	8,478	2,839,673	1,513,904	3,354,246	2,298	7,727,044
1926	—	—	3,257,855	4,177,409	4,269,521	11,563	11,716,549
1927	261,959	62,958	2,608,611	2,879,710	1,953,867	6,973	7,774,088
1928	224,974	440,452	2,439,587	6,649,680	2,402,582	74,282	12,231,557
1929	224,974	440,452	2,439,587	6,649,680	2,402,582	74,282	12,231,557
1930	204	34	3,398,999	2,957,510	1,706,306	22	8,063,078
1931	23	0	884,210	2,597,625	8,554,294	3,379	12,039,531
1932	—	0	195,634	1,983,110	10,264,635	54	12,443,434
1933	—	0	49,367	1,874,606	6,593,331	3,165	8,520,470
1934	17,820	0	2,220,803	1,325,549	4,455,025	135,864	8,155,061
1935	3,000	0	45,994	881,786	5,558,084	928,436	7,417,300
1936	320,470	0	61,818	164,000	2,812,000	376,360	3,734,700

Owing to great increase of domestic production of wheat, the import of wheat from countries other than Australia decreased to a considerable extent.

The Export of Wheat Flour The export of wheat flour in 1917 was as large as 4,410,000 bags, and 2,560,000 bags in 1918, but this was only a temporary war-time phenomenon. After the latter year exports fell away sharply and it was not until 1925 that exporting on a steady basis really began.

EXPORTS OF WHEAT FLOUR

Countries to Which Exported

(Quantities in piculs)

Year	Manchoukou	China	Kwantung Province	Dutch Indies	Others and Total
1927	—	938,934	200,234	30,156	1,251,687
1928	—	1,763,898	536,245	24,538	2,372,329
1929	—	1,786,880	1,086,880	16,571	3,063,378
1930	—	1,337,437	378,057	21,595	1,998,758
1931	—	1,684,775	490,162	14,068	2,252,011
1932	858,103	1,049,163	2,572,327	5,998	3,694,883
1933	1,427,036	482,700	803,963	14,068	5,304,249
1934	1,402,032	17,133	2,899,819	8,988	4,427,819
1935	2,035,048	29,123	2,366,348	10,323	4,819,629
1936	736,400	80,900	1,065,800	19,500	2,165,300

Exports in 1932 showed the highest figure up to that time, exceeding the figure of 1931 by 1,443,000 piculs. The Tsurumi Mill of the Nisshin Seifun Kaisha, Ltd., the largest mill in the Orient, was destroyed by fire in 1931. In 1933, aided by the fall in yen exchange and the Tsurumi Mill again coming into operation, the year showed even better results than 1932. In 1934, however, the figure showed a slight decline owing to the sales by the Aus-

tralian exporters at Dairen, which checked the export of Japanese flour to Manchoukuo and Kwantung Peninsula.

In 1936 the exports to Manchoukuo greatly decreased owing to the policy of Manchoukuo Government to promote the production of wheat in her own territory and protection of the flour industry, and accordingly the production of wheat flour in Japan was forced to decrease by 20 per cent.

FLOUR PRODUCTION, CONSUMPTION, ETC

(In bags)

Year	Production	Import	Export	Home Consumption and in Stock
1923	30,098,000	921,100	470,000	30,500,000
1924	32,676,000	392,000	508,000	32,560,000
1925	36,483,000	205,000	3,101,000	33,588,000
1926	38,349,000	338,000	4,551,000	34,216,000
1927	36,701,000	897,000	3,379,000	34,220,000
1928	42,478,000	374,000	6,433,000	36,420,000
1929	43,159,000	314,000	8,271,000	35,203,000
1930	40,962,000	877,000	5,396,000	36,443,000
1931	42,088,000	258,000	6,080,000	36,266,000
1932	41,989,000	112,000	9,976,000	32,125,000
1933	41,395,892	40,246	14,321,472	26,114,666
1934	46,084,000	45,400	11,966,000	34,175,000
1935	49,700,000	93,000	13,026,000	36,767,000
1936	38,993,000	101,000	5,852,000	33,242,000

Wheat Encouragement Policy

The great development of flour milling industry and the shortage of domestic supply of wheat increased the import of foreign wheat to a tremendous extent. For a long time it was studied to check the import of wheat. It was proposed later that to attain the purpose, the best way would be to increase domestic production through increase in wheat acreage, with the goal of making Japan self-sufficient as to the supply of wheat. With this in view, when tariffs were revised in general in 1932, that on wheat was raised from ¥1.50 to ¥2.50 and that on flour from ¥2.90 to 4.30 per 100 kin each. Moreover, it was estimated by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry that Japan's annual requirement of wheat was about 9,000,000 koku, 5,000,000 koku of which was used as flour while balance of 4,000,000 koku for brewing and other purposes. The Government, therefore, determined to increase wheat production to this figure. They encouraged rice farmers in 1932 to turn over their land to wheat production, figuring on a five year drive, and the Government's goal was reached in three years instead of five. Wheat crop amounted in 1934 to 9,450,000 koku against 8,006,000 koku of 1933, and showed an increase of 41.5 per cent over the average of preceding five years. The acreage was 648,400 cho against 615,888 of 1933. Its increase over the average of preceding years was 24.4 per cent.

The fact that tariff was raised and Japan has become self-sufficient in wheat gives a new advantage to Japan. In the past, Japan had to buy most of wheat in foreign markets. Prices always were subject to fluctuations according to conditions in foreign markets, and it was not always convenient to hedge purchase made in this country. In fact, for many years the business of flour milling was handled as if it were a speculation and the near-failure of the Nihon Flour Company, Ltd. (in the days before the Mitsui Bussan Kaisha, Ltd. assumed control of it) was entirely due to gambling in wheat. Now this danger of speculation has been entirely wiped away from the business. Domestic wheat, most of time, is well within the tariff walls, and is not very much affected by foreign influences now.

Sugar

History and Development

The art of making sugar was introduced from China about two hundred years ago, but no great progress is recorded in sugar manufacture until

after the Restoration, and even then it remained as a farmers' sideline until the end of the Sino-Japanese War of 1894–5, when Formosa, well-known for its sugar production, was ceded to Japan by China. This marked a new era in the sugar industry. In 1896, a sugar refining company was organized in Osaka and from that time the industry began to develop.

The Government undertook to levy a duty on raw sugar in 1899, and, by successive steps, this duty has reached the present rate. In 1911, a tariff of a similar nature was imposed, for the first time, on refined sugar.

In view of the fact that Formosa is ideal both in temperature and rainfall for cane growing the Government decided to encourage the establishment of sugar mills in the Island. With this in view it established the Temporary Sugar Bureau as a branch of the Government of Formosa. The Bureau subsidized sugar companies in establishing sugar mills and purchasing required machinery.. It imported cane seedlings and distributed them to cane growers. It gave, too, subsidies for the purchase of fertilizes, and in various other ways succeeded in dispensing as subsidies, up to 1924, a sum amounting to more than thirteen million yen. As the result of these subsidies, the industry has developed to the present stage. In 1902, the production of raw sugar in Formosa was only about 600,000 piculs, but by 1931 this had increased to over 13,000,000 piculs.

In 1901, the Taiwan Sugar Co., Ltd., was organized. Raw sugar mills with all new machines were established and war was declared against the old-fashioned machines which were only able to produce raw brown sugar. Development was destined to be slow, for the plantations and mills were subject to attacks from the native savages, but this difficulty was gradually overcome and during the prosperity that visited Japan after the Russo-Japanese War, many new companies were organized and the industry developed rapidly.

Present State of the Industry

The sugar industry in Shikoku, Kyushu, and the Loochoo Islands is making no headway, but that in Formosa, is rapidly progressing, and at present it is the Formosan sugar that controls the sugar market in Japan. Refining is making good progress in Japan proper.

PRODUCTION OF SUGAR

(Unit 1,000 piculs)

Year	Formosa	Japan Proper	Hokkaido	Korea	South Sea Islands	Total
1924-1925	7,992	1,201	167	6	148	9,516
1925-1926	8,332	1,399	190	9	152	10,083
1926-1927	6,852	1,299	286	5	209	8,653
1927-1928	9,667	1,438	343	9	181	11,640
1928-1929	13,155	1,523	343	10	164	15,197
1929-1930	13,508	1,222	424	11	345	15,511
1930-1931	13,287	1,273	361	15	642	15,580
1931-1932	16,484	1,651	405	29	696	19,266
1932-1933	10,561	1,712	402	—	729	13,406
1933-1934	10,783	1,551	383	—	750	13,469
1934-1935	16,094	1,752	587	—	1,135	19,568
1935-1936	15,034	1,981	515	—	819	18,351
1936-1937*	16,292	1,696	750	—	1,000	19,738

* Estimate

Before 1926, the total production of sugar was only about 10,000,000 piculs. But after that year production rapidly increased, and in 1934–35, it had reached over 19,536 piculs, about twice as much as six or seven years ago. The increase came chiefly from Formosa, and is due to the advance in agricultural method, viz., the planting of superior canes, prolongation of the time of planting, improvements in ploughing, etc. As the result of this increase in yield, imports of sugar have been considerably reduced.

CONSUMPTION OF SUGAR
IN JAPAN PROPER

(Unit 1,000 piculs)

Year	Total Consumption	Per Capita Consumption in kin
1927	12,093	20,07
1928	13,035	21,27
1929	13,596	21,86
1930	12,949	20,57
1931	13,461	20,59
1932	14,310	20,73
1933	13,936	18,69
1934	12,147	23,18
1935	15,656	22,23
1936	16,618	23.99

Japan's consumption of sugar showed an increase during the 1934 calendar year, reaching a figure which broke all records except that of 15,333,253 piculs set in 1932.

In the past Japan has been generally a self-supplying country, having either only a very small excess of import or export. Even 1934–1935 production, which is considered very large in Japan and is estimated to amount to 1,333,000 tons, will be only 4½ per cent of the world total production, which is estimated at 25,165,000 tons. Her per capita consumption only slightly exceeds the international average of 22 kin per year, that in 1935 being 23.18 kin.

Tables for exports and imports of sugar are given below. In spite of all political troubles China has always been the best market for the Japanese production. The figures for 1932 declined abruptly, but this was due to the Manchurian Incident, and the loss of Manchuria which was itself a good market. If figures for Manchoukuo, Kwantung Peninsula and China are added together, it will be found that there has been no really great change as might otherwise seem indicated.

Imports from Java Since some of Japanese sugar companies are refiners rather than planters they buy crude sugar wherever they can get it at the lowest price. Often the Javanese sugar is more reasonable in prince and hence usually the import of sugar from there. This was the situation in general until 1931. Domestic producers could not compete and had a hard time making profits, for the Japanese sugar kept entering the country at lower prices. The situation changed somewhat with the reimposition of gold embargo, which caused the decline of yen. The establishment of a new imports tariff served to change the situation further. Since then the Japanese sugar was protected to a certain extent against the import, the producers were plannings to curtail production. Prices soared remarkably. Plans to reduce production costs were taking effect. Per picul cost of the leading companies dropped from ¥7 in 1931 to ¥5 in 1932, while domestic sugar quotations rose from ¥7 in October, 1931 to ¥14 in September, 1932, elevating earnings per picul from zero to between ¥8 and ¥9 a picul, and in this manner the sugar industry experienced its boom in 1933.

The boom, however, did not seem to last long. The international oversupply of sugar, the constant threat that the Netherlands may abandon the gold standard, public criticism against the sugar companies due to recent consumption tax evasion case and the resultant public cry for the abolition of the tariff protecting sugar were all unfavourable factors for the sugar industry. These causes acted to keep raw sugar prices from going up. Since the boom in 1933, the price has been steadily downward. It should be noted, however, that the conditions are not very bad; only forebodings for the future are keeping down prices of sugar.

SUGAR EXPORTS AND IMPORTS
OF JAPAN PROPER

(Compiled by the Japan Sugar Institute)

(In piculs)

Year	Imports	Exports	Excess of imports(−)or exports(+)
1927	7,932,264	3,186,722	(−)4,745,542
1928	7,081,896	4,450,909	(−)2,630,987
1929	4,343,394	3,769,576	(−) 573,818
1930	4,569,617	4,101,426	(−) 468,191
1931	3,505,168	3,236,023	(−) 269,145
1932	711,060	2,598,219	(+)1,887,159
1933	2,485,343	2,750,402	(+) 265,059
1934	1,732,188	2,019,868	(+) 287,680
1935	2,341,841	2,669,420	(+) 327,579
1936	3,600,000	2,978,600	(+) 621,400

IMPORTS OF REFINED SUGAR BY ORIGINS

(In piculs)

Year	Java	Philippines	Hongkong	China	Cuba	Others & Total
1927	5,879,517	134,416	28,344	69	936,594	7,022,826
1928	6,230,002	21,265	1,639	—	89,266	6,350,922

Year	Java	Philippines	Hongkong	China	Cuba	Others & Total
1929	3,673,640	7,266	—	8	112,686	3,795,281
1930	4,072,494	3,020	4	14	641	4,077,603
1931	3,304,251	10	9	—	—	3,305,275
1932	644,927	—	10	—	25,411	671,299
1933	2,184,499	—	4	—	35,348	2,210,124
1934	1,727,188	4,197	—	—	—	1,732,188
1935	2,323,117	7	764	449	17,029	2,341,841
1936	3,396,900	—	—	—	—	3,600,000

EXPORTS OF REFINED SUGAR BY DESTINATION
(In piculs)

Year	China	Manchou-kuo	Kwantung	Soviet Union	Hongkong	British India	Others	Total
1927	2,228,913	—	229,635	149,735	22,773	—	—	2,631,057
1928	3,119,488	—	374,154	221,851	77,591	4,539	2,346	3,799,969
1929	2,379,585	—	547,469	93,354	168,130	31,259	1,140	3,220,937
1930	3,007,528	114,804	326,541	31,796	154,132	1,015	1,482	3,637,298
1931	1,895,667	88,922	370,810	57,433	208,996	383	—	2,622,211
1932	466,877	54,790	799,840	15,552	10,535	37,395	4,518	1,389,507
1933	901,525	96,703	1,015,941	81,312	15,547	41,337	19,952	2,172,317
1934	1,041,527	162,255	715,093	40,904	13,991	30,157	15,941	2,019,868
1935	1,481,898	227,389	792,578	8,115	35,216	63,673	60,344	2,669,213
1936	905,100	193,200	1,780,200	90,000	—	—	—	2,978,600

Various Sugar Companies

The following table shows capacities, standings, etc., of the principal sugar companies in Japan as of 1935–36 :

CAPITAL, CAPACITIES, ETC,, OF SUGAR COMPANIES
1935-36

Company	Capital		Capacity		Production of sugar 1935	
	Authorized	Paid-up	Raw sugar	Refined sugar		
	in yen	in yen	in long ton	long ton	Raw	Refined
Taiwan Seito Co., Ltd.	63,000,000	43,080,000	11,814	432	3,928,259	1,575,615
Dai-Nippon Sugar Co., Ltd.	61,970,000	56,332,500	10,750	920	3,680,000	2,500,000
Meiji Seito Co., Ltd.	48,000,000	39,200,000	9,310	1,050	3,256,947	1,860,936
Teikoku Seito Co., Ltd.	18,000,000	16,200,000	3,250	—	1,047,482	—
Okinawa Seito Co., Ltd.	7,500,000	7,500,000	1,450	—	314,638	—
Showa Seito Co., Ltd.	7,000,000	7,000,000	2,690	—	624,322	—

Brewing

Beer

Historical Beer was brewed in Japan about 80 years ago by a certain scholar, Mr. Ko Kawamoto, who, as he learned how to brew it when he visited Admiral Perry's fleet, on the latter's visit to Japan, tried to brew on his own private account. In 1870, beer was brewed for the first time on a modern industrial basis by an American, Mr. Gobland, at Amanuma, Yokohama. Four years later, Marquis K. Kuroda saw that the soil of Hokkaido was particularly suitable for barley, so he established a brewery in Sapporo, and soon others were built in Meguro, Tokyo, in Suita, Osaka, in Hodogaya, Yokohama, and other places, and the industry has so developed that at present Japan has six beer brewery companies and fourteen breweries with a total capacity of about 1,500,000 koku.

At the end of Feburary	Production of Beer (In Koku)
1927	795,335
1928	904,377
1929	895,945
1930	846,014
1931	797,544
1932	797,283
1933	959,762
1934	980,175
1935	1,047,213
1936 (estimate)	1,210,892

Japan as Beer Consuming Country In spite of the increase in consumption, Japan still occupies an insignificant position as beer producer and consumer in the world. Her production of about 1,000,000 koku in 1933 stands at the fourteenth in the list of beer producing countries with the U.S.A.'s 27,000,000 koku as the first. Also her per capita consumption of 2.77 litres was the tweny-eighth in the list of beer consumers with Belgium's 176.46 litres at the head. This is easy to explain. Most of her people take saké, the production of which is about 4.5 times as large as beer. Saké is the standard drink, only a very small quantity of which is enough for average man. In other countries, beer is a staple, an article of food. But in Japan it is something of luxury, reserved for the people of middle and upper classes. A bottle of beer, which contains about one-fifth of a gallon of beer, sells about at 50 or 60 sen, which is too high for average Japanese farmers or wage-earners. If the Japanese of these classes take as much beer as the Belgians do they would spend greater portion of their income on beer.

Exports and Imports Exports of beer in recent years follow :

EXPORTS OF BEER

(Quantity in koku and value in ¥1,000)

Destination	1933		1934		1935		1936	
	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value
Manchoukuo	15,988	966	21,937	993	29,160	1,196	28,497	—
Kwantung	34,944	2,240	48,874	2,160	50,780	2,011	41,466	—
China	12,647	758	11,670	587	11,792	544	12,679	—
Hongkong	1,576	94	2,188	103	2,302	116	2,841	—
British India	16,255	901	11,176	528	1,4167	639	13,926	—
Straits Stmts	1,317	73	2,033	92	2,444	108	2,880	—
Dutch India	29,944	1,639	4,209	225	3,669	189	3,108	—
Others and total	132,373	7,684	118,009	5,535	135,107	5,870	132,503	5,912

In spite of the fact that beer which was exported has been exempt from brewing tax since 1912, the export has not been very encouraging. During the Great War, export temporarily increased, due to England and Germany having neglected their Oriental markets, but with the return of peace their attention was again directed toward the East and Japan's export there fell off with it. Since then the export fluctuated between 23,000 and 53,000 koku. The decline of yen has given the export business an importance it never had before, and in 1932 the export totalled 68,812 koku, the largest since 1918. In 1933 the export amounted to 132,373 koku, valued at ¥7,684,000. Relegation in the U.S.A. gave a great spur, the export to that country including Hawaii amounting to ¥537,000. But the export to America proved but temporary; it sharply fell off in 1934. As a whole the 1934 export showed a slight decline as compared with 1933, which was due to the smaller British India and the Dutch East Indian markets. In the latter the Government took steps to end imports from Japan, which reduced the export to that country drastically. On the other hand, exports to Manchoukuo and Kwantung Peninsula increased, so far the latter proving the best market for Japanese beer abroad. Demand in Manchoukuo is steadily gaining, but owing to the establishment of the Manchurian Beer Company, Ltd. export to that country is bound to decrease in future.

Production Capacity Production capacity of breweries was 1,090,000 koku in 1922, which steadily expanded. The increase of capacity was especially marked after the Great Earthquake of 1923, and consumption of beer could not keep pace with it. It increased to 1,700,000 koku in 1931, while actual production was barely 740,000 koku, and it was further increased up to 1,830,000 koku. When the industry was in chaotic conditions during the time of depression, which was made worse by the competition among brewers, this over-expanded capacity proved a great weakness of the industry. The production was curtailed then to the extent of 55 per cent.

Production of Raw Materials The principal raw commodity for brewing beer is barley. This, until recently, was mostly imported, but at present it is being grown in various parts of the country through the brewers making contract with village and town agricultural associations. In this manner about 300,000 koku, which is about the

quantity required by the brewers, is being produced annually, and as most of the breweries have their own equipment for converting the barley into malt the necessity of importing either of these materials is obviated. However, the quantity of barley now raised yearly may prove insufficient if the demand for beer increase to any great extent and supplies will then have to be obtained from abroad.

Another important raw material is hops. Though several attempts have been made at different times to grow them in this country the yield has always been very small, and reliance has to be placed on foreign supplies.

The Beer Industry in 1936 By the understanding of four beer companies the amount of beer to be brewed in 1936 was fixed at 1,210,892 koku, an increase of 153,230 koku as compared with the previous year. Exports of beer decreased 2,604 koku largely due to the rivalry of other countries. Under the permission of the Philippine Government, a beer brewery is to be established in Manila in 1937 by a joint capitalization of the Dai Nippon Beer Company, Mitsui Bussan and Osaka Trade Company.

In accordance with the general change of tax rates in 1937 the same on beer was also raised to ¥35 from ¥25 per koku and the present price of beer per bottle which is ¥0.33 will be raised accordingly.

Japanese Saké

History Japanese saké, brewed from rice, has been the principal alcoholic liquor of the Japanese from olden times. It is brewed everywhere in the country, but the most famous places are the "Nada Gogo," five villages in Hyogo prefecture, the climatic conditions of which are peculiarly suited for its production. In recent years, Hiroshima and Fukuoka prefectures have also begun to brew saké of superior grade. The best rice for saké brewing is raised in Kumamoto, Hyogo and Okayama prefectures.

As saké has been the chief drink of the people for many centuries it has been heavily taxed all along. In 1879, a tax of ¥2 per koku was levied and since then the rate has been gradually increased until it now amounts to ¥40 per koku and brings in an annual revenue to the Government of ¥200,000,000.

No study of brewing saké on a scientific basis was started until as late as 1895. In 1904, a Brewery Experimental Station was established by the Government, at Oji, Tokyo, various experiments were made, and many good experts trained. The art of brewing has now advanced a great deal and the quality of saké brewed has become practically uniform. The quantity now brewed annually is about 5,000,000 koku, nearly all of which is consumed at home, only a negligibly small quantity being exported to China and several other countries.

Present Condition Production of saké in recent years is as follows :

PRODUCTION OF SAKÉ BY KINDS

(In 1,000 koku)

Year (Oct.-Sept.)	Refined Saké	Unrefined Saké	White Saké	Sweet Saké	Distilled Saké	Total
1925-26	5,147	11	11	101	523	5,795
1926-27	4,804	10	10	94	519	5,439
1927-28	4,520	9	10	100	517	5,158
1928-29	4,668	8	10	103	534	5,326
1929-30	4,238	7	8	83	466	4,810
1930-31	3,851	6	6	70	455	4,121
1931-32	3,284	5	6	87	445	3,829
1932-33	3,807	5	6	100	509	4,429
1933-34	4,012	6	6	92	528	4,646
1934-35	3,772	5	6	87	499	4,371

The peculiarity of brewing saké is that large quantities of raw materials cannot be fermented at once. According to the growth of saccharomyces saké, steamed rice, yeast, and water are gradually added and fermentation is brought about slowly. If this method is adopted, with only a very small quantity of saccharomyces saké a large amount of raw materials may be formented and saké of good flavour may be brewed. If, on the other hand, a large quantity of raw

materials is fermented at one time by using a great deal of saccharomyces saké, the resultant saké will not taste good.

Consumption of Saké Nothing is more directly affected by prosperity or depression than the consumption of saké, and it can be quite well understood that consumption, owing to the economic depression, has considerably decreased during the last few years. The farming districts are now feeling the depression very severely, and as saké is consumed more in rural than in urban districts, the saké brewers have suffered in proportion.

Saké Brewery in Manchoukuo Plans were under consideration to establish saké brewery in Manchoukuo, which materialized in 1934. The brewers of "Kiku-Masamuné" of Nada, near Kobé, established a company there, which has a capacity of 1,500 koku a year of saké newly branded "Manshu-Kiku-Masamuné" while the brewers of "Hakkaku" also established one with the same capacity, the saké newly brewed by this company being branded "Kinkaku". Both began brewing on November 15.

Soft Drinks

As Japan is geologically blessed with mineral springs, the people were not slow to study their medicinal effects, and hot springs were used as baths from olden times. As to the utilization of mineral spring water for drinking purposes, mineral water from Rokko Mountain in Hyogo prefecture was the first of its kind that was put on the market. This was as late as 1833, and the drink was named "Mitsuya Hiranosui". Three years later, some Englishmen taught the making of artificially aerated water and with the importation of Cood's bottles and syphon-bottles the manufacture of sweetened aerated water originated. These drinks soon became very popular and the industry made rapid development. After the Russo-Japanese War, "Champion" cider was put on the market to be soon followed by lemonade, citron, and different kinds of syrup, etc.

At present the total production of soft drinks amounts to 710,000 koku a year, of which sweetened drinks accounts for 93%, the rest being ordinary unflavoured aerated water or soda-water. Producers of soft drinks may be roughly divided into two classes. The first of these is composed of those who manufacture the drinks along with beer. These have good equipment and produce on a large scale. The second class is made up of those many who produce on a small scale and sell their products locally.

PRODUCTION OF SOFT DRINKS

(In yen)

	Cider	Ramune	Syrup	Others	Total
1930	7,912,541	2,296,451	1,108,003	6,059,871	17,376,866
1931	8,509,936	1,803,975	970,528	2,668,945	13,953,384
1932	6,976,626	1,676,215	1,073,595	3,721,403	13,447,839
1933	14,132,015	1,424,789	1,182,207	2,950,569	19,689,580
1934	7,801,890	1,600,975	1,848,819	5,495,852	16,747,536
1935	10,365,531	2,611,915	1,615,720	4,023,263	17,616,429

CONSUMPTION OF SOFT DRINKS

(In litre)

(Import included)

	Lemonade, etc.	Cider	Soda water, etc.	Others and Total
1932	22,954,172	73,047,750	7,119,783	161,213,950
1933	24,152,273	53,684,554	7,384,382	129,667,486
1934	22,728,171	53,705,621	7,334,329	142,636,001
1935	18,298,972	56,474,509	8,013,707	139,163,526

Soft drinks which are now selling in Japan can be classified from the standpoint of water and gas used into the following :

(1) Those manufactured of natural spring water and natural carbonic acid.

(2) Those manufactured of natural spring water and artificial carbonic acid.

(3) Those manufactured of filtered or well-water and artificial carbonic acid gas.

Canning

Introduction

The canning industry in Japan was started as early as 1870, but the real impetus to its development was given by the Sino-Japanese and the Russo-Japanese Wars as they created a great demand for canned provisions for the Army and Navy. The Treaty of Portsmouth also served to further encourage this industry by giving Japan fishing rights in Kamchatka and the Maritime Province of Siberia, and together with the development of can manufacturing and floating canneries, the above have been the cause of the great progress in the canning industry as a whole.

Present Conditions of the Industry

At present, the packing industry in Japan is in a fairly developed state in all of its branches. Canned meats have reached a stage where the quantity of production cannot be increased. The demand for meat in Japan has expanded so far that supply cannot keep pace with demand, a shortage of cattle is being felt and a plentiful supply for canning is not forthcoming. On the other hand, canned vegetable, such as canned bamboo shoots, are finding good markets in the U.S.A. and China. Of all the fruits procurable in cans pineapples are the most popular with the Japanese. They are produced in Formosa, and of the 450,000 cases or more that are packed in that island about 400,000 cases are consumed in Japan proper while a greater part of the balance is sold in Formosa, and only a few thousand cases are exported to foreign countries. As to canned fish and shellfish, the production of canned crab and salmon dominates all others. In no other places are canned crabs produced in such large quantities as in Japan, and most of this production is exported to the U.S.A., annual exports being valued at about ¥10,000,000. Red and silver salmon are finding a good market in Great Britain. In view of the fact that catches of salmon on the coast of the U.S.A. and Canada are decreasing the exportation of canned salmon is expected to increase, as also is the exportation of crab-meat, for the demand for it in the U.S.A. is increasing steadily.

PRODUCTION OF CANNED PROVISIONS

(Quantity in kg. and value in yen)

Kinds	1934 Quantity	1934 Value	1935 Quantity	1935 Value
Canned meats	1,861,096	1,986,604	2,577,441	2,364,517
Canned fishes	39,936,500	22,561,174	41,303,645	19,291,820
,, fruit	6,572,153	2,819,074	8,385,953	3,821,032
,, vegetable	8,440,297	3,668,622	9,608,730	3,709,580
Other canned food	46,916,366	12,373,211	38,963,658	16,942,399
Total	103,726,412	43,408,685	100,839,427	46,129,348

The exports of canned provisions from Japan for 1936 amounted to ¥71,077,000 showing an increase of ¥13,948,000 over 1935. The low exchange rate was a potent factor to have caused the heavy gain in exports. Of the exports, ¥15,458,000 was for the United States; ¥32,384,000 for the United Kingdom.

Exports of canned and bottled provisions were again heavy in 1936. This was partly due to active shipments of canned tomato-sardines to the South Sea countries, South America and British India. Until 1931 annual exports of these were only about 30,000 boxes, but in 1932 they gained to 160,000 boxes and to 300,000 boxes the following year. Exports totalled 520,000 boxes in 1934 and reached a pinnacle of 700,000 boxes for 1935.

Japanese goods have now completely ousted American goods in these countries. This has given rise to severe competition among Japanese makers and exporters. Surplus production and the inferior quality are troubling the trade.

Alive to the fact that the canned tomato-sardine industry is doomed to ruin if the situation is allowed to go on unremedied, the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry has applied the Export Marine Product Control Law to these articles and had the Japan Export Sardine Marine Product Guild manage export testing.

CHAPTER XXII

MISCELLANEOUS INDUSTRIES

Paper, Cement, Ceramics, etc.

Paper

Historical and General

Paper-making in Japan remained a handicraft for over twelve centuries after a Korean priest, Doncho, introduced the technique in 610 A.D. (Some writers maintain that paper existed in this country prior to that date.) During this long period of time, various grades of paper were produced from fibres of certain shrubs such as "kozo[1]," "mitsumata[2]," "gampi[3]," etc.

Foreign-style paper was made for the first time in the 7th year of Meiji, 1874, in a small mill, the Yukosha, Tokyo, through the assistance of an English engineer. Several more mills were established the following year, but the development of the industry was naturally slow on account of the small demand. In the beginning, the raw materials used for foreign-style paper were chiefly rags, but in 1889, wood pulp was used for the first time in a mill which belonged to the Oji Paper Mills, Ltd. At first, the smallness of quantity required and competition from abroad made the industry struggle severely, but as with all other industries, the wars with China in 1894–95 and with Russia in 1904–5 gave it a great chance of development. In 1910, the Tomakomai Mill of the Oji Paper Mills, Ltd., which had been under construction since 1906 began operation. With the establishment of the Tomakomai Mill Japan became selfsupplying with respect to newsprint. Again, the Oji Paper Mills, Ltd., took the initiative in establishing a pulp mill, in 1912, in Odomari, Saghalien Island, but was quickly followed by the Fuji Paper Mills, Ltd., and the Karafuto Industrial Co., Ltd. The industry was just getting well settled when the Great War broke out and prosperity was forced upon it. Importations of foreign-style paper was practically stopped. Demand at home advanced, exports increased and the industry expanded at a great speed. The production of foreign-style paper in 1881 was only 3,968,000 lbs., it increased to 327,614,000 lbs. in 1914, 519,141,000 lbs. in 1919, 317,383,000 lbs. in 1924, and 1,418,187,000 lbs. in 1929.

In 1932 the Oji Paper Mills, Fuji Paper Mills and Karafuto Industrial Company were merged into one firm under the name of the Oji Seishi Kabushiki Kaisha (Oji Paper Manufacturing Company, Ltd.). It has a subscribed capital of ¥300,000,000, and is virtually monopolistic having control over 80% of the total paper production in the country and producing about 85% of the total foreign-style paper. The real strength of the Oji Paper Manufacturing Co., Ltd. lies in its almost complete monopoly of pulp production. In 1935 it turned out 500,000 tons, which was equivalent to 95.2 per cent of domestic production.

Production

Eleven large companies form the Nihon Seishi Rengokai (The Paper-Makers' Association of Japan). They are the Oji Paper Manufacturing Company, Ltd., Mitsubishi Paper Mills, Ltd., Hokuetsu Paper Mills, Ltd., Nihon Paper Industry Co., Ltd., Inui Paper Mills, Ltd., Nihon Paper Mills, Ltd., Nishino Paper Manufacturing Plant, Showa Co., Asahi Co., Taisho Industrial Co. and Tomoegawa Paper Manufacturing Co. These companies together produce 98% of the foreign-style paper in Japan. The chief functions of this organization at present are to make agreements for the limitation of production, for the joint control of stocked paper and for the maintenance of selling prices. Four of the member companies produce pulp in addition to paper, and the largest company, Oji, produces newsprint, the production of which is so large that they practically supply all domestic requirements, only a very small quantity being imported.

Production as well as sales broke previous records of 1,418,187,000 pounds and 1,379,231,000 pounds respectively in

1 Paper mulberry. 2 Golden flowered Edgeworthia (Edgeworthia chrysantha). 3 An indigenous plant (Wikstroemia sikokiana).

1929. The chief cause for rise in volume of output and sales was a lifting of pressure from import paper because of a decline in the yen's exchange rate.

In 1930, the consumption of paper was reduced to an alarming degree and as a measure to dispose of surplus products, the Nihon Seishi Rengokai agreed to reduce production. During 1931, the curtailment was 35% from January to August, 45% from September to November, and 55% in December. The production of cardboard was also curtailed by 45%. In this manner, production in 1931 was reduced by 37,000,000 lbs. or 2.7% as compared with the previous year. The figures in the following tables show production since 1926.

PRODUCTION OF PAPER SINCE 1925

(Factory Statistics by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

(Quantity in 1,000 kg. and value in ¥1,000)

Year	Printing Paper		Copying Paper		Drawing Paper		Wrapping Paper	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1926	366,572	98,835	3,943		1,869		12,649	2,867
1927	347,300	86,699	3,975		1,557		20,799	5,083
1928	355,056	90,172	4,331		1,411		17,704	4,007
1929	366,709	87,745	3,592	1,206	3,899	1,361	10,662	2,800
1930	369,523	74,055	4,661	1,587	731	243	14,557	2,559
1931	321,711	62,416	3,360	1,120	4,074	1,137	9,567	1,839
1932	217,196	54,566	2,366	818	3,374	1,127	22,655	4,369
1933	346,594	68,705	23,563	5,354	3,342	1,462	27,696	6,300
1934	379,062	84,167	11,684	4,216	3,402	1,980	39,180	10,327
1935	408,671	90,263	17,854	5,480	6,678	2,126	49,049	11,028

Year	Match Paper		Cigarette Paper		Art Paper		"Hanshi"	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1926	2,299	815	6,625	5,285	—	—	970	6,804
1927	1,964	560	2,373	5,186	—	—	2,319	8,073
1928	1,636	579	7,392	4,192	—	—	2,149	4,752
1929	732	212	7,564	7,382	12,821	5,949	6,927	11,640
1930	1,005	247	6,679	5,077	6,348	2,823	4,585	6,084
1931	812	176	4,210	2,452	8,959	3,703	4,394	5,349
1932	2,088	414	3,655	2,641	8,883	3,367	3,122	5,654
1933	1,952	501	7,656	4,633	10,961	4,075	1,347	5,091
1934	2,787	711	5,658	4,410	15,091	5,655	2,838	6,924
1935	6,815	1,825	10,285	7,480	11,268	3,976	1,953	6,690

Year	"Minogami"		"Torinoko" and Imitation Paper	Board		Others and Total
	Quantity	Value	Value	Quantity	Value	Value
1926	269	1,932	4,842	114,962	14,151	179,630
1927	362	1,522	5,301	113,173	15,700	175,318
1928	194	883	7,278	135,149	17,194	182,476
1929	178	1,048	7,585	162,353	19,476	190,635
1930	128	845	4,368	150,215	15,469	154,574
1931	143	776	5,088	146,863	11,414	134,095
1932	168	954	7,120	139,253	11,646	132,170
1933	163	638	4,442	178,151	16,337	168,473
1934	305	1,010	4,174	198,502	20,079	200,923
1935	339	1,755	6,438	256,336	27,004	224,780

Cellophane

The monthly output of the Japanese cellophane industry, which has grown considerably within recent years, is approximately 6,000 reams produced by 11 manufacturing concerns, such as Nippon Cellophane, Tokyo Cellophane, Ta-

kasaki Cellophane, Fuji Glyphane and others. Ever since 1932 importing of the French product into Japan has been checked. Thus, the country's cellophane industry, having become selfsufficient, is today exporting this domestic product and the line is one of the most promising in the land. Cellophane exportation has been conducted since January, 1934. Orders keep coming from British India, the Straits Settlements, Hongkong and other points abroad. India is considered as an exceptionally worth-while market for the product. Having become encouraged, many cellophane producers are expanding their products. The 1933 production reached 574,029 kg. valued at ¥2,000,000. This industry in Japan may outdistance the corresponding French industry, and places its products on the markets of various European countries. Cellophane was first imported into the country about 1923, but in the following year Japanese found how to manufacture it. The Tokyo Cellophane Company stated the operation and then several other companies followed suit. Both imports and exports are hardly worth mentioning in quantity and value. Its production since 1929 rapidly expanded as the following table shows :

PRODUCTION OF CELLOPHANE

Year	Production Qty in kg.	Value in yen
1929	16,875	86,400
1930	—	85,400
1931	64,575	176,170
1932	147,000	473,634
1933	574,029	2,008,057
1934	726,842	3,414,839
1935	2,382,433	3,940,716

Consumption of Paper

Foreign-Style Paper Looking at the figures of paper consumption, we find that until 1929 it kept increasing, but in the following year it decreased somewhat owing to the world-wide economic depression. It increased again in 1931, but we can safely presume that the stock was considerable, because imports increased considerably while exports decreased to an alarming degree. The following table indicates the trend of paper consumption in Japan proper during the past twelve years.

CONSUMPTION OF FOREIGN-STYLE PAPER

(Statistics of the Nihon Seishi Rengokai)

(Quantity in 1,000 lbs.)

Year	Production	Imports	Exports	Consumption	Consumption per Capita
1927	1,191,074	112,555	92,484	1,211,245	18.9
1928	1,343,479	102,863	134,035	1,312,307	20.2
1929	1,451,526	81,084	140,289	1,392,321	21.1
1930	1,401,711	100,160	168,808	1,333,063	19.9
1931	1,374,899	147,549	141,821	1,380,627	20.4
1932	1,311,315	99,453	87,356	1,323,412	19.0
1933	1,444,104	104,330	105,200	1,480,930	21.2
1934	1,591,474	138,556	139,715	1,605,350	22.6
1935	1,719,637	167,482	199,975	1,727,551	26.8
1936	1,825,848	193,664	225,080	1,794,432	25.6

Pulp Industry

Since Japan started to manufacture wood pulp in 1889, its development has kept pace with the development in the paper industry, and expansion during the time of the World War was prodigious. The industry has been in a state of depression since 1921, but in spite of that capacity of production has expanded. In the years 1930, 1931 and the early part of 1932, it was further depressed on account of the shrinkage in demand, lower prices, and competition from Canada and Scandinavia.

Production and Imports The peculiarity of paper pulp production in Japan is that there is no independent mill which produces pulp of this description, that which is produced being turned out by paper-makers, who not only produce for their own consumption, but also for the purpose of selling to other paper-makers. Most of Japanese paper-makers who do not own pulp mills, therefore, must either rely on the Japanese pulp producers for supplies of pulp, or must buy imported pulp. Tables given below show the amount of production and import of pulp, as well as

he amount of lumber used for pulp production. There is hardly any export of pulp from Japan.

PRODUCTION OF PULP

(Forest Bureau, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

(In tons)

Year	Sulphite Pulp	Ground Pulp	Karaft Pulp	Others and Total	Lumber Consumed (in koku)
1928	310,020	237,203	20,306	567,529	7,905,884
1929	335,436	257,043	26,123	618,602	8,578,069
1930	337,151	259,984	28,402	625,537	8,426,888
1931	290,171	246,489	30,049	566,709	7,416,911
1932	277,588	241,746	31,786	551,120	6,794,149
1933	310,621	267,993	40,144	637,400	7,278,883
1934	—	—	—	710,000	7,317,000
1935	—	—	—	724,000	7,638,000

IMPORTS OF PULP

(Qty in 100 kin and value in ¥1,000)

Country of origin	1932		1933		1934		1935	1936
	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Value	Value
Sweden	230,132	1,220	439,657	3,571	800,652	7,438	7,734	9,735
Norway	174,037	2,013	527,249	7,577	669,256	10,464	13,201	14,620
U. S. A.	339,845	2,418	795,276	7,801	1,415,096	16,464	22,812	31,758
Canada	829,218	5,200	788,420	6,043	679,951	7,245	5,990	4,150
Others and total	1,703,762	11,840	2,708,373	27,066	3,814,656	44,265	55,101	67,107

Demand and Supply There is scarcely any export of pulp from Japan, and domestic production plus the quantity imported can be taken as quantity required. The following table shows the relation between demand and supply.

DEMAND AND SUPPLY OF PULPS DURING THE LAST 7 YEARS

(Forest Bureau, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

(Unit in ton)

Year	Quantity Produced	Quantity Imported	Total Consumption	Quantity Required for Paper Making
1928	567,529	73,144	640,673	631,853
1929	618,602	80,410	699,012	684,612
1930	625,537	79,107	704,644	685,324
1931	566,709	100,636	667,221	641,781
1932	551,120	101,168	652,288	615,328
1933	637,400	159,974	997,343	745,143
1934	710,000	225,260	935,250	850,060
1935	724,042	269,923	993,234	755,889

1936 Paper Industry

The conditions of the foreign-style paper manufacturing industry in Japan during 1936 were featurless. The only point that deserves mentioning here is that the lack of equilibrium arising from the comparatively low level of prices of manufactures in spite of the higher quotations of materials were further aggravated.

The relations between demand and supply in the foreign-style paper continued to be satisfactory. The production by the member companies of the Japan Paper Manufacturers' Association during 1936 amounted to 1,825,000,000 pounds which represented an increase of 106,000,000 pounds over similar figures for the preceding year. The domestic con-

sumption during the year amounted to 1,884,000,000 pounds, gaining by 156,000,000 pounds when compared with the consumption in the preceding year. The percentage of the increase in the production was 6.2 per cent and that of the increase in the consumption was 9.2 per cent.

The exports of Japanese-made foreign-style paper gained their lost strength to a great extent in 1936. The amount of the exports reached 225,000,000 pounds which came very close to the figures for 1930 which recorded an all-time high. As the domestic consumption is expected to continue its increasing tendency, the various paper mills are expected to expand their facilities. The production of printing paper will then increase.

The question that arises here concerns with a smooth supply of pulp for the manufacture of paper and the movements of quotations in the future. At present a shortage of pulp is being felt throughout the world and it is said that the Northern European countries have no stocks. In view of this fact, the upward trend of quotations of pulp, and of the foreign-style paper as well, will, in all probability, continue to be accelerated in the future. It follows that the small-scaled paper manufacturing companies which are not equipped with facilities for the manufacture of pulp will have less profits in the future.

Quotations The conditions of the market of foreign-style paper in this country have been quite alive of late. The weak tone which presented itself in October, 1933, continued until November, 1936, and was then replaced by an active tone. The Japan Paper Manufacturers' Association has already raised the official quotations of printing paper by ¥0.027 since the close of November, 1936. The latest prices were ¥0.185 per one pound of the "Chitose" printing paper, ¥0.17 per one pound of the imitation paper "B" and ¥4.50 per one ream (36½ pounds) of the "Yuri" rough paper, octavo. These prices were ¥0.02, ¥0.015 and ¥1.05, respectively, higher than the low quotations recorded in 1936.

The higher quotations of papers were due to the rise in the price of pulp which in turn was caused by the world-wide shortage of supply. The price of sulphurous acid unbleached pulp rose from around ¥0.08 per one pound until the autumn of 1936 to ¥0.14 of late, gaining by 60 per cent.

QUOTATIONS OF FOREIGN-STYLE PAPERS

		Printing Paper "Chitose" (per one lb.)	Imitation Paper "B" (per one lb.)	Rough Paper (octavo, per one ream of 16½ lbs.)
1929	average	¥0.155	¥0.138	¥3.47
1930	,,	0.143	0.121	3.00
1931	,,	0.130	0.116	2.65
1932	,,	0.135	0.130	2.75
1933	,,	0.171	0.168	3.49
1934	,,	0.168	0.165	3.45
1935	,,	0.167	0.161	3.45
1936	high	0.175	0.160	3.80
	low	0.165	0.155	3.45
	average	0.166	0.156	3.49
1937	January	0.180	0.165	4.30
	February	0.185	0.170	4.50

Demand and Supply The demand-supply relations in foreign-style paper during 1936 continued in a satisfactory state. The production continued to increase but the demand increased more rapidly. It is to be noted that the foreign trade of foreign-style paper also improved. During the year, the total production by the 12 paper manufacturing companies which are members of the Japan Paper Manufacturers' Association reached the enormous figures of ¥1,825,000,000 pounds, gaining by 106,000,000 or 6.2 pec cent over the output in 1935.

The increase in the production by the members of the Japan Paper Manufacturers' Association may be attributed to the participation of the Gakuyo Paper Manufacturing Company in the J. P. M.'s Association and the establishment of new paper manufacturing facilities. The alleviation of the curtailment of production of printing paper is also accountable for the increased production to some extent .

The consumption of foreign-style paper in Japan Proper during 1936 amounted to 1,884,000,000 pounds which represented an increase of 156,000,000 pounds or 9.2 per cent over similar figures for the preceding year. The percentage of increase did not reach the level of 10.2 per cent as recorded in 1934 but otherwise it was the highest since 1929.

The following is a table showing the relations of demand and supply in regard to foreign style paper from 1929 to 1936 :

	Number of Manufacturing Machines being Operated at End of Year	Production (In 1,000 pounds)	Sales (In 1,000 pounds)	Demand (In 1,000 pounds)
1929	136	1,418,187	1,379,231	1,337,484
1930	145	1,367,534	1,347,188	1,271,102
1931	138	1,330,584	1,329,585	1,327,011
1932	138	1,311,315	1,414,768	1,378,784
1933	148	1,444,105	1,468,580	1,457,072
1934	155	1,591,475	1,605,885	1,605,350
1935	160	1,719,637	1,680,670	1,727,551
1936	173	1,825,848	1,872,640	1,884,244

Exports and Imports The exports of oreign style paper during the year nder review amounted to 225,000,000 ounds valued at ¥27,500,000 odd. When ompared with similar figures for the receding year, the volume of the exorts increased by 25,100,000 pounds or 3 per cent and the value swelled by 4,460,000 or 19 per cent. The highest ecord of this kind of exports in the ast was established in 1930, amounting to 226,900,000 odd pounds in volume nd ¥27,560,000 in value.

In the past, the exports of foreign-tyle paper from this nation were almost all destined for China. On account of the Chinese boycott of Japanese goods following the outbreak of he Manchurian Incident, the exports f foreign-style paper also suffered a reat blow. It may be observed in this connection that the exports were reduced by half during 1932. The reimposition of the gold embargo, however, enabled the exports to advance to he South Sea region and India on the trength of the low exchange rates of he yen, thereby regaining what they ost in the Chinese market.

In the meantime, Manchoukuo emerged as a State independent from China nd North China also came to be included as a destination of Japanese exports. The Chinese consumers of foreign-style paper, who turned to the products of the Northern European countries mainly out of their anti-Japanese sentiment, are now found to be gradually returning to the use of Japanese products for various reasons.

Along with the advance of the exports, the imports of foreign-style paper also appeared in large quantities. During 1936, the imports amounted to 193,000,000 odd pounds valued at ¥16,000,000. When compared with the imports in 1935, these figures represented an increase of 26,100,000 odd pounds or 15 per cent in volume and upwards of ¥300,000 or 9 per cent in value.

Thus, the excess of exports over imports of foreign-style paper during the year under review amounted to more than 31,400,000 pounds valued at upwards of ¥11,500,000. The volume of the export excess showed a slight decrease from similar figures for the preceding year but the value increased.

Prospects of Paper Manufacturing Business It is anticipated that the satisfactory conditions of the foreign-style paper circles in this country will continue in the future. In this connection, it is to be noted that the demand for foreign-style paper is seldom affected by the changes in the general business conditions because of its cultural nature. A review of the demand during the past 10 years shows that there has been an annual increase except in 1930 when a decrease was recorded. The average annual increase amounted to 6.2 per cent.

Fertilizers

In 1931 the association formed by manufacturers of chemical fertilizers, maintained a high rate of curtailment of production in order to minimize the loss which resulted from the general alarming situation in industries, especially in agriculture, but the dumping of sulphate of ammonia by British and German manufacturers swept the fertilizer market and the prices of bean cake, fish guano, sulphate of ammonia, superphosphate of lime, mixed fertilizers, cyanamide, etc., slumped to destructive levels. The domestic manufacturers

did everything possible in their powers to stop importations. They proposed the raising of the rate of import duty, the passing of a law, the establishment of a system of special permits for import and export, and so on, but practically in vain. The price of sulphate of ammonia declined to as low as ¥60 per ton. The situation was very serious, and at last, in November, a special permit system was put into effect through a Departmental ordinance. A ministerial change took place during December and the Seiyukai Party came into power. The Government at once re-imposed the embargo on gold, exports and the stock market immediately became active, and industries, including the fertilizer industry, followed suit.

The problem of food in Japan is a serious one. The Japanese population is increasing yearly by about a million, but the amount of food produced in the country is not enough to feed them. Besides, the arable land in the country is so small and limited that hardly any space is left to effect any further increase, and the only method left, beyond extending abroad, is to increase the yield of crops through intensive farming. For this fertilizers are necessary and the demand has steadily been increasing. The consumption of fertilizers during 1934 was valued at ¥528,-761,000, of which ¥299,920,000 were self-supplied fertilizers, while ¥228,841,000's worth were bought in the market.

General Condition of the Industry

Of all the chemical fertilizers, superphosphate of lime and sulphate of ammonia are the two representative ones, and because of the largeness of their demand and supply the market trend of these two is practically the market trend of the rest.

Superphosphate of Lime The principal raw material for the manufacture of superphosphate of lime is phosphate rock. During 1930 some 570,000 tons were imported, while some 63,385 tons were produced at home, and during 1933 and 1934 imports were 703,686 and 682,546 tons respectively. This rock is imported from U. S. A., Egypt, and the South Sea Islands.

Superphosphate production has been gaining steadily and in 1934 its production was 1,126,149 m.t. valued at ¥34,-771,000. Production during the past few years is reported by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry as follows :

PRODUCTION OF SUPER-PHOSPHATES

(In metric tons)

1929	947,204
1930	957,159
1931	862,401
1932	1,041,497
1933	1,116,573
1934	1,126,149
1935	1,331,616
1936 (estimate)	1,442,000

Demand and supply of superphosphate for the last 10 years follow :

	Production	Exports and Re-exports	Consumption in Japan Proper
	(1,000 tons)		
1926	786	33	751
1927	935	39	894
1928	926	41	884
1929	947	38	908
1930	957	35	922
1931	862	32	808
1932	1,041	81	960
1933	1,116	106	1,009
1934	1,126	121	1,004
1935	1,331	180	1,150

Sulphate of Ammonia The demand for sulphate of ammonia has steadily increased for years. Consumption in 1930 was 488,000 tons, in 1931 it showed a remarkable increase to 618,000 tons. Imports in 1930 were 302,905 tons (value ¥29,612,000), in 1931 they decreased to 224,148 tons and in 1932 a decrease to 119,000 tons was witnessed, value being ¥15,861,000 and ¥7,035,000 respectively. The decrease in imports was made good by the increase in domestic production, which in 1931 was 393,237 tons, while in 1932 it increased to 459,663 tons, to 471,398 tons in 1933 and to 494,-350 tons in 1934. Japan, in this manner, has become self-supporting in sulphate of ammonia, and has become very uneasy regarding overproduction in the future.

In Europe and America, the International Nitrogen Conference failed to relieve various countries from the pressure of overproduction, and these countries, in 1931, tried to dump their stocks in the Orient, especially in Japan, thereby causing the price of sulphate to sharply decline.

Demand and supply of ammonium sulphate in Japan for the last 10 years follow :

	Production	Imports	Reimports	Exports	Re-exports	Consumption in Japan proper
			(In metric ton)			
1926	147,000	296,026	—	4,202	39,278	399,545
1927	176,475	250,014	—	774	40,471	385,243
1928	232,425	284,475	—	2,431	57,921	456,548
1929	234,609	380,658	—	1,858	93,488	519,921
1930	265,826	302,905	18,065	14,924	83,872	488,000
1931	393,237	224,148	53,260	11,608	41,395	617,642
1932	459,663	118,735	125,123	17,956	67,440	618,125
1933	471,398	108,449	83,722	50,061	62,244	551,264
1934	494,350	160,901	84,749	1,526	88,058	650,416
1935	611,751	238,598	71,551	5,992	103,294	812,614

Cyanamide While cyanamide was a fertilizer difficult to make farmers use it, they now recognize the merit of this nitrogenous fertilizer, and owing perhaps to its reasonableness in price, its consumption increased with a great stride. In 1931 its consumption was 168,448 tons, in 1932 177,632 tons, in 1933 216,525 tons, and in 1934 169,071. Production increased rapidly too. While, in 1924, it barely amounted to about 121,000 tons, it increased up to 223,409 tons in 1933, almost two times as large, although it has declined in the following years, as shown in the following table :

PRODUCTION OF CYANAMIDE

(Unit in metric ton and in ¥1,000)

Year	Quantity	Value
1926	140,663	11,960
1927	120,413	10,883
1928	159,938	15,051
1929	161,157	15,066
1930	222,383	16,959
1931	168,042	8,743
1932	180,583	10,660
1933	223,409	15,159
1934	197,252	14,323
1935	260,632	20,633

Vegetable Fertilizers Vegetable fertilizers are many in kind. Bean cake, rape-seed cake, cotton-seed cake, rice bran, etc., come into this class of fertilizers, bean cake being the most important. Supplies and consumption for 1934 were :

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF VEGETABLE FERTILIZERS, 1935

(In Japan Proper)

(In ton)

	Production at Home	Imports	Reimports	Exports and Re-exports	Consumption
Bean cake	226,876	431,978	87,051	40,032	714,373
Rape-seed cake	106,091	35,777	—	,,	114,804
Cotton-seed cake	48,379	72,204	—	,,	123,390

The domestic production of bean cake is very small when compared with the quantity imported, the greater part of which comes from Manchoukuo. In 1912 the consumption of bean cake, rape-seed cake, and cotton-seed cake was 34,640 tons, which, by 1921, increased to over a million tons, but since then no increase can be noted as the development of the synthetic nitrogen industry has cut deeply into the development of vegetable fertilizer industry.

Fish and Animal Fertilizers In Japan fish is indispensable as food, but at the same time they are caught for oil extraction and the refuse is converted into manure. The consumption of fish and animal fertilizers is as shown in the tables attached at the end of this article. (See Chapter XV.)

In addition to chemical, vegetable and animal fertilizers, a great quantity of self-supplied fertilizers are supplied and consumed, the figures for which are given also in statistics attached at the end of this subject.

1936 Fertilizer Industry

The production of ammonium sulphate during 1936 in Japan was again insufficient to meet the demand because the latter increased rapidly. Although

the demand for ammonium sulphate has increased almost every year during the past, the increase was particularly remarkable in 1936, when the demand reached 1,600,000 tons and showed an increase of 400,000 tons or 33 per cent over similar figures for the preceding year.

Various factors are responsible for the unusual increase in the demand for ammonium sulphate during 1936 but three facts may be enumerated as the principals ones. First, the market price of ammonium sulphate was lowered during the year; second, the economic conditions of the agricultural community improved; and third, ammonium sulphate invaded the territory of soya bean cakes.

Such a tendency as was witnessed by the year 1936 is expected to continue in 1937. Particularly, the economic recovery of the agricultural community is likely to be accelerated. The higher price of soya beans and the shortage of the supply of soya bean cakes will combine to stimulate further the consumption of ammonium sulphate.

Under these circumstances, it is estimated that the demand for ammonium sulphate during 1937 will rise above the 1,800,000-ton level. As the production during the year is estimated at 1,600,000 tons, there will be a shortage amounting to more than 200,000 tons. In this connection, mention must be made of the fact that the quotations of ammonium sulphate will not necessarily be influenced by the demand-supply relations because there is in force a control which will check any abnormal rise in the price. Although the sales prices which form the principal item under control are in principle left to be decided by the civilian circles concerned, the spirit of the Fertilizer Control Law strictly prohibits profiteering.

It is not anticipated that the ammonium sulphate circles will suffer from market disturbances in the future as they did in the past.

Fertilizer Quotations During 1936, the prices of chemical fertilizers were comparatively low while those of vegetable fertilizers were comparatively high. Representatives of these two items are ammonium sulphate and soya bean cakes. The former slumped to ¥3.15 for a time, setting a new low since 1933. The slump, which attracted all the greater attention because of the high quotations recorded in the beginning of the year was attributable to the influence of the enforcement of the Fertilizer Control Law.

On the other hand, the prices of soya bean cakes soared in an abnormal manner, aparently on account of the higher prices of soya beans and the shortage of supply. The rising tendency of the prices of nitrogenous and superphosphorous fertilizers, however, appeared to be held in check. Generally speaking, the market conditions concerning these fertilizers during 1936 were better than in 1935. As these also are under governmental control, they are not likely to suffer much because they have been yielding only slight profits from the beginning.

The following is a table showing the changes in the quotations of the various fertilizers during 1936 and a comparison with the preceding three yaers:

	Nitrogenous Fertilizer (22.5 kwan)		Ammonium Sulphate (10 kwan)		Superphosphorous Fertilizer (One bag)		Soy Bean Cakes (One cake)	
	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
			(In yen)					
January, 1936	2.16	2.12	4.80	4.70	1.33	1.30	2.16	1.93
February, ,,	2.14	2.13	4.76	4.62	1.33	1.33	2.08	1.96
March, ,,	2.14	2.02	4.62	4.25	1.33	1.29	1.96	1.86
April, ,,	2.00	1.95	4.25	4.08	1.29	1.27	2.03	1.88
May, ,,	1.95	1.80	4.08	3.40	1.27	1.24	2.15	2.01
June, ,,	1.78	1.73	3.40	3.35	1.28	1.24	2.25	2.14
July, ,,	1.73	1.70	3.35	3.26	1.28	1.26	2.63	2.50
August, ,,	1.70	1.70	3.35	3.15	1.24	1.22	2.71	2.63
September, ,,	1.75	1.70	3.35	3.25	1.22	1.22	2.72	2.53
October ,,	1.75	1.75	3.25	3.18	1.22	1.21	2.50	2.22
November ,,	1.75	1.75	3.18	3.15	1.21	1.19	2.29	2.10
December ,,	1.82	1.75	3.37	3.16	1.19	1.71	2.39	2.15
1936	2.16	1.70	4.80	3.15	1.33	1.17	2.72	1.86
1935	2.16	1.67	4.70	3.52	1.30	1.11	2.18	1.66
1934	1.85	1.62	3.98	3.42	1.17	1.10	1.88	1.33
1933	1.83	1.45	3.90	2.33	1.15	0.90	1.92	1.46

Demand and Supply The demand for ammonium sulphate continued to increase in 1936, reaching 1,600,000 tons and gaining by 400,000 tons or 33 per cent over similar figures for the preceding year. Both the amount and the increasing rate were record-breaking. The result was that a large quantity of ammonium sulphate had to be imported to supply the shortage.

The production of nitrogenous and superphosphorous fertilizers during 1936 showed a decrease when compared with similar figures for the preceding year. With the nitrogen and superphosphate, which were used in the manufacture of compound fertilizers, taken into account, however, the output of these two items of fertilizers during the year under review is believed to have exceeded the production in 1935 although accurate figures are unavailable.

Business Conditions Excepting one or two companies, the business conditions of all the fertilizer manufacturing organizations showed a depression during 1936. Nevertheless, the various companies managed to get along somehow or other and in some cases, greater dividends than before were distributed. This fact is attributable to the increased receipts in profits from other soures by the investing companies. Details are tabulated below :

	Artificial Fertilizer Company		Electro-chemical Company		Show Fertilizer Company
	Percentage of Profit	Percentage of Dividend	Percentage of Profit	Percentage of Dividend	Percentage of Profit
1st half of 1932	5.7	nil	—	nil	4.3
2nd half ,,	5.1	nil	9.7	nil	6.7
1st half of 1933	10.8	5.0	14.7	8.0	28.3
2nd half ,,	12.7	6.0	14.8	8.0	23.5
1st half of 1934	13.6	7.0	15.3	8.0	24.6
2nd half ,,	13.0	7.0	14.9	8.0	24.6
1st half of 1935	15.1	7.0	15.0	8,0	26.0
2nd half ,,	19.0	8.0	19.1	9.0	28.0
1st half of 1936	18.3	10.0	21.7	9.0	28.0
2nd half ,,	15.3	8.0	17.7	10.0	25.5

	Showa Fertilizer Company	Chosen Nitrogenous Fertilizer Company		Miike Nitrogenous Fertilizer Company	
	Percentage of Dividend	Percentage of Profit	Percentage of Dividend	Percentage of Profit	Percentage Dividend
1st half of 1932	nil	—	—	—	—
2nd half ,,	nil	—	—	8.9	7.0
1st half of 1933	10.0	8.8	5.0	9.3	8.0
2nd half ,,	12.0	22.2	nil	18.0	10.0
1st half of 1934	10.0	20.0	nil	32.0	10.0
2nd half ,,	10.0	24.7	nil	33.0	10.0
1st half of 1935	10.0	27.2	nil	29.1	10.0
2nd half ,,	13.0	32.8	nil	40.2	10.0
1st half of 1936	10.0	33.0	nil	39.1	10.0
2nd half ,,	10.0	30.4	nil	43.8	10.0

Future Demand and Supply It is believed inevitable that the production of ammonium sulphate during 1937 will be again insufficient to meet the demand because the increasing tendency of production cannot keep pace with that of demand. As in 1936, three factors, namely, the lowering of the market price of ammonium sulphate, the economic recovery of the agricultural community and the invasion of the field of soya bean cakes by ammonium sulphate, are expected to feature the conditions of the ammonium sulphate circles during 1937. The economic recovery of the agricultural community is expected to be particularly notable.

In spite of the bumper crop, the price of rice remains at a high level. Wheat, rape-seeds and soya beans are also dear. In view of this fact, there can be no doubt but that the purchasing power of the agricultural community in regard to fertilizers will be greater in 1937 than in 1936. The higher price of soya bean cakes will accelerate the increasing tendency of the demand for ammonium suphate. It is estimated that the demand for ammonium sulphate during 1937 will rise above the 1,800,000-ton level.

The production of ammonium sulphate from January to November 1936 reach-

ed 1,300,000 tons and by the end of the year, it is estimated to have increased to 1,400,000 or 1,500,000 tons. Further increase in the production is likely to be recorded during 1937. In this respect, however, it may be noted that the expansion plans of the various companies have been almost completed. The present productive capacity totals about 130,000 tons monthly, which means an annual production of 1,560,000 tons. In addition, the productive capacity of the newly established Niigata Sulphuric Acid Company reaching 18,000 tons annually and that of the Yasaku Industrial Company reaching 30,000 tons annually must be taken into account. However, as the operation of the facilities of the two companies are expected to be delayed, it is estimated that the total production in 1937 will not exceed 1,600,000 tons.

If the total production amounts to what is estimated, there will be a shortage amounting to 200,000 tons, which must be met by imported ammonium sulphate.

Statistics

The value of production and consumption of various kinds of fertilizers are to be found in the following tables :

THE VALUE OF FERTILIZERS PRODUCED IN JAPAN PROPER 1925-1934

(Unit ¥1,000)

Year	Fertilizers Which Require a Licence for Prodution					Fertilizer not Requiring Any Licence for Production	Total
	Animal	Vegetable	Chemical	Mixed	Miscellaneous		
1926	24,010	46,560	69,710	42,990	200	26,000	209,470
1927	21,139	37,039	70,423	41,820	165	26,000	196,585
1928	22,254	39,667	82,483	53,112	318	26,000	223,834
1929	19,619	43,521	87,284	60,116	217	26,000	236,757
1930	12,703	30,061	76,953	38,551	62	26,000	184,330
1931	13,092	24,083	61,557	25,910	85	26,000	150,727
1932	19,678	25,806	81,798	30,659	48	26,000	183,989
1933	25,891	31,563	102,026	42,408	48	26,000	227,936
1934	30,026	33,338	109,867	42,812	87	26,000	242,130
1935	27,612	36,396	150,988	53,528	101	22,000	290,625

CONSUMPTION OF FERTILIZERS IN JAPAN PROPER

(Unit in ¥1,000)

Year	Fertilizers Sold on the Market					Self-supplied Fertilizers	Grand Total
	Manufactured under License	Manuf'd without License	Balance of Exports and Imports	Raw Materials for mfg. Fertilizers	Total		
1926	183,400	26,000	190,914	60,760	339,624	339,520	679,144
1927	170,585	26,000	150,754	57,520	289,819	934,740	624,559
1928	197,834	26,000	141,296	69,824	295,306	326,290	621,596
1929	210,750	26,000	156,597	77,265	316,089	334,250	650,339
1930	158,330	26,000	110,393	50,508	244,215	282,270	526,685
1931	124,727	26,000	74,028	39,437	185,318	251,280	436,598
1932	157,989	26,000	56,690	44,907	195,772	260,270	456,042
1933	201,936	26,000	57,824	62,936	222,824	297,900	520,724
1934	216,130	26,000	58,320	71,609	228,841	299,920	528,761
1935	268,625	22,000	71,014	84,938	276,701	328,650	605,261

NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN THE FERTILIZER BUSINESS

Year	Manufacturers	Importers	Importers of Fertilizers from Colonies	Traders
1926	23,699	1,124	429	46,127
1927	23,813	1,154	446	45,975
1928	23,822	1,146	437	45,895
1929	23,924	1,132	436	45,644
1930	23,564	1,105	432	45,098
1931	23,334	1,072	428	43,913
1932	23,218	1,052	434	42,131
1933	23,083	1,035	453	41,614
1934	23,529	1,004	451	40,855
1935	23,683	995	470	40,563

Cement

History

In 1871, cement works were established by the Government in Fukagawa, Tokyo. This was the origin of the cement industry in Japan. For ten years the works gradually expanded so that by 1891, the total capital invested in the industry was ¥1,000,000, the works numbered ten and the capacity was about 300,000 barrels a year.

In 1898, there were sixteen works with an aggregate capacity of 1,000,000 bbls, and imports were entirely excluded. In 1912, there were nineteen companies and twenty three mills. The total capital invested amounted to ¥18,000,000 while the capacity increased to 4,000,000 bbls.

During the World War, the industry enjoyed unprecedented prosperity and expanded rapidly. New companies were formed and new mills added. At the end to 1926, companies numbered twenty-one with thirty four mills, the total authorized capital was ¥118,000,000 of which ¥85,000,000 was paid up, and the total production capacity increased to 17,500,000 bbls.

During the last twenty years, demand for cement increased every year with five exceptions, there was a 2% decrease in 1912 and a 10% in 1915 and 1919. The average rate of increase was about 11%. But in 1930, domestic consumption suddenly decreased by 12%, the first time that any such sharp decrease had ever been experienced. The decrease was due to the general depression and the economic retrenchment policy of the Government following the removal of the gold embargo in January, 1930. In 1931, there was a further decrease, but in 1932, with general activity in industry being felt, there was some recovery over the previous two years.

The Industry in Recent Years

For some years in the past, the interest of cement industry in Japan centred on the question of the adjustment of over-extended capacity of production. The result is a large curtailment of production.

In 1925 capacity was about 50 per cent larger than the output, which became almost 100 per cent in 1934. In recent years the greatest consumption of cement, including domestic consumption and export, was 480,000 tons of May, 1934, while the production capacity at the end of November of the same year was 1,020,000 tons a month. For almost a year 57 per cent of the Cement Association's (Cement Rengokai) capacity has been curtailed.

The cause of this abnormal condition of the industry is found in the fact that in fixing production curtailment ratio of the member companies of the Rengokai, it has been based on the capacities of production of the members. This led the member companies to expand capacities to get larger shares of business. The situation culminated in the latter part of 1934 in forcing the Department of Commerce and Industry to apply the Major Industries Control Law to the cement industry.

Statistics Statistics for the capacity of production, actual production, output of cement classified by uses and export of the same classified by destinations follow :

PRODUCTION OF CEMENT

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	Portland Cement		Others		Total value in Yen
	Barrels	¥	Barrels	¥	
1929	21,075,207	95,735,221	1,384,928	4,624,077	100,359,298
1930	14,552,558	50,749,224	3,358,179	10,530,398	61,279,622
1931	15,885,398	51,779,580	3,052,971	9,837,362	61,616,942
1932	17,215,073	67,782,953	142,599	450,254	68,233,207
1933	21,789,392	84,566,744	153,926	515,065	85,081,809
1934	26,689,637	90,814,136	39,002	1,389,466	92,203,602
1935	30,854,313	99,146,671	706,233	1,693,554	100,840,225

CONSUMPTION OF CEMENT CLASSIFIED BY USES

(In 1,000 metric tons)

Uses	1934	1935	1936	Uses	1934	1935	1936
Railways	305.2	235.2	246.7	Mining	59.4	80.0	62.3
Electric works	226.5	300.6	248.1	Retails	1,379.5	1,255.3	1,268.8
Harbours	138.6	109.3	102.2	Cement products	125.2	115.1	111.2
Roads and bridges	385.7	284.5	267.8	Miscellaneous	16.1	14.0	20.6
Other public works	353.7	376.0	373.5	Total	3,887.0	3,843.9	3,730.1
Buildings	954.8	1,073.0	1,028.7				

EXPORTS OF CEMENT

(Quantity in tons and value in ¥1,000)

	1933		1934		1935		1936	
Descriptions	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value
Manchoukuo	10,521	205	9,016	168	3,968	65	3,971	59
Kwantung L. T.	38,567	1,824	221,088	4,119	108,632	2,001	107,193	1,874
China	25,720	395	22,662	263	22,357	237	22,550	250
Hongkong	88,515	1,214	62,235	668	70,003	716	54,910	581
British India	65,733	949	34,242	418	17,185	234	13,497	170
Straits Settlements	40,481	597	65,240	764	84,595	958	90,299	994
Dutch East Indies	87,646	1,368	52,564	667	44,532	549	48,978	606
Philippines	3,850	71	2,022	26	1,018	16	2,534	35
Others	53,209	768	70,841	939	302,739	3,301	298,224	3,429
Total	474,245	7,394	539,905	8,038	655,083	8,081	702,164	8,001

1936 Cement Industry

1936 was a year of disturbances to the cement industry in Japan. The fervent efforts of the Onoda Cement Company and the Cement Manufacturers' Association to undersell each other were at their height and the market price of cement was at an unprecedentedly low level. The decrease in the demand for cement due to the February 26 affair and unfavourable weather conditions further accelerated the competition between the two groups and a production curtailment at an unprecedentedly high percentage was necessitated. Under these circumstances, it was only natural that the profit situation should be aggravated for the cement companies. Excepting the Asano Cement Company, however, all the firms managed to avoid a reduction of dividend by utilizing their profits carried over from preceding terms.

The compromise reached between the Onoda Cement Company and the Cement Manufacturers' Association brought about a stabilization of the cement situation in 1937. The quotations of cement also rose, reaching the neighbourhood of the highest level on record. To add to the stabilization of the situation, a licensing system was enforced, which renders it impossible for the industrialists concerned in Japan Proper to plan increased production or new facilities for the time being. Although outside the sphere of the licensing system, Chosen has also decided to enforce a control over the production of cement.

The demand for cement began to increase on the strength of the enormous budget for the 1937-38 fiscal year. As a result, the rate of production curtailment is expected to be slackened. Accordingly, the business conditions of the various cement companies are expected to be improved. It must be pointed out, however, that besides the acquirement of the right to decide the market price of cement by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, the enforcement of the licensing system restricts the expansion of the facilities for producing cement in the future so that a remarkable expansion of the productive equipment of the cement industry in the country cannot be expected in the near future although the cement situation has been stabilized.

Conditions in 1936 The competition between the Onoda Cement Company and the Cement Manufacturers' Association was started in Kyushu and South Chosen, both territories of the Onoda. The influence of the rival extended to as far as the Tohoku and Hokuriku districts from the Kwansai. To make the situation worse, the demand for cement decreased to a great extent on account of the situation brought about by the February 26 affair and the continued unfavourable weather conditions

which prevailed during the first half of the year.

Attempting to prevent the decrease in profits, the Onoda Cement Company and the Cement Manufacturers' Association became more desperate in their efforts in increase of sales, thus bringing their competition to its height. In May, the quotations of cement already fell to an unprecedentedly low level, being ¥0.70 per one bag in South Chosen, about ¥0.80 in the Kwansai district and ¥0.90 in the Tohoku district. The low quotations represented a decrease of from ¥0.10 to ¥0.20 when compared with the highest sales price fixed on December 1, 1934.

The shipment of cement from the Chosen factory of the Onoda Cement Company to Japan Proper dealt a great blow to the Cement Manufacturers' Association. The stocks in Japan Proper were thus greatly increased, exceeding the 500,000 metric tons' mark when both the Onoda and the Association are taken into consideration. This necessitated a production curtailment at a greater rate. In January the production curtailment was at the rate of 55 per cent but the rate was increased to 57 per cent in March, to 58.5 per cent in April, to 59.5 in June and to the unprecedented figure of 63 per cent in December.

With the fall of the quotations of cement, the decrease in sales and the higher rate of production curtailment, the business conditions of the various cement companies, including both members of the Cement Manufacturers' Association and outsiders, were greatly aggravated because the production cost was raised. The business reports of the various companies for the first half of the year were able to conceal the unfavourable situation to some extent through the utilization of the reserves carried over from the preceding terms but those for the latter half of the year clearly showed the aggravated conditions.

To go into some details, the total profits of the 14 member companies of the Cement Manufacturers' Association during the first half of the year amounted to ¥10,590,000 against ¥9,964,000 for the latter half of the year. These figures represented a decrease of from 3 to 4 per cent when compared with the profits for the latter half of 1935. Although only the Asano Cement Company reduced the divident for shareholders by 2 per cent, it is still clear that the profit situation was highly aggravated for all the companies concerned.

With the advent of 1937, however, there appeared signs of the cement situation being stabilized as a result of the compromise reached between the Onoda Cement Company and the Association. To further the stabilization of the situation, a licensing system was adopted for the cement industry and the Ministry of Commerce and Industry acquired the right to determine the market price of cement.

Control of Quotations The compromise between the Onoda Cement Company and the Cement Manufacturers' Association was reached in July, 1936, whereby it was agreed to enforce a control over quotations through revising the highest sales price. The prices in the Hokkaido and the Tohoku district which had been at a high level were reduced in wide margins while those in Kyushu and the Kwansai district were lowered slightly. This revision served to restrain an abnormal rise in the price of cement following the conclusion of the compromise between the two groups but at the same time raised the market price which had been lower than the revised prices.

Licensing System The long expected licensing system was enforced on November 21, 1936. Although the system is applied to Japan Proper alone without affecting Chosen, it has made a great contribution toward the stabilization of the cement situation. As a result of the enforcement of the system, the establishment of new facilities and expansion of old ones became impossible after November 20, 1936, without the permission of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry.

As many as 12 or 13 companies were involved in the plans worked out in anticipation of the enforcement of the licensing system but only 5 of them were permitted. In view of the restrictions put on the new facilities and expansion, it may be stated that the cement industry in this country will be free from the usual menace by new establishments.

Demand-Supply Relations The enforcement of the licensing system also eliminated the fear of an aggravation of the relations of demand and supply. The supply is assured of an increase by the operation, either already started or scheduled to be started, of the new and increased facilities. The increase, however, cannot be very great because of the restrictions now in force. It is estimated that the rate of increase in 1937 will be about 6 or 7 per cent.

On the other hand, the demand for cement, which decreased greatly during 1936, is expected to record an in-

crease in 1937 in view of the expanding works of the various producing companies, undertaken under the impetus of the enormous budget for the 1937–38 fiscal year. It is estimated that the rate of increase will be about 12 or 13 per cent.

The following is a table showing details of the demand-supply relations on the basis of a survey of the Cement Manufacturers' Association :

	Production Capacity			Shipments to
	Monthly Capacity	Cement	Clinker	Japan Proper
1933 Total	—	4,781,031	4,728,289	3,981,391
1934 ,,	—	4,729,994	4,803,113	3,886,870
1935 ,,	—	4,500,362	4,490,648	3,515,224
1936 January	792,510	307,503	353,335	194,082
,, February	792,360	296,932	329,470	222,280
,, March	791,980	356,964	377,785	312,407
,, April	792,430	354,958	347,211	304,309
,, May	793,310	401,099	396,251	355,860
,, June	792,750	362,949	359,207	313,578
,, July	802,740	356,723	359,477	311,257
,, August	802,740	367,591	370,843	339,932
,, September	815,290	364,482	358,281	345,308
,, October	815,290	390,210	397,333	341,838
,, November	815,640	374,304	380,737	359,235
,, December	835,850	330,760	329,258	330,106
,, Total	—	4,264,475	4,359,188	3,730,192

	Exports to Foreign Countries	Shipments to Manchoukuo	New Contracts	Outstanding New Contracts	Stocks
1933 Total	489,500	332,184	—	—	—
1934 ,,	319,954	449,523	—	—	—
1935 ,,	432,599	123,280	—	—	—
1936 January	11,397	2,279	232,578	689,267	438,007
,, February	23,063	10,678	273,992	695,719	509,406
,, March	56,935	14,756	367,185	669,969	500,419
,, April	38,440	26,348	464,153	750,624	475,887
,, May	31,115	35,217	451,719	758,764	446,958
,, June	32,966	20,612	497,680	876,876	436,790
,, July	18,716	15,734	420,036	971,593	448,123
,, August	24,254	9,847	396,339	984,988	442,286
,, September	18,194	10,167	292,456	895,391	423,947
,, October	17,955	5,992	315,884	835,231	450,677
,, November	27,411	4,848	383,599	814,477	437,609
,, December	51,603	774	382,111	797,383	382,440
,, Total	351,849	157,252	—	—	—

(Note: The figures for 1934 do not include the production and shipments by the Onoda, Electric Chemical and Oita during December because the three companies withdrew from the Cement Manufacturers' Association in that month.)

Ceramics

Introduction

Pottery making has an old history in Japan. As far back as can be traced in history some potters appear to have had their secret proprietary methods of production. In the Meiji Era, especially after the Russo-Japanese War, along with the advance in industry in general, pottery making was industrialized, a procedure which was thought difficult of accomplishment, and to-day annual production amounts to from ¥60,000,000 to ¥80,000,000 in value, while exports amount to over ¥30,000,000. It is now one of the principal industries in Japan.

The chief places of production are Nagoya and Seto, both in Aichi prefecture, and the eastern part of Gifu prefecture. The quantity produced in these places amounts to about 70% of the country's total production. Seto is such

a famous place for pottery that the Japanese commonly call chinaware "Seto-mono." Besides the products named above "Kutani" ware of Ishikawa prefecture, "Shimizu" ware of Kyoto prefecture, and "Arita" ware of Saga prefecture, are all famous though produced in small quantities only. Nagoya district is one of the largest pottery producing places in the world.

History

Pottery was being made, crudely admittedly, at the time of the Emperor Jimmu, the first Emperor of Japan, who lived about 650 B.C. At the time of the Emperor Suinin, that is, 66 A.D., a Korean prince was nationalized, and one of his retainers, who knew the potter's art, was able to give instruction on foreign manufacturing methods. Later, at the time of the Emperor Kammu, i.e., 781 A.D., pottery was imported from China, and the art made further progress.

In 1221 A.D., a man named Kagemasa Kato studied the art of pottery making in China. When he returned, he settled in Seto village, Aichi prefecture, and made chinaware of superior quality, the origin of the present "Seto" ware.

After that, many master artisans arose and tea-things, rice bowls, pitchers, incense burners, etc., now of great rarity and value were produced.

Present Condition of the Industry

In 1935 total production of chinaware amounted to ¥99,368,010, while there were as many as 6,624 factories and 61,135 employees. The value of total production including tiles and drainage pipes reached ¥128,451,869.

The following table shows how this industry has developed recently.

FACTORIES AND PRODUCTION OF CERAMICS

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	Factories	Operatives	Tablewares	Furnitures	Building Materials	Insulators	Toys	Others	Total
					(In yen)				
1927	6,840	46,113	43,478,965	14,251,154	3,739,274	6,925,871	1,062,697	4,905,033	74,363,381
1928	6,862	47,108	43,994,120	14,448,499	3,242,134	8,028,988	1,056,617	5,955,760	76,726,018
1929	6,685	44,366	41,866,937	13,690,379	3,133,863	7,210,453	1,074,811	7,791,027	74,767,470
1930	6,435	41,226	34,737,320	11,879,836	2,235,018	6,006,096	935,719	6,625,941	62,419,930
1931	6,353	40,320	31,926,067	9,388,264	2,304,914	4,154,698	1,103,012	5,320,929	54,197,884
1932	6,474	43,948	35,733,104	11,593,447	2,934,639	4,742,886	2,595,435	7,663,341	65,262,852
1933	6,586	53,292	45,204,776	14,910,054	6,131,345	5,886,047	2,003,566	10,110,712	85,246,500
1934	6,473	57,172	54,001,916	15,573,166	5,876,879	6,166,129	2,981,099	7,764,502	92,363,691
1935	6,624	61,135	54,616,818	15,504,495	6,754,686	9,245,261	3,471,091	9,775,659	99,368,010

Factories and Production of Tiles and Drainage Pipes

(Value in yen)

Year	Tiles					Drainage Pipes		
	Factories	Operatives	Roof Tiles Value	Others Value	Total Value	Factories	Operatives	Value
1927	12,915	41,896	30,213,047	4,212,414	34,425,461	885	3,108	3,728,507
1928	13,012	42,905	29,814,424	4,306,004	34,120,428	878	3,193	4,542,070
1929	12,485	40,695	26,868,109	3,733,339	30,601,448	838	3,319	4,578,015
1930	11,962	38,066	19,752,659	2,887,521	22,640,180	832	3,150	4,301,342
1931	11,725	38,072	18,345,402	2,654,000	20,999,402	784	2,865	3,814,048
1932	11,445	38,268	18,070,815	2,784,285	20,855,100	827	2,966	3,092,524
1933	11,213	37,628	19,125,574	3,111,841	22,237'415	918	3,310	3,760,772
1934	11,021	38,680	20,740,445	3,192,184	23,932,629	937	3,453	4,228,313
1935	10,809	39,398	21,277,565	3,374,301	24,651,866	944	3,913	4,431,993

Exports of Chinaware

Though exports of chinaware amounting to ¥1,300,000 were made as early as 1886, the export business did not develop to any great extent until the Russo-Japanese War. In 1904, the Nippon Toki Kaisha, Ltd., was organized, to be quickly followed by the Toyo Toki Kaisha, Ltd., and the Nagoya Seito-sho. Each of these companies established large mills with up-to-date equipment and be-

gan to produce chinaware on a big scale. Painstaking studies were made to improve the products and build up an export business, and these, together with other special factors, account for the remarkably large increase in exports. The special factors are :

(1) Japan is able to produce specially thin chinaware that other countries cannot.

(2) Japanese artisans are especially clever at their work.

(3) The cost of production is reasonable.

Just at the time when the industry was organized on a modern basis, the World War broke out. Pottery works in belligerent countries in Europe were closed down and exports from Japan increased by leaps and bounds. A temporary set-back was experienced when the War ceased, but a recovery was soon made and there was a steady growth until 1929, then there was a falling off until 1932, when some slight gain was made over the previous year.

EXPORTS OF CHINAWARE TO DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

(In ¥1,000)

Countries	1914	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	—	531,128	1,238	1,179
China	457	1,697	617	554	991	1,387	1,208
Kwantung Province	167	841	560	756	1,193	2,084	1,794
Hongkong	349	525	243	142	247	442	493
India	234	1,867	1,391	3,463	3,965	3,204	3,529
Straits Settlements	181	399	210	374	900	1,290	763
Dutch East Indies	121	2,765	1,711	2,424	3,728	3,269	2,120
French Indo-China	46	31	18	36	144	134	245
Philippines	—	679	400	635	959	580	918
Great Britain	291	719	696	825	1,296	1,161	1,186
France	126	883	1,079	311	643	355	230
Germany	127	317	199	100	146	221	226
Italy	—	242	195	236	371	343	110
Holland	42	1,157	1,200	848	981	761	498
U. S. A.	3,183	10,820	6,634	6,180	10,180	14,310	15,776
Canada	121	1,391	1,139	1,317	1,399	1,508	1,458
Argentine	—	249	174	150	395	628	767
Brazil	—	140	79	118	370	554	672
Egypt	—	119	146	408	438	627	488
Australia	158	769	665	1,768	2,707	2,331	2,804
Others	303	2,049	1,942	1,962	4,040	5,440	6,270
Total	5,913	27,171	19,307	22,937	35,634	41,879	42,734

Domestic Consumption

There are no statistics to rely upon for the exact amount of domestic consumption, but if we subtract exports from the total production we have an approximate value. Figures shown in the second column of the first table "Factories and Production of ceramics" give some idea of the amount. Though tile making is growing fast on account of the increase in building of Western style houses, the market had been depressed because of lack of control over production and sales until 1934 when it began to regain property.

The peculiarity about chinaware intended for domestic use is that it must be made by small factories on the family basis. The reason is that the taste of the Japanese for chinaware is very varied, differing according to each individual as to the form, colour, design, etc., and making it impossible to produce on large scale mass production principles.

Glass and Glass Manufactures

Origin and Development

As far as historical record shows, the art of glass manufacturing was developed in the Nara period, that is about 700 A.D. Later, technics of manufacturing were imported both from the South Sea Islands and China, and put into

practice in Osaka, Kyoto and Tokyo, where the industry developed. After the Meiji Restoration, the Government established a model factory to encourage the development of the industry and various attempts were afterwards made to make glass and glassware both by the Government and by individual concerns, but it was not until after the Russo-Japanese War of 1904–1905, that the industry made any great progress.

Present Condition

Due to the strenuous efforts of manufacturers and advantages from a low exchange rate since the gold embargo was replaced, the glass industry in Japan is doing remarkably well. Imports have declined in the past 3 years, their worth being ¥7,442,000 in 1934, ¥6,322,000 in 1935 and ¥3,845,000 in 1936.

On the other hand, the exportation of Japanese glass products, stimulated by exchange relations, has been exceptionally active since the last gold embargo was clamped. Exports in 1933 came to ¥15,326,611, in 1934 to ¥19,454,333, in 1935 to ¥23,337,000, and in 1936 to ¥25,627,000. Glass products from this country are shipped to almost all parts of the world.

A strong point for Japanese glass exports is that Japanese manufacturers and traders are able to reduce their export prices by 30 per cent, since the present prices are 30 per cent higher than usual. Exporters are wisely leaving room for competition with foreign products, even though tariff rates are raised by foreign countries. Still, the present prices of Japanese products are low and for this reason, they are in heavy demand abroad.

Glass Tableware Glass tableware was early manufactured in Kagoshima and the old province of Satsuma in Kyushu Island. After the Meiji Restoration it was manufactured by the Shinagawa Shoshi Seizosho (Shinagawa Glass Co.) which was under Government control. At present it is manufactured by the Fukushima Glass Co. organized in 1896, Koidé Shoshi Seizosho (Koidé Glass Co.) established in 1898, Marasa Glass Co., organized in 1918, and the Kawai Shoshi Shokki Seizosho (Kawai Table Glassware Co.) organized in 1920, etc. Production by these and other manufacturers is given below

Other Glass Articles Glass articles for scientific and medical purposes were manufactured as early as 1850. There are many manufacturers of these articles in Tokyo district.

The manufacturing of eye-glasses was first practised as early as 1600. In 1873, a certain Mr. Matsugoro Asakura from Tokyo, went to Austria and learned the art of manufacturing eye-glasses on modern principles. His son and several others are now manufacturing them.

Red glass was manufactured by the Kagoshima clan prior to the Meiji Restoration, and later by the Shinagawa Shoshi Seizosho, which was under Government control. Also a certain Mr. Tokijiro Iwashiro succeeded in manufacturing lenses for the use of searchlights, and light-houses. The right of manufacturing these lenses was later transferred to the Nippon Kogaku Kogyo Kaisha, Ltd., (The Nippon Optical Science Industrial Co., Ltd.). Mr. Iwashiro's son later succeeded in manufacturing cut glass.

Glasses for optical work were mostly imported from Germany before the World War, but when the supply was cut off by the war, it was determined that "lenses for optical science must be produced at home at any cost." The Nippon Kogaku Kogyo Kaisha, Ltd., to which all the results of studies made by the naval arsenal were transferred in 1914, and the Osaka Industrial Research Institute, which started research work in 1921, continued investigations. The Osaka Institute succeeded in 1925 in discovering a formula for manufacturing lenses, superior to German makes at reasonable cost. The Nippon Kogaku Kogyo Kaisha, Ltd., also succeeded in finding a way to make these lenses, and it is probable that the importation of lenses of these classes from Germany will, in a not distant future, become unnecessary.

Glasses for the chemical industry, that is, hard glasses, are manufactured in several mills in Japan. High grade hard glass which is not in any degree inferior to the best imported is now manufactured by several firms for thermometers, gauges and the chemical industry.

Sheet Glass

Though many efforts were previously made to manufacture sheet glass, it was not until 1904 that a Mr. Magoichi Shimoda, after two years of experimental manufacture, was successful in producing a product that could be put on the market.

In 1907, the Asahi Glass Co., Ltd., was organized in Amagasaki, Hyogo prefecture, by the family of the late Baron Yanosuké Iwasaki. An export and five skilled workmen were brought over from Belgium and commenced to manufacture it from 1909. The company struggled for 7 years against difficulties

in technique and pressure of foreign competition, and in the end succeeded in producing about 120,000 cases a year. In 1914, a patent, which enabled the company to produce sheet glass by a mechanical process was bought from the American Window Glass Co., Ltd., and a factory was established at Makiyama in Tobata, Fukuoka prefecture. On account of the cutting off of imports from Europe during the World War, the company not only increased production, but exported their products to places far afield as South Africa and London. In 1916, the company established a factory in Tsurumi, Yokohama, and in 1917 another in Yawata, Fukuoka prefecture. In 1923 and 1924, the factories in Makiyama and Tsurumi were extended, and at present the company is able to produce as much as 330,000,000 sq. feet.

At present the Asahi Glass Co. Ltd., the Nippon Sheet Glass Co. Ltd., the Nippon Thick Glass Co. Ltd., and the Tokunaga Sheet Glass Co. Ltd. are manufacturing sheet glasses.

PRODUCTION OF GLASS AND GLASSWARE

(one case contains 100 sq. ft. of glass)

Year	For Decorative Purposes			For Illuminating Purposes			Bottles
	Table Ware	Beads and Balls	Arm Rings	Others	Shades and Globes	Others	
1927	5,109	—	907	—	2,926	—	16,195
1928	2,956	—	1,015	—	3,193	—	17,026
1929	3,360	465	1,070	175	1,326	435	17,813
1930	2,870	893	859	79	838	244	14,765
1931	2,455	71	570	68	388	944	10,927
1932	4,193	373	683	357	391	733	11,193
1933	4,143	302	696	159	499	1,280	16,845
1934	5,454	469	853	246	471	1,414	20,349
1935	6,631	239	1,030	291	569	1,119	23,716

(Quantity in 1,000; value in ¥1,000)

Year	Sheet Glass Thickness under 2.2 mm.		Sheet Glass Thickness under 4 mm.		Others		Looking Glasses		Others and Total
	Quantity cases	Value	Quantity cases	Value	Quantity cases	Value	Quantity cases	Value	
1927	—			14,478	—		—		44,270
1928	—			15,145	—		—		44,681
1929	1,606	12,121	53	426	143	2,256	45	789	44,669
1930	1,863	12,915	169	2,291	12	220	44	25	40,583
1931	2,104	13,690	99	1,010	16	332	53	128	34,338
1932	1,757	9,908	337	2,137	210	2,124	80	235	37,233
1933	2,039	15,237	427	3,988	335	3,147	74	288	52,526
1934	2,124	15,335	513	4,449	259	3,641	0.450	433	58,857
1935	1,009	7,642	1,770	14,196	350	5,141	0.270	368	68,173

EXPORTS OF GLASS AND GLASSWARE

(Value in ¥1,000)

Kinds	1934		1935		1936	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
Window glass in 1,000 sq. ft.	28,318	1,596	25,327	1,219	25,120	1,233
Thermos in 1,000 doz.	234,104	1,653	301	2,284	395	2,885
Glass bottles in 1,000 doz.	20,394	4,618	25,285	5,741	27,332	5,834
Glass cups in 1,000 doz.	5,375	3,327	6,776	3,891	7,455	4,097
Glass tableware in 1,000 doz.	996	926	1,368	1,242	1,548	1,415
Watch glasses in Gross	119	132	132	181	133	162
Glass beads and balls in 100 kin	2,277	1,351	25	989	20	1,056
Spectacles in 1,000 pcs.	12,738	1,451	19,813	2,055	27,016	2,552
Looking glasses in 1,000 pcs.	54,597	2,645	77	3,572	75	3,413
Other glasses & manufactures	—	1,750	—	2,159	—	2,981
Total	—	19,454	—	23,337	—	25,627

IMPORTS OF GLASS

(Value in ¥1,000)

Kinds	1934 Quantity	1934 Value	1935 Quantity	1935 Value	1936 Quantity	1936 Value
Uncoloured plate glass under 2.2 mm. in 1,000 sq. m.	1,131	954	476	337	1,120	694
Uncoloured plate glass under 4 mm. in 1,000 sq. m.	44	357	41	287	23	147
Other uncoloured plate glass in 1,000 sq. m.	176	1,865	116	1,810	79	953
Other plate glass in 1,000 sq. m.	315	676	182	459	56	226
Plate glass having inlaid metal wire or net in 1,000 sq. m.	204	753	158	637	6	86
Dry plates for photography in 100 kin	12,564	1,823	11	1,736	6	710
Others	—	1,010	—	1,053	—	1,025
Total	—	7,442	—	6,322	—	3,845

Lacquer-ware

Historical and General

Industry Inherent The Japanese are a people skilled in handiwork. Prior to the introduction of modern productive industries from the West in the early years of Meiji, the Japanese were separated from Occidental civilization and culture and the various handicraft industries that had come down from ancient times were in a flourishing condition and in a state of development peculiar to the country. The industries especially referred to are the silk, porcelain, earthen-ware, lacquer-ware, cloisonné-ware, gold lacquer-ware and the metal engraving.

The lacquer-ware industry existed in ancient times. As was the case with the ceramic industry, it progressed with the introduction of Buddhism and of advanced methods from China, but did not make so notable a development as in the case of the textile, ceramic or other industries. With the rise to favour of the tea ceremony in the Ashikaga Age, Kyoto monopolized the production of lacquer-ware, although wares of nearly the same kind, such as "Wajimanuri" and "Shunkeinuri" were produced in fairly large quantities in different places and were largely used for table-ware. After the Restoration of Meiji there was a considerable decline in the demand for such wares as "Noshironuri," "Wakanuri" and "Tsugarunuri" which had been popular in the Tokugawa Period, while the output of "Wajimanuri," "Kurodenuri," and "Imazunuri" which had principally been used as table-ware greatly increased as they were being exported in increasingly large quantities.

Urushi Obtainable Only in the Orient Japan is the only country in the world enjoying world-wide renown in the technical art of lacquer-ware manufacture. The various industrial arts of Japan such as the porcelanic and weaving owe their origin to China or Western countries, but as regards lacquer, Japan acknowledges no teacher; from remote antiquity, especially in the technique of relief lacquer the art has developed without aid from any foreign methods of manufacture or materials. For more than two thousand years the craftsmen of Japan, having striven to improve, finally attained a degree of wonderful skill. The production of lacquer-ware is confined to Oriental countries where only lacquer juice, known as urushi, is obtainable—Japan, China, Korea and India,—although there is an evident tendency in Western countries in recent years to manufacture lacquer-ware of industrial art value. The application of mother of pearl, known as nacre work, became common during the Nara Age. A large number of ancient examples of lacquer-ware that have served as models for succeeding generations are still kept in the Shosoin, the Imperial Treasure House in Nara. These represent products of the Tempyo period, when even large wooden buildings were lacquered. Among such buildings left standing are the Chuson Temple in Iwaté prefecture and the Byodoin Temple in Kyoto prefecture. Embossed lacquerware was invented during the Kamakura Age, when tasteful designs of chrysanthemums and other flowers were in vogue.

From Toyotomi Downward A golden mother of pearl inkstone case in

embossed lacquer with a chrysanthemum design is now treasured in the Hachiman Shrine at Kamakura. The pomp and glory of the third Ashikaga Shogun stimulated the art and resulted in the perfecting of embossed lacquer work and the extension of its application to articles of daily necessity. Hideyoshi Toyotomi accomplished his gigantic task of pacifying the country. Grandeur was a unique feature of his administrative policy and social and other life in those days. The grand Momoyama style, named after his palace, was reflected on the industrial arts. Koetsu relief lacquer was supreme and Kodaiji relief lacquer was also produced, representative lacquer products of those days. When the third Tokugawa Shogun, Iyémitsu, came into power, he erected the great Nikko mausoleum and Zojoji Temple at Shiba, Tokyo for his grandfather and father respectively, and lacquer was amply applied to these buildings. During the reign of the fifth Shogun, Tsunayoshi, an exquisite technique attained its zenith, defying all the imitative powers of succeeding generations. It was applied to scabbards of swords, miniature medicine-cases (known as inro) and various articles used by the Daimyo. Notable lacquerers such as Koami Choju, Koma Ikyu, Ogata Korin and others flourihed during this period. Since that time the production of lacquer has spread to various localities throughout the country, and unique local colour has been freely introduced into the design. Competition ensued as in all industrial articles, and some of the products of those days were exported abroad. Japanese industrial arts were almost wholly neglected during several years following the Meiji Restoration. Lacquered articles of artistic value were sold at ridiculously low prices and these were purchased by foreigners who had eyes for their value and who took them to their own countries. This provided an opportunity to introduce the Japanese lacquer art to foreign countries, but at the same time Japan lost many articles of both æthetic and monetary value.

Its Fine Quality A French steamer was wrecked off Izu while outward bound from Japan laden with Japanese lacquer-ware that was to be exhibited at the Vienna International Exposition in 1873. The cargo was salvaged 18 months after the accident and the lacquer goods were found to be undamaged. On slight polishing they regained their former lustre and thus displayed the intrinsic value of this national art product. When the news of this salvaging and condition of the goods became known abroad the export trade took a sudden spurt forward, but there were traders who exported goods of poor quality, and did great damage to the credit and value of Japanese products in the eyes of foreign customers. Apart from defects in manufacture, some of the bad reputation which exported Japanese lacquer-ware has gained, is ascribed to the fact that some manufacturers are producing inferior articles on account of having been forced by exporters to lower prices, but of late years efforts have been made by the authorities concerned to remedy these evils.

How the Ware is Made

Lacquer Juice Lacquer juice forms the main material of the craftsmen. It is obtained from the lacquer (urushi) tree grown in Oriental countries and is a milky juice with a greyish-white colour. In air it undergoes an oxidizing process, becomes brown and finally solidifies. When solidified, it is not soluble in ordinary solvents and has an unusual resistance to acids. Its beautiful appearance and smooth feel defy paint and varnish. Lacquer juice is regarded as a botanical excretion and in normal conditions is stored in a fixed position in the tree. The tree is tapped by making a horizontal, slanting or V-shaped incision of 10 centimetres right to the sap, and from this the greyish-white juice oozes. Attempts have been made to obtain the juice by means of pressing the bark and leaves of the tree, or by using alcohol, but without success. The greyish-white product is called raw lacquer and is used for the initial application to the goods to be lacquered. As material for the finishing applications and colour lacquering the water is extracted from the juice, and various refining processes follow according to the result required. The chief ingredients of raw lacquer are Urshiol, 77.63%, gummy substance, 2.62%, carbonic substance 1.94% and water 17.81%.

Manufacturing Process Lacquer-ware manufacturing is divided into three stages, namely, the initial application, lacquering and relief lacquering. The process is further divided into different categories according to technical experience and skill. Wood, bamboo, paper, metal and porcelain are used as basic materials for initial lacquer applications. Wood is mostly used throughout the country, but wood has the drawback of swelling and contract-

ing according to weather condition. Bamboo and paper are used for particular lacquer-ware making, while metal and porcelain are less commonly used. The initial application is made on the surface of the ware by means of a spatula or brush, the article is thus made water-proof and the absorption of lacquer applied to finish or fill in tiny holes or other defects is prevented. The fininshing process is of course for the purpose of making the ware solid and smooth.

Lacquer is the best material for the initial application, though shibu-varnishing or glue-varnishing is also practised, especially for low grade wares. The juice of the astringent persimmon is the chief substance of shibu, and with this is mixed powdered charcoal or other materials. Glue is also used as a raw material, but it is not much good for solidity. Glue-varnished wares are made mostly for export, and the bad reputation that modern Japanese lacquer-ware has in foreign markets is chiefly ascribed to these glue-varnished articles. Formalin is used to solidify these wares. As regards the finishing application, a proper amount of pigment is added to refined lacquer to make it coloured or transparent, and this is finely applied to wares that have been through the initial application. These are then kept in a wooden closet to avoid dust and allowed to dry. This is called fresh lacquering. When wares are dry, they are polished by charcoal.

Relief lacquering was evolved to give beautiful designs to wares after the finishing application had been gone through. Pictures or designs are painted on the articles by lacquer and before the lacquer is dry, gold, silver and other metallic dust or pigment is applied. Then polishing for the finishing touches takes place. This is called ordinary relief lacquering, but there are other methods of production and prices differ according to the extent of finish. Of the two principal methods of manufacturing high-class goods, polished relief lacquering is one. When the ordinary relief lacquering process is completed, lacquer is once more applied to all the surface and the whole is then polished by charcoal, and the design is presented on the surface. The other is embossed relief lacquering, and this requires much time and skill. Designs are made in high relief and the ordinary relief lacquer is applied. Shells, corals, jewels and stones are often inlaid in lacquer-ware and to these are applied transparent or block lacquer, the product being known as aventurine-ground lacquer-ware. Gold dust is also applied in relief and this is known as flush painting. Another unique lacquering is the application of coloured lacquer coatings for as many as a hundred times, and when dry an exquisite design is carved on the ware. This process somewhat differs from relief lacquering but it forms one of those elaborate methods in the manufacture of the lacquer-ware which remains one of the outstanding products of the Japanese craftsman.

Production

In 1935 there were 11,170 factories with 36,217 operatives. The value of production amounted to ¥38,399,906, a gain of ¥2,088,147 as compared with the previous year.

FACTORIES AND PRODUCTION OF LACQUER-WARE

	Factories	Operatives	Production Tableware	Furnitures	Others	Table
			(In yen)			
1927	9,794	26,642	14,995,802	8,913,855	10,613,854	34,523,511
1928	10,286	27,168	16,131,984	9,160,538	10,670,232	35,962,754
1929	10,350	30,078	26,004,026	8,249,723	9,613,133	33,866,882
1930	10,081	28,622	12,119,306	7,374,419	8,750,370	28,244,095
1931	10,056	27,975	10,717,856	6,899,725	8,041,112	25,658,693
1932	10,267	28,794	10,851,938	6,918,301	8,862,670	26,632,909
1933	10,784	30,431	12,139,600	8,012,675	9,419,390	29,571,665
1934	12,223	37,641	13,366,815	9,437,231	13,507,713	36,311,759
1935	11,170	36,217	14,189,283	9,983,004	14,227,619	38,399,906

CHAPTER XXIII

MISCELLANEOUS INDUSTRIES (Continued)

Caustic Soda, Soda Ash, Bleaching Powder, Dyestuff, etc.

Introductory

The Japanese chemical industries involving the manufacturing of caustic soda, soda ash (sodium carbonate or washing soda) and bleaching powder owed their development to the World War, which stimulated them to sudden growth. More than 10 companies were founded during that period, but only a few of them survived the great economic slump which followed the termination of the War. For a long time afterwards the industries were in a depressed condition, and it has been no easy matter for the existing companies to have arrived at their present stage of development, many attempted but fell on the way, often, with others, to be merged with stronger concerns. Those which are doing business at present are all backed by large business houses or financing organizations. Protection of the Government, which is alive to the momentous value of these industries, must not be ignored. Without Government protection and encouragement, the prosperity to which they have now attained would never have been realized. There are about nine leading industries which the Government and the various authorities concerned are making efforts to consolidate, and this is one of them. The others are the nitrogen fixation industry, the dyestuffs industry, the iron and steel manufacturing industry, the aluminium industry, the oil industry, the automobile industry, the photo-chemical industry, and the minute chemical industry.

Soda Ash Industry

The soda ash industry holds an important position in Japanese industrial circles. It is an industry inseparable from that of glass and other chemical industries that require considerable amounts of alkali. Soda ash occurs in its natural state in some parts of the world, but in this country it has to be prepared from salt, and as salt is a Government monopoly the price is high, so when the Asahi Glass Company, in order to attain self-sufficiency, started the production of soda ash after the World War it did so on an uneconomic basis, but the Government came along and by granting liberal subsidies to this and other concerns saved the industry and put it on a paying basis. Brunner, Mond and Company (British) and H. Ahrens and Company (German), who used to be the largest importers, were hit hard by this development in home production. The history of the growth of the soda ash industry in Japan is the history of strife between the Asahi Glass Company, backed by the Mitsubishi interests and protected by the Government, and these foreign concerns. The total production of soda ash in 1933 was 272,135 tons while about 20,372 metric tons were imported. In 1934 Japan succeeded in exporting about 17,496 metric tons and has become more than self-sufficient in this article.

Caustic Soda

As a by-product of the production of caustic soda the poisonous gas chlorine freed. This gas is made into commercial bleaching powder, and in the past the commercial production of caustic soda was only possible if a good price was obtained for bleaching powder. The industry, therefore, was greatly dependent on this latter commodity for quantity production. As soda ash is now being produced cheaply, caustic soda is being manufactured from it so domestic production is increasing. The replacement of the gold embargo and the raisng of the tariff virtually sealed the activity of the British importing concern, whose pressure was a great hindrance to the development of the Japanese soda industry, and selfsufficiency in the production of both soda ash and caustic soda has been thereby attained. Brunner, Mond and Company has largely restricted its activities and home production has greatly increased. The Asahi Glass Company and Nippon Soda Kaisha, known as N. S. K., have recently expanded their equipment for producting soda ash to an annual productive capacity of 150,000 tons, which is about 30,000 tons more than the year-

ly domestic demand. The production of caustic soda in 1935 totalled 210,030 tons which showed that the increased productive equipment of N. S. K. and the Electrolytic Soda Industry Company was completed.

Bleaching Powder

The demand for bleaching powder has become active since an improvement was registered by the paper manufacturing companies, who consume 70 per cent of the total production. The business solely depends on the rise and fall of the foreign-style paper manufacturing industry.

The Industries in 1936

The demand for soda continued to be active during 1936. The demand for caustic soda during the year amounted to 252,000 metric tons against 215,000 metric tons in 1935 and 163,000 metric tons in 1934 while that for soda ash increased from 206,000 metric tons in 1935 and 186,000 metric tons in 1934 to 234,000 metric tons. The continued active demand is attributable to the activities in the rayon, glass, dyestuff and other chemical industries. Particularly, the increase in the demand for caustic soda reflects the advance of the rayon industry.

On account of the active demand, there was a slight shortage of supply although production increased. Nevertheless, the quotations of soda declined. At the beginning of the year, the quotations were from ¥15 to ¥16 per 100 kilograms but a fall to the ¥13 level was soon recorded. In July and August, the price further slumped to the low level of ¥10.50 which set an all-time low, on account of competition.

During December prices began to pick up, and with the advent of 1937, they started mounting rapidly until recently they reached ¥16.30. While the recovery in December, 1936, was brought about by a sales control, the rapid rise in January and February was brought about by the recovery of the rayon industry and the higher prices of commodities in general.

As the upward trend is still continuing, it is even considered possible that the soda prices will soar to the high level of ¥20. This consideration is based on the anticipation that the chemical industries centering around the rayon industry will achieve a further advance. It may be noted, however, that even if the prices of soda remain at the present level, the business conditions of the soda companies will still be satisfactory.

Record Production The production of soda during 1936 again set a new high on the strength of the active demand in the rayon, glass, dyestuff and other chemical industries. Details of the demand are tabulated as follows:

Rayon Industry	50%
Dyestuff Industry	20
Soap Industry	10
Oil Industry	5
Others	15

The 1936 production totalled 480,000 metric tons including 265,000 metric tons of caustic soda and 215,000 metric tons of soda ash, against 410,000 metric tons in 1935 and 265,000 metric tons in 1934. Although comparatively small, the supply of caustic soda during the year amounted to 252,000 metric tons against 234,000 metric tons of soda ash. It is clear that the production was slightly insufficient to cover the supply.

It is estimated that the production of caustic soda during 1937 will be about 350,000 metric tons while that of soda ash will amount to some 250,000 metric tons. This estimation means an increase of 40 per cent in the production of caustic soda, which reflects the usual upward trend of the demand.

Quotations In spite of the fact that production was insufficient to cover the supply, the quotations of soda declined gradually during 1936, even touching the unprecedentedly low level of ¥10.-50 for a time because of competition. Towards the end of the year, prices picked up although the recovery was not complete until after January, 1937, when a rapid rise started. The prices of caustic soda reached ¥16.50 per 100 kilograms while the prices of soda ash rose to ¥7.50, apparently due chiefly to the enforcement of a sales control and the increased demand in the rayon industry.

Details of the changes in prices are as below.

PRICE PER 100 KILOGRAMS

	Caustic Soda		Soda Ash	
	High	Low	High	Low
1934	¥22,00	¥17.80	¥11.50	¥9,00
1935	17.80	15.80	9.50	7.50
1936	15.80	10.50	7.50	7.50
1937 Feb	16.00		7.50	

Conditions of Soda Companies The business conditions of the soda companies in the country were in a state of depression during 1936. The depression was worse in the latter half

of the year than in the first half, with one or two exceptions. A recovery, however, started toward the end of the year and a further improvement was seen from the beginning of 1937 when the quotations of soda began to rise rapidly. While whether the expectation entertained by some circle that the quotations of caustic soda will reach the ¥20 mark will be realized or not still remains to be seen. it may be pointed out that even if the quotations remain at the present level of ¥16, the business conditions of the soda companies will still give satisfaction. Further, mention must be made of the fact that the prices of such by-products as bleaching powder, hydrochloric acid and other chemicals have also advanced remarkably—a factor which will serve to increase the profits of the soda companies.

The following is a table showing the changes in the business conditions of the soda companies during the past few years :

	Japan Soda Co.		Tokuyama Soda Co.	
	Percentage of Profit	Percentage of Dividend	Percentage of Profit	Percentage of Dividend
1st half of 1934	43.0	12.0	40.6	20.0
2nd half „	35.0	12.0	34.4	20.0
1st half of 1935	27.0	12.0	26.7	15.0
2nd half „	34.5	12.0	22.3	13.0
1st half of 1936	26.8	12.0	15.0	13.0
2nd half „	24.1	12.0	7.7	10.0

	Hokkaido Sodo Co.		Asahi Electric Chemical	
	Percentage of Profit	Percentage of Divident	Percentage of Profid	Percentage of Dividend
1st half of 1934	12.3	10.0	27.1	10.0
2nd half „	12.5	10.0	27.8	10.0
1st half of 1935	10,8	8.0	24.5	10.0
2nd half „	7.4	6.0	24.8	10.0
1st half of 1936	1.9	3.0	25.4	10.0
2nd half „	9.0	6.0	25.4	10.0

Statistics Below are given data bearing upon the industry of these three articles :

PRODUCTION AND IMPORTS OF SODA ASH

	Production (In metric tons)	Imports		Production (In metric tons)	Imports
1927	23,130	100,434	1932	134,807	46,434
1928	30,928	78,649	1933	272,135	46,447
1929	43,583	76,116	1934	202,291	37,139
1930	57,233	65,206	1935	198,307	38,263
1931	93,244	54,336	1936	129,108	45,858

PRODUCTION, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF CAUSTIC SODA

	Production	Exports (In metric tons)	Imports	Supply
1927	24,094	54	40,946	64,986
1928	28,700	33	58,583	87,260
1929	57,382	22	42,388	99,550
1930	34,738	17	37,592	72,313
1931	48,536	10	41,595	90,121
1932	75,116	2,238	28,185	101,063
1933	131,709	5,116	12,477	139,070
1934	164,834	12,293	9,928	162,469
1935	213,319	17,495	19,936	215,759
1936	263,327	23,911	11,587	251,003

PRODUCTION AND EXPORTS OF BLEACHING POWDER

	Production (In metric tons)	Exports	Supply		Production (In metric tons)	Exports	Supply
1927	37,384	2,588	34,796	1932	47,485	2,858	44,627
1928	46,325	3,080	43,245	1923	61,142	3,392	57,750
1929	50,756	3,109	57,647	1934	64,980	4,247	60,733
1930	49,471	3,446	46,025	1935	74,254	6,489	67,765
1931	45,005	3,544	41,461	1936	78,321	8,505	69,816

Soap Making

Development and Production

The industry was started early in the Meiji Era, but no great progress was made until after the Russo-Japanese War of 1904–1905, when machinery was introduced from abroad. During the World War, the industry enjoyed great prosperity, but the reaction was also very severe when it came in 1920. However, during those difficult times, the foundation of the industry became more consolidated and the quality of soap improved a great deal.

Production of soap in Japan is as per the accompanying table. Tokyo and Osaka are the two principal places of production, the former producing about 50% of the total production in the country, while Osaka produces about 30%. Exports of soap, 90% of which is toilet soap, are made mostly from Osaka, to China and Kwantung Province. Imports amount to barely ¥100,000 in value a year.

PRODUCTION OF SOAP BY MILLS

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Toilet	Industrial	Medical	Laundy	Powdered	Others	Total
1926	21,825	2,114	—	—	—	—	33,906
1927	23,339	1,849	—	—	—	—	36,141
1928	24,654	2,283	—	—	—	—	39,146
1929	22,690	2,370	5	10,199	1,767	1,908	38,942
1930	18,564	2,863	397	11,098	1,833	605	35,362
1931	17,246	1,480	173	7,561	2,083	1,355	29,900
1932	19,164	1,450	268	8,389	2,642	428	32,344
1933	21,243	2,558	194	9,584	2,992	1,118	37,691
1934	21,407	1,932	377	13,756	3,331	2,037	42,843
1935	23,326	3,295	477	15,537	4,127	3,491	50,258

Vegetable and Animal Oils and Fats

Introduction

For lighting purposes vegetable oils have been used in Japan for centuries. In earlier days perilla oil was used but this was later replaced by rapeseed oil. The production of these oils on an industrial basis only developed after the Russo-Japanese War of 1904–1905.

Production of hardened oil in Japan during 1935 amounted to 82,086 metric tons in contrast to 63,252 tons in 1934. The increase was the result of the high market price. It is used mostly for soap making, candles and dietary purposes. Even during the time that Japan was on gold, hardened oil was exported, so after the gold embargo was imposed exports increased. The 1935 exports amounted to ¥8,920,000.

The principal vegetable oils produced are soya bean and rapeseed. Linseed oil, perilla oil, hempseed oil, wood oil, sesame oil, cotton-seed oil, castor oil, groundnut oil, copra oil, camellia oil, etc., are also produced in considerable quantities. The production of soya bean oil in 1913 was valued at ¥1,333,000, but by 1935, this had increased to ¥15,329,198, rapeseed oil was valued at ¥20,019,129 in 1935.

Of the principal vegetable oils produced in Japan, only wood and camallia oils and vegetable wax are pressed from domestically grown seeds, all the others are pressed from materials from abroad. Soya bean oil, rapeseed oil, and vege-

table wax are exported, their total value in 1935 being ¥33,051,000. The importation of vegetable oils is very small.

Statistics Statistics for the vegetable and animal oil industry follows :

PRODUCTION OF VEGETABLE OILS

Year	Rapeseed Oil	Sesameseed Oil	Groundnut Oil	Cottonseed Oil	Copra Oil	Soya bean Oil
			(In yen)			
1926	13,474,263	2,182,166	107,517	2,666,062	2,823,263	13,386,947
1927	15,228,035	2,443,698	229,845	1,913,650	2,090,566	13,710,316
1928	12,214,398	2,645,601	165,667	2,011,407	2,346,020	13,963,580
1929	12,214,398	2,398,899	253,659	3,393,863	2,800,842	13,963,580
1930	10,826,085	2,382,457	234,380	2,568,777	2,184,334	9,146,415
1931	8,074,304	2,428,682	276,802	1,456,122	1,890,339	9,143,974
1932	8,398,297	3,122,444	244,834	1,165,868	1,991,043	10,570,255
1933	10,123,029	2,662,503	385,639	2,731,458	2,657,171	13,115,461
1934	13,676,703	2,610,393	487,009	3,169,850	2,648,436	14,054,936
1935	20,019,129	2,835,750	595,030	7,129,750	5,376,497	15,329,198

Year	Linseed Oil	Perilla Oil	Paulownia Oil	Camellia Oil	Other Oils	Total Oil
			(In yen)			
1926	1,520,004	1,774.963	205.567	1,184.771	4.753.063	44.233.310
1927	1,584.332	896.291	208.465	1,013.593	3,040,848	39,926.965
1928	2.733,100	1,107,100	261,197	814,459	2,974,879	41,092.703
1929	2,945.224	1,442,661	218,218	728,262	3,600,224	44.347,827
1930	1.077.673	2,422,152	207,218	599.905	2,359,477	34.102,586
1931	1.094.542	2.052.760	154,928	428.788	2,134,248	29,211,560
1932	1.015.617	2,358,302	152,654	336,860	2,434,947	31,944,837
1933	3,775,357	5.518,011	184,427	378,188	2,487,087	44,018,331
1934	3.903,933	4.998,884	250.286	402,232	3.402.745	49,605,407
1935	3,691,897	10.494.970	227,418	439,392	6,743.334	72,882,365

PRODUCTION OF ANIMAL OILS AND TALLOW

Year	Cod Oil	Herring Oil	Sardine Oil	Whale Oil	Other fish Oils
			(In yen)		
1926	221,601	—	4,733,725	—	—
1927	315,458	—	5,170,870	—	—
1928	242,209	—	6,067,595	—	—
1929	225,088	304,042	3,527,435	704,925	957,117
1830	285,862	137,295	3,491,551	517,520	473,179
1931	278,245	26,686	422,439	168,921	321,170
1932	95,774	59,296	802,350	614,915	1,147,833
1933	296,362	35,854	456,752	498,194	2,018,732
1934	300,741	23,547	602,816	672,638	980,416
1935	1,158,270	19,770	829,438	989,018	5,257,055

Year	Puna Oil	Beef Tallow	Pork Tallow	Others Animal Tallow	Total
			(In yen)		
1826	—	1,950,947	—	—	6,906,273
1927	—	2,050,180	—	—	7,536,482
1928	—	4,133,321	—	—	10,443,125
1929	136,939	1,624,843	144,662	197,814	8,833,065
1930	97,039	996,866	169,454	292,485	6,461,251
1931	67,000	712,033	160,981	196,883	2,354,356
1932	75,714	666,015	143,921	52,698	3,653,516
1933	90,439	859,306	312,733	508,665	5,077,037
1834	110,803	630,051	287,470	791,678	4,400,160
1935	200,569	2,696,112	378,103	889,938	12,418,273

PRODUCTION OF VEGETABLE WAX, CANDLES, AND MANUFACTURES OF OILS

Year	Vegetable Wax	Candles	Boiled Oil	Hardened Oil	Hardened Wax	Oleine	Stearine	Total
				(In yen)				
1926	1,195,291	6,482,810	2,664,024	5,514,402	—	—	—	8,178,426
1927	2,877,735	5,334,372	3,351,349	6,676,627	—	—	—	10,027,976
1928	2,810,225	5,898,136	3,117,243	11,697,488	—	—	—	14,834,735
1929	1,497,875	5,175,200	3,319,275	12,124,719	1,061,950	880,688	219,425	17,559,428
1930	1,808,580	4,785,545	2,859,546	10,109,944	323,545	502,389	200,592	13,884,576
1931	1,293,719	4,471,845	2,756,897	7,175,041	517,986	419,309	213,321	10,949,181
1932	1,249,913	4,952,548	2,924,753	10,039,127	623,182	437,644	4,246,838	15,713,722
1933	1,440,017	5,410,628	3,339,737	13,594,028	513,571	552,401	2,561,846	20,561,585
1934	1,705,148	5,095,485	3,373,463	13,223,601	404,608	693,608	3,895,385	21,590,665
1935	2,228,715	5,201,888	5,837,861	19,173,264	254,064	563,137	5,480,962	31,309,288

IMPORTS OF VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL OILS, TALLOWS AND MANUFACTURES THEREOF

Year	Olive Oil	Beef Tallow	Stearine	Oleine
		(In yen)		
1926	155,000	6,324,000	203,000	212,000
1927	161,000	5,025,000	192,000	222,000
1928	125,000	5,407,000	271,000	109,000
1929	245,000	5,019,000	337,000	215,000
1930	123,000	3,894,000	242,000	112,000
1931	182,000	2,481,000	189,000	100,000
1932	327,622	2,453,516	171,751	73,998
1933	357,324	3,411,534	112,541	51,395
1934	563,411	3,380,160	161,671	32,957
1935	908,625	2,340,363	126,286	11,802

EXPORTS OF VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL OILS, WAX, AND MANUFACTURES THEREOF

Year	Perilla Oil	Bean Oil	Rapessed Oil	Fish Oil	Whale Oil	Vegetable Wax	Hardened Oil
			(In yen)				
1926	—	3,045,000	6,038,000	4,485,000	—	1,526,000	—
1927	—	1,704,000	5,863,000	7,480,000	—	2,339,000	—
1928	—	1,625,000	2,105,000	7,941,000	220,000	2,088,000	2,017,000
1929	—	2,236,000	4,316,000	7,722,000	43,000	2,255,000	2,006,000
1930	—	4,359,000	4,672,000	7,600,000	361,000	1,870,000	3,987,000
1931	803,000	1,049,000	1,963,000	1,797,000	146,000	1,154,000	2,997,000
1932	1,100,000	1,010,000	1,308,000	2,768,000	466,000	1,177,101	4,221,000
1933	3,532,000	342,000	2,245,000	2,397,000	131,000	1,139,000	4,939,000
1934	3,709,000	623,000	5,024,000	3,150,000	155,000	1,258,000	5,042,000
1935	10,052,610	1,420,350	11,212,126	6,264,542	628,609	1,444,583	8,920,875

Rubber

The rubber industry in Japan began with the establishment in 1886 of the Mitatsuchi Rubber Company, a limited-partnership concern, in Tokyo. The industry developed steadily through the Sino-Japanese and the Russo-Japanese Wars of 1894–1895, and 1904–1905. In 1909 there were 20 mills, 900 workers and production reached ¥4,000,000 in value. During the World War the industry further developed. The earthquake of 1923 destroyed about 80% of the rubber manufacturing capacity of Tokyo and Yokohama districts, and many people were gravely doubtful as to whether the rubber factories in those districts would ever revive, but reconstruction quickly took place and the factories rebuilt. In 1935 the total production in the country by mills employing more than 5 persons was as large as ¥119,052,000 in value, but the figure

would be much larger if goods produced by people working in their own homes were included. The number of mills employing more than 5 persons in 1934 was 765, and the number of workers 38,087. Hyogo, Tokyo and Osaka prefectures are the chief producing centres.

An unusual improvement was made in the business conditions of the rubber companies in this country during 1936. As a matter of fact, the rubber companies began to recover from their depression during the latter half of 1933 but it was not until 1936 that they could realize a noable improvement in their business conditions. All the companies operated quite satisfactorily during the year and all the leading companies increased their dividends to shareholders, except the Tropical Industrial Company. Further, unlike in former times, surpluses remained after their settlement of accounts despite the increased dividends. Details are shown in the following tables :

	Second Half of 1934		First Half of 1935		Second Half of 1935
	Percentage of Profit	Percentage of Dividend	Percentage of Profit	Percentage of Dividend	Percentage of Profit
Tropical Industrial Company	4.9	3.0	3.2	3.0	3.4
Borneo Rubber Company	9.0	6.0	7.2	5.0	3.8
Malay Rubber Company	9.9	—	6.1	3.0	5.2
South Asiatic Company	19.3	12.0	20.0	12.0	9.5
Sumatra Industrial Company	12.4	6.0	15.6	8.0	11.7
South Sea Rubber Company	17.1	7.0	8.5	6.0	8.4
Sumatra Development Company	22.2	7.0	15.0	7.0	15.1
Nissan Rubber Company	20.5	12.0	15.7	10.0	16.4

	Second Half of 1935	First Half of 1936		Second Half of 1936	
	Percentage of Dividend	Percentage of Profit	Percentage of Dividend	Percentage of Profit	Percentage of Dividend
Tropical Industrial Company	3.0	4.3	3.0	4.9	3.0
Borneo Rubber Company	3.0	7.3	4.0	9.0	5.0
Malay Rubber Company	3.0	9.3	4.0	12.0	5.0
South Asiatic Company	10.0	15.3	10.0	19.0	15.0
Sumatra Industrial Company	6.0	9.7	6.0	16.0	8.0
South Sea Rubber Company	6.0	13.3	7.0	16.0	8.0
Sumatra Development Company	7.0	17.5	8.0	26.0	10.0
Nissan Rubber Company	10.0	23.6	15.0	37.0	20.0

Note: The figures for the second half of 1936 for the Nissan Rubber Company are based on estimation.

Market Prices The prices of rubber are expected to remain at high level in view of their firm tone although the rising tendency has been checked by the successive reductions in restriction quotas of production, but the increase in production will enable the rubber companies to show satisfactory results and probably increase their dividends to shareholders.

The chief articles produced are tyres, rubber shoes, toys, tubes, electric battery cases, etc. The following table gives statistics for mills employing more than five persons only.

PRODUCTION OF RUBBER MANUFACTURES IN JAPAN

Soft Rubber Manufactures

Year	Shoes and Other Footwear		Toys	Tyres and Accessories	For Machinery
	No. Pairs	Value	(In ¥1,000)		
	units				
1926	15,080	15,858	2,699	—	—
1927	17,171	18,153	3,064	—	—

Year	Shoes and Other Footwear		Toys	Tyres and Accessories	For Machinery
	No. Pairs	Value			
	units	(In ¥1,000)			
1928	26,143	21,306	2,517	—	—
1929	37,913	24,934	2,318	25,753	2,126
1930	47,290	20,379	2,313	19,285	1,420
1931	32,266	15,929	3,320	19,454	636
1932	34,294	17,352	5,027	24,080	1,173
1933	40,867	21,827	5,562	31,826	1,000
1934	44,305	25,102	3,547	40,588	491
1935	54,802	28,973	4,619	45,907	1,132

Soft Rubber Manufactures

Year	Belts	Rubber Pipes	Others	Total	Hard Rubber Manufactures	Grand Total
			(In ¥1,000)			
1926				54,834	3,765	58,600
1927				63,283	2,772	66,056
1928				69,075	1,195	70,270
1929	4,698	1,318	9,859	74,871	1,727	76,598
1930	4,576	1,972	9,551	59,563	1,203	60,766
1931	4,005	1,747	9,898	54,992	1,112	56,104
1932	4,438	2,191	10,563	64,827	1,054	65,882
1933	5,662	2,989	16,061	84,981	1,722	86,704
1934	7,165	3,448	20,159	100,503	2,715	103,218
1935	8,262	4,422	23,113	116,431	2,620	119,052

Imports and Exports

The importation of rubber manufactures is decreasing each year. Tyres for automobiles, hose, belting for machinery, old rubber, etc., are the principal imports, but hose and belting of domestc manufacture are rapidly replacing the imported articles. On the other hand, the exportation of rubber manufactures is developing rapidly, especially in the case of rubber shoes.

Cultivation of Gum Trees

Plantation work by the Japanese was started as early as 1906 in the Malay States, and was later extended to Sumatra, North Borneo and other places. Soon afterwards a great interest was taken in the industry, Japanese investments quickly grew, and the work that was originally started as a private enterprise is now mostly carried on by joint stock companies.

Demand and Supply

According to the international agreement on the limitation of rubber production, the rubber production allotted to this country during 1937 is fixed at 1,298,000, tons or an average of 108,000 tons monthly. These figures represent a curtailment by 25 per cent for the first quarter of the year, 20 per cent for the second quarter and 15 per cent for the third quarter. The curtailment rate for the last quarter of the year still remains to be fixed. With this amount of production, it is estimated that the exports of rubber during the year will amount to 1,053,000 tons or to around 1,100,000 tons if wild rubber is taken into account.

IMPORTS OF RAW RUBBER AND EXPORTS OF PRINCIPAL RUBBER MANUFACTURES

(Unit in yen)

Year	Imports of Raw Rubber	Exports of Principal Rubber Manufactures			
		Boots and shoes	Tires for Rikisha, Bicycles and Other Vehicles	Toys	Others
1932	15,988,000	4,889,000	4,377,000	5,506,000	—
1933	29,685,000	8,213,000	8,839,000	8,633,000	—
1934	57,337,000	3,332,000	9,994,000	6,406,000	5,216,000
1935	51,636,065	2,699,337	9,945,667	4,195,171	6,568,000
1936	72,957,000	1,832,000	9,939,000	4,641,000	7,424,000

Celluloid

General

The Japanese celluloid industry made considerable development during the World War. Owing to a heavy demand coming from European countries, where factories were closed by the War, Japanese celluloid products once dominated the world's markets. but with the termination of the War, foreign products quickly regained their position in the markets captured by Japan during the War, and for some years the industry was in a state of depression. Gradually penetration was effected by traders and exporters, and overseas markets were largely restored, especially after the replacement of the gold embargo in December, 1931. The domestic market has been prosperous for many years, without being affected very much by changes in economic conditions.

Japanese celluloid products are mainly exported to America, England, South America and Australia. They are now exported to Europe and Africa, in competition with German products, their most formidable rivals. As long as the exchange rate is low and tariff walls are not raised, the export trade is destined to be prosperous.

Celluloid manufacturing is one of the most promising industries in Japan, with total production amounting to ¥34,042,000 and exports reaching ¥18,998,000 in 1935, but it is faced with one great difficulty, that of obtaining its chief material cheaply. Camphor is the material, but as this is restricted by monopoly law its price is kept fairly high.

The Dai Nippon Celluloid Kaisha is the largest manufacturer. 75 per cent of the total production in Japan comes from this company, while the remaining 25 per cent is divided among about ten shall manufacturing concerns. The company, which has a virtual monopoly of celluloid manufacturing in this country, concentrates its energies on exporting. Nearly 80 per cent of Japan's total exports of celluloid are the produce of this company.

The company, at a cost of ¥2,000,000, has started manufacturing films at Ashigara at the foot of Mount Hakoné. Cellophane is manufactured at the Kanzaki factory of the Company, and is now procurable at very low prices.

Statistics Production of raw celluloid, celluloid manufactures, and exports of the same follow :

PRODUCTION OF CELLULOID AND MANUFACTURES THEREOF

Year	Raw Celluloid		Manufactures of Celluloid				
	Quantity metric tons	Value	Toys	Combs	Others	Total	Grand Total
			(In ¥1,000)				
1926	3,650	9,848	1,971		3,988	5,960	15,808
1927	3,414	9,372	1,539		3,125	4,665	14,037
1928	3,969	10,992	1,724		3,825	5,550	16,542
1929	5,806	12,278	2,025	535	4,668	7,229	19,508
1930	4,146	8,029	1,757	364	2,193	4,315	12,345
1931	4,847	7,800	861	393	1,347	2,602	10,403
1932	5,700	7,974	1,040	1,056	2,145	4,242	12,217
1933	8,893	16,674	2,628	1,503	3,395	7,527	24,202
1934	10,393	20,277	1,636	1,090	4,640	7,367	27,644
1935	13,033	24,649	1,975	1,208	6,208	9,392	34,042

EXPORTS OF RAW CELLULOID AND MANUFACTURES THEREOF

Year	Raw Celluloid		Celluloid Manufactures				
	Quantity metric tons	Value	Toys	Combs	Others	Total	Grand total
			(In ¥1,000)				
1924	109	371	2,718	466	584	3,769	4,140
1925	115	399	4,265	696	510	5,472	5,872
1926	48	168	4,545	602	795	5,944	6,113
1927	77	208	4,077	715	840	5,632	5,841
1928	98	249	4,229	785	1,015	6,030	6,280
1929	208	396	5,572	963	1,834	8,370	8,767
1930	161	293	4,423	631	1,267	6,322	6,621
1931	304	504	3,041	763	920	4,725	5,230
1932	511	875	2,527	1,467	1,494	5,490	6,366

Year	Raw Celluloid		Celluloid Manufactures				
	Quantity metric tons	Value	Toys	Combs	Others	Total	Grand total
			(In ¥1,000)				
1933	1,320	2,363	3,178	3,110	2,346	8,635	11,813
1934	1,804	3,303	3,708	4,260	3,223	11,191	14,494
1935	2,033	3,469	6,054	4,414	3,065	13,433	16,902
1936	—	3,717	6,338	3,857	4,229	14,424	18,141

Note: Incongruity in the figures of celluloid manufactures in the production and exports tables is due to the fact that a large amount of celluloid manufacture is produced by mills where less than 5 persons are employed.

Matches

The Industry in the Past

A factory for making matches was first established in Japan, in Tokyo, in April, 1875, by a certain Mr. Makoto Shimizu, who had just returned from studying the subject in a French technical school and a match factory managed by the French Government. In the same year a factory was established in Osaka, and in 1877 another was established in Kobé. In 1878, three years after the first factory was established, matches to the value of ¥24,000 were exported, and in succession factories were established in Shizuoka, Aichi, Osaka and Hyogo prefectures. By 1889, not only had the importation of matches ceased, but large quantities, in face of strong foreign competition, were being exported to China. In 1887, Hyōgo-ken Match Seizogyo Kumiai (Association of Manufacturers of Matches in Hyogo prefecture) was formed and in 1900 the Dogyo Kumiai (Association of Traders in Matches) was organized. The industry experienced great prosperity during the Russo-Japanese War, exports were made not only to China but also to the South Sea Islands, Straits Settlements and India. But from about that time the match industry began to develop in China and by 1908 it had developed to the extent that the market in China was considerably curtailed for the Japanese product, then when India raised her tariff on matches, and the Dutch East Indies imposed a consumption tax on them, exports of matches to countries in the Orient were considerably reduced. Exports for some time became almost negligibly small but in 1933, they suddenly increased to ¥3,248,000 from about ¥938,000 in 1932.

Present State of the Industry

There are 89 factories with the total monthly productive capacity of 63,000 tons, but the actual demand is about 40,000 toons or 50,000 tons.

The development of the match industry during the World War was such as to make the industry a menace to the International Match Company. This company, therefore, commenced nagotiations with and was successful in amalgamating the Nippon Match Manufacturing Co., Ltd., which was one of the Mitsui interests, and the Nippon Match Co. came under foreign management for three years, that is, until 1927, when the largest match manufacturer in Japan, the Toyo Match Co., Ltd., seeing the advantages which would accrue from co-operation with the International Match Company agreed to amalgamation. The Daido Match Co., Ltd. (The Great Consolidated Match Co., Ltd.) was organized with capital equally subscribed by Japan and Sweden, and the management was placed in Japanese hands, avoiding in this way competition in foreign markets.

Exports Exports increased along with the development of the industry and as far back as 1913 Japan's match exports totalled some ¥12,000,000 after meeting the domestic demand. During the World War annual exports were between ¥30,000,000 and ¥40,000,000, forming one of the big ten export items of Japan.

Due to the rising importance of Soviet matches in international trade, Japan's shipments to the United States have fallen almost to the vanishing point. At one time Japanese matches were most active in this trade, outstripping Soviet and Swedish matches in American sales. In the spring of 1935, however, a match sales agreement was concluded in New York, covering the American market. Each group agreed to take an annual quota of 33,000 tons.

In spite of the agreement, the situation has developed adversely for the Japanese and the trade is facing ruin. In anticipation of the conclusion of the agreement, the Soviet Union shipped vast quantities of its matches to America and since then has been underselling all competitors.

Japanese efforts to combat this tendency have been fruitless. The Goto

Match Importing Company which the Japanese exporters established in New York to handle that end of the business has not been able to check the Soviet advance, for it has been trying to get large profits on each unit, rather than meeting the Soviet price. Shipments have fallen away to nothing and the exporters here are likely to repudiate the agreement and ship directly in the future unless something is done.

When the Japanese match industry was influenced by Swedish interests the export field was limited to China and part of the South Seas. America, Australia, the Near East, Africa and Europe was monopolized by Swedish interests. After Kreuger's downfall Japanese match exporters took back their old markets. With the replacement of the gold embargo Japanese products have found their way in heavy volume to their old markets. The low exchange rate and cheap labour in Japan have stimulated exports.

Exports in 1934 and 1935 follow :

EXPORTS OF MATCHES

(Value in yen)

Destinations	1935	1936
Hong-Kong	1,565,000	—
Straits Settlements	501,000	—
U. S. A.	300,000	—
Other	842,000	—
Total	3,209,000	2,174,000

Number of Factories The number of match factories in Japan was 146 with 8,463 operatives at the end of 1934, an increase of 3 and 313 respectively.

Production of matches and allied articles in recent years has been as follows :

PRODUCTION OF MATCHES, ETC.

Year	Quantity Produced Gross	Value (In yen)	Match-boxes	Matchwood
1926	24,087,312	15,667,221	1,111,140	1,566,661
1927	3,301,575	14,540,033	1,217,350	2,202,373
1928	19,471,637	12,445,793	741,202	1,383,046
1929	21,607,683	9,825,495	1,358,616	1,220,148
1930	16,722,653	7,464,081	645,765	600,047
1931	13,535,353	6,686,245	457,067	701,334
1932	18,234,683	7,306,721	764,905	613,939
1933	20,711,239	9,202,221	1,169,029	710,525
1934	20,597,615	10,033,567	550,947	616,915
1935	27,369,618	12,659,929	607,979	742,767

Dyestuffs

Through Governmental protection extending over many years, the Japanese dyestuff industry is now well established. Self-sufficiency will be only a matter of time, for within recent years this industry has, along with the other industries of the country been making exceptional progress. Japan supplies 99 per cent of all sulphuric dyes demanded domestically. Concerning ratios of high-grade dye supplies, Japan can supply 86 per cent of miscellaneous dyes, 49 per cent of acid dyes, 35 per cent of mordant dyes and 26 per cent of cat dyes for internal use. Coal-tar dyes were already exported in 1934 to the volume of 7,023 metric tons, worth ¥4,259,000. Napthol and Indanthrane dyes, of which consumption is approximately 150,000 kin worth about ¥3,000,000, are not manufactured here, but are imported from Germany. Research in producing these dyes is under way by the Mitsui Mining and Japan Dyestuff Manufacturing Companies. Notwithstanding all this domestic activity, Japan still imports a large quantity of dyes. Vat colour imports were especially notable because Mitsui Mining produced mostly artificial indigo. Imports of dyestuff in 1936 were ¥11,404,000 in value, and showed an increase of ¥2,066,00 over 1935, details of which follow :

IMPORTS OF DYESTUFF

Colours	1934	1935 (In ¥1,000)	1936
Basic	979	828	796
Direct	2,403	2,252	3,013
Acid	1,669	1,939	1,776
Mordant and intermediate	1,353	1,723	2,006
Vat	2,147	1,865	2,458
Others	594	729	2,355
Total	9,147	9,338	11,404

The domestic production of dyes during 1935 compared with the preceding four years and exports of Japan-made dyes since 1931, follow :

PRODUCTION OF SYNTHETIC DYESTUFFS

Year	Basic		Direct		Acid		Mordant	
	Quantity 1,000kg.	Value ¥1,000	Quantity 1,000kg.	Value ¥1,000	Quantity 1,000kg.	Value ¥1,000	Quantity 1,000kg.	Value ¥1,000
1931	479	1,617	744	2,032	247	691	40	161
1932	608	2,415	1,243	3,589	425	1,518	91	263
1933	717	4,069	1,693	5,707	522	2,249	32	220
1934	765	4,266	2,183	6,816	554	2,091	178	750
1935	677	3,774	2,700	7,726	756	2,781	341	1,409

PRODUCTION OF SYNTHETIC DYESTUFFS

Year	Sulphide		Vat Colours: Artificial Indigo		Vat Colours: Others		Others and Total
	Quantity 1,000kg.	Value ¥1,000	Quantity 1,000kg.	Value ¥1,000	Quantity 1,000kg.	Value ¥1,000	
1931	7,392	2,208	117	433	33	122	8,378
1932	10,609	4,602	193	771	45	259	15,369
1933	11,816	5,721	594	2,327	65	445	23,983
1934	12,144	5,107	1,724	3,803	28	400	27,446
1935	12,450	4,673	2,816	5,760	26	627	31,265

PRODUCTION OF ANILINE AND INTERMEDIATES

	Aniline		Others and Total
	Quantity 1,000kg.	Value (In ¥1,000)	
1931	2,127	1,242	4,333
1932	2,440	1,591	6,803
1933	2,995	2,600	10,057
1934	3,821	3,033	8,492
1935	4,043	2,924	12,077

EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC DYESTUFFS

	Quantity (Metric tons)	Value (¥1,000)
1931	2,011	509
1932	4,521	1,522
1933	6,125	2,895
1934	6,423	4,259
1935	8,882	7,304

Aluminium

The first aluminium manufacturing plant in Japan was erected at Omachi, Nagano prefecture, in December, 1933. The Japan Electric Industry Company, formerly known as the Japan Iodine Company, runs it. This concern also built the first alumina factory at Koyasu, Yokohama, in the spring of the same year. At the Koyasu factory Korean alum is used for making 20 metric tons of alumina a day. Alumina is sent to the Omachi factory, where 10 tons of aluminium is manufactured. The production cost of alumina is ¥1,000 per metric ton. This factory has a yearly productive capacity of 3,600 tons, but Japan's annual demand is from 10,000 to 12,000 tons, which used to be entirely imported from abroad. The capitalization of this company is ¥12,000,000. Plans for another alumina manufacturing plant are well advanced. Anticipating completion of the Jitsugetsutan Power station in June by the Taiwan Electric Power Company, an aluminium manufacturing company capitalized at ¥10,000,000 will be founded in Formosa in 1937. Under joint management of the Mitsui, Mitsubishi, Sumitomo and Furukawa interests. The factory will be erected in Takao province, Formosa. Bauxite will be imported from Borneo, Korea, the Malay Peninsula and Brazil. In the first year the firm plans to have an output of 2,000 tons of aluminium,but this will be boosted to 20,000 tons in the future. When the annual production reaches the 20,444 ton level, Japan will be self-sufficient as regards this metal.

Imports of aluminium into Japan during the past five years have been as follows :

	Amount in kilogrammes	Value in yen
1932	8,285,050	7,794,000
1933	7,238,760	10,233,107
1934	10,175,820	12,581,368
1935	13,401,480	18,362,317
1936	10,241,000	13,229,000

Pyrethrum

Hokkaido is noted for producing the pyrethrum flower, the raw material for anti-insect powder largely used for making mosquito incense and anti-bed bug powder. Pyrethrum was formerly exported through Kobé merchants, but owing to inconvenience the Hokkaido Government encouraged direct shipments from Hokkaido, the first direct shipment being made in September, 1933. The Hokkaido Government also caused pyrethrum manufacturers to organize the Manufactured Pyrethrum Industrial Guild, as the first step to the export of manufactured pyrethrum abroad, which had hitherto been exported in the shape of dried flowers. As an international commodity, manufactured pyrethrum is steadily gaining ground, and under the encouragement of their government, the Hokkaido pyrethrum raisers are manufacturing it for direct export to the United States, Saigon, Bangkok, Rangoon, Manila, Singapore, Sourabaya, Batavia, Calcutta and Bombay, and to such European markets as London, Hamburg and Paris. Wakayama prefecture is also noted for raising pyrethrum flowers. Production and exports of pyrethrum during the last few years follow :

PRODUCTION AND EXPORTS OF PYRETHRUM

Year	Production		Exports	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
	1,000kg.	¥1,000	1,000kg.	¥1,000
1931	5,147	2,627	2,630	1,681
1932	5,107	3,730	5,680	4,752
1933	6,061	7,809	5,088	6,349
1934	7,798	10,574	5,630	7,447
1935	12,746	7,322	7,665	6,400
1936	—	—	—	3,207

CHAPTER XXIV

COMMUNICATIONS

General

The communications of the country are supervised by the Minister of Communications and a special account is established for the management of this business, beginning with the fiscal year 1934–1935. General condition of the business in Japan proper in 1935–1936 may be obtained from the following :

Post, telegraph and telephone officials and operatives (Sept. 30. 1936)	240,937
Post, telegraph and telephone offices (Sept. 30, 1936)	13,587
Ordinary mail routes (Dec. 31, 1935) in. km.	86,088
Ordinary mails accepted (1935–36)	4,735,348,007
Ordinary mails delivered (1935–36)	4,901,685,581
Parcel post routes (March 31, 1935) in km.	85,385
Parcel accepted (1935–36)	68,291,938
Parcels delivered (1935–36)	64,854,931
Telegraph routes (Dec. 3,1 1935) in km.	50,886
Telegraph lines (Dec. 31, 1935) in km.	377,025
Telegraphs despatched (1935–36)	63,755,257
Telegraphs received (1935–36)	66,874,566
Telephone subscribers (Sept. 30, 1936)	908,488
Telephone routes (Dec. 31, 1935) in km.	72,240
Telephone lines (Dec. 31, 1935) in km.	6,737,327
Telephones (March 31,1935)	935,139
Telephone messages (1934–35)	3,783,991,018
Income from postage and fees (1935–36)	¥288,489,480
Business expenditure (1935–36)	¥189,781,664

The Postal Service

Historical Survey

The present state postal service system was established in 1871, between Tokyo and Osaka. In August of that year, post offices were opened in Niigata, Hakodaté, Kobé, Nagasaki, and Yokohama. In December a new postal route was established between Tokyo and Nagasaki, connecting the two cities in 7 days and 17 hours. In May, 1872, the postal service between Yokohama and Tokyo was greatly improved by the establishment of five deliveries a day, and by July the service was extended to all the cities and towns of importance throughout the country, except a part of Hokkaido.

Foreign Mail Opens In March, 1872, a foreign mail service was opened at the same time as the establishment of official postal regulations. In those days, foreign mail matter in Japan was handled with the aid of the British, American, and French post offices in Yokohama, Kobé and Nagasaki. Soon after the conclusion of the America-Japan Mail Service Treaty in 1873, the American post offices were withdrawn from this country, and Japan was thus placed on an equal footing with the U.S.A. as regards the mail service between the two countries. In 1877, an arrangement was made with twenty-five countries participating in the International Mail Service Treaty. Thereupon, the British and the French post offices were also withdrawn from this country.

The post offices were at first classified into five grades, and in March 1886, they were classified into three as at present. In view of the development of telephone and telegraph business, the authorities introduced a revision in the system of the Communications Department in 1903, and divided post offices into post, telegraph, and telephone offices each of them being classified into 1st, 2nd and 3rd, or 1st and 2nd in the case of telephone offices. With the rapid increase in the amount of mail matter and telephone and telegraphic messages, the regulations of the Communications Department as to the number and kind of offices, were extended from time to time, and at present there are offices in warships, steamers, trains, etc., in addition to the network throughout the country.

The air mail service was commenced

in 1929 with the establishment of the Japan Air Transport Company in April of the same year.

The Growth The rapid growth of the postal service in the early years is illustrated by the following statistics :

Year	No. of P. O.
1871	180
1872	1,160
1873	1,501
1874	3,245
1882	5,527

Following the introduction of a revision in the postal service regulations in 1883, some of the offices were eliminated, the number being reduced to 4,088 by the end of 1889. But the steady development of postal business necessitated an increasing number of offices as the following figures for Japan proper show :

On March 31 of	No. of P. O.
1927	8,916
1928	9,114
1929	9,393
1930	9,690
1931	9,954
1932	10,208
1933	10,322
1934	10,611
1935	10,891
1936	11,253

Post offices are classified into three grades, namely 1st, 2nd and 3rd, the 1st being, side by side with 2nd and 3rd offices, in such important places as Tokyo, Osaka, and other leading cities. The 2nd and 3rd are in smaller cities, towns and villages throughout the country. Those of the 1st and 2nd grade are government offices, under direct government management. In post offices of the 3rd class, business is conducted on the contract system.

Its Business

In addition to ordinary matters relating to post and telegrams, the post offices in Japan receive taxes on behalf of the various tax authorities and pay pensions, annuities, etc. on behalf of the Treasury. Since 1906, New Year's greeting cards have been handled separately from ordinary mail matter with a view to relieving congestion. Such mail matter is accepted by all post offices from December 15 to 29 for delivery on New Year's day.

Ordinary mail matter is delivered 5 or 6 times daily in Tokyo, Osaka, and Kyoto, and 4 or 5 times in other large cities, where there are 1st class offices. In smaller cities, the 2nd class offices deliver 3 or 4 times a day. In towns and villages where they have 3rd class offices, mail matter is delivered twice a day only. The number of collections is the same as that of delivery in most cases.

The parcel post service was started in 1892, the first arrangement as regards foreign connections being made with Hongkong in 1879. The scope of international service was gradually extended, and covers almost all treaty countries at present.

Statistical Tables The following tables indicate the volume of business, handled by the post offices, and the increase in the amount of their work ;

NUMBER OF POST OFFICES (September 30, 1936)

	Japan Proper	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	Kawantung Leased Territory	South Sea Islands
1st Clas	97	13	—	—	—	—
2nd Class	222	10	4	103	59	9
3rd Class	10,378	162	77	—	—	—
Minor offices	774	—	—	26	182	—
Total	11,471	185	81	129	241	9

VOLUME OF MAIL MATTER HANDLED IN JAPAN PROPER

		Ordinary Mail	Parcel Post	Total	Percentage of Increase
1897-1898	Despatched	550,915,742	4,108,488	555,023,230	9·98
	Received	539,540,474	4,060,796	543,601,270	9.51
1907-1908	Despatched	1,357,447,195	17,676,745	1,375,123,939	6.21
	Received	1,346,523,695	16,567,155	1,363,092,850	5.65

		Ordinary Mail	Parcel Post	Total	Percentage of Increase
1912-1913	Despatched	1,630,394,998	24,276,991	1,654,671,989	5.28
	Received	1,594,850,576	23,008,666	1,617,859,242	6.03
1921-1922	Despatched	3,992,769,865	48,758,863	4,041,528,718	2.03
	Received	3,989,309,281	45,890,304	4,035,199,585	1.87
1926-1927	Despatched	3,974,192,623	58,258,644	4,032,451,267	2.49
	Received	3,906,474,525	55,852,079	3,962,326,604	2.66
1929-1930	Ddspatched	5,096,611,368	63,650,583	5,160,261,951	9.55
	Received	5,046,099,425	60,654,644	5,106,754,069	(−)9.70
1930-1931	Despatched	4,409,551,651	60,067,753	4,469,619,404	(−)0.02
	Received	4,437,939,812	57,724,887	4,495,664,693	0.18
1931-1932	Despatched	4,409,202,875	58,201,931	4,584,404,806	1.08
	Received	4,532,477,443	55,654,599	4,588,132,042	(−)1.35
1932-1933	Despatched	4,253,259,031	58,472,313	4,312,231,344	(−)0.36
	Received	4,294,100,596	54,849,774	4,348,950,370	0.34
1933-1934	Despatched	4,357,325,600	61,240,342	4,418,565,942	0.25
	Recheived	4,402,200,835	57,762,972	4,459,963,807	0.26
1934-1935	Despatched	4,674,986,977	65,073,439	4,740,060,406	0.73
	Received	4,772,868,449	61,847,673	4,834,716,122	0.84
1935-1936	Despatched	4,735,348,007	68,291,938	4,803,639,947	0.13
	Received	4,901,685,581	64,854,932	4,966,540,513	0.27

VOLUME OF MAIL MATTER HANDLED DURING 1935-36
IN THE EMPIRE

	Japan Proper	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	Kawntung Leased Territory	South Sea Mandated Islands
Ordinary mail						
Domestic mail						
Despatched	4,685,860,960	88,639,871	23,362,971	327,181,772	169,181,466	1,842,064
Collection post	6,644,852	166,421	10,867	443,214	11,690	—
Received	4,853,042,252	99,978,076	29,423,022	357,605,931	175,087,190	2,845,665
Collection post	—	311,587	62,967	672,535	119,847	—
Foreign mail			(Foreig mail			
Despatched	49,487,047	865,469	included)	407,412	12,653,576	14,164
Collection post	—	—		—	—	—
Received	48,643,329	623,219		1,266,123	8,368,919	15,875
Parcel post						
Domestic						
Despatched	67,373,217	716,840	248,041	2,491,824	820,971	14,385
Received	64,669,999	1,221,118	626,333	3,722,119	1,768,215	58,018
Foreign			(Foreign mail			
Despatched	918,721	9,929	included)	14,102	57,979	67
Received	184,933	3,205		6,675	32,334	112
Total						
Despatched	4,803,639,945	90,232,109	23,611,012	330,095,110	182,713,992	1,870,680
Collection post	6,644,852	166,421	10,867	443,214	11,690	—
Received	4,966,540,513	101,825,618	30,049,355	362,600,848	185,256,658	2,919,670
Collection post	—	311,587	62,967	672,535	119,847	—

Postal Money Order can hardly be included into the business of communications. It is, however, one of the important lines of business handled by the post office for the convenience of the large mass of people. The number and amount of postal money orders handled during 1935-36 are given below :

POSTAL MONEY ORDERS IN 1935-36
DOMESTIC

Territory	Issued		Paid	
	No.	Amount (In yen)	No.	Amount (In yen)
Japan Proper	36,926,278	751,734,983	39,348,351	817,399,466
Taiwan	1,138,570	31,987,757	671,357	19,918,867
Karafuto	544,750	15,860,974	258,276	9,069,380
Chosen	4,078,519	130,128,013	3,554,208	115,503,676

Territory	Issued No.	Issued Amount (In yen)	Paid No.	Paid Amount (In yen)
Kwantung Leased Territory	1,761,764	53,277,615	642,396	21,575,618
South Sea Mandated Islands	91,942	7,719,699	21,268	6,786,771
FOREIGN				
Japan Proper	50,828	1,981,744	373,325	9,790,625
Taiwan	16,702	475,353	2,888	87,569
Karafuto	325	15,150	698	21,073
Chosen	27,740	970,205	84,550	1,750,064
Kwantung Leased Territory	13,613	315,431	73,644	1,405,859
South Sea Mandated Islands	35	3,449	144	5,348

The number of postal money orders issued in Japan proper has been on the constant increase since 1875 when the business was first opened while the amount reached its highest mark in 1926 and continued decrease for five years until it began to regain the upward tendency in 1933.

POSTAL MONEY ORDERS IN JAPAN PROPER

Fiscal Year		Number	Increase (In percentage)	Amount (In yen)	Increase (In percentage)
1906-07	Issued	13,764,799	5.51	161,451,080	8.27
	Paid	14,819,319	6.21	188,256,859	9.69
1911-12	Issued	16,623,165	2.08	216,825,773	3.43
	Paid	17,925,194	2.10	240,099,681	2.75
1915-16	Issued	20,014,404	2.04	279,364,560	2,88
	Paid	21,538,637	2,02	306,299,553	2.76
1920-21	Issued	27,298,164	3.64	696.274,035	14.92
	Paid	28,892,790	3.41	754,893,817	14.65
1925-26	Issued	30,400,558	1.14	749,757,291	0.77
	Paid	31,888,323	1.04	797,891,087	0.57
1929-30	Issued	31,233,521	0.27	673,278,926	-1.02
	Paid	32,820,607	0.29	715,000,527	-1.40
1931-32	Issued	31,877,079	0.21	654,639,462	-0.28
	Paid	33,674,636	0.26	700,624,150	-0.20
1932-33	Issued	33,360,209	0.47	683,634,657	0.44
	Paid	35,345,114	0.50	735,961,393	0.50
1934-35	Issued	35,371,607	0.60	723,592,083	0.58
	Paid	37,539,575	0.62	784,338,121	0.66
1935-36	Issued	36,926,278	0.44	751,734,983	0.39
	Paid	39,348,351	0,48	817,399,466	0.42

Telegraph Service

Telegraph service in Japan was started in August, 1869, but this was for Governmental messages exclusively. Public telegraph service was started in September of the same year between Tokyo and Yokohama. Telegrams in European languages were despatched for the first time in April, 1870. In August of the same year Osaka and Kobé began to exchange telegraph messages. In June, 1871 the laying of the submarine cable between Nagasaki and Shanghai was completed. In February, 1873, aerial lines connected Tokyo and Nagasaki and telegraph service for districts along the lines was opened. In January, 1879, Japan entered the international telegraph association. With revisions of rules and laws in subsequent years the business was started on a fair and steady road of progress. Wireless telegraph service was installed in 1908, and telegraphic picture transmission was undertaken from August, 1930.

Statistics on the telegraph services follow :

TELEGRAPH STATIONS IN JAPAN PROPER

Year	Number	Increase in the Year	Year	Number	Increase in the Year
1929–1930	7,011	175	1933–1934	7,942	129
1930–1931	7,631	620	1934–1935	8,215	273
1931–1932	7,709	78	1935–1936	8,931	716
1932–1933	7,813	104			

NUMBER OF TELEGRAPH OFFICES, SEPTEMBER 30, 1936

		Japan Proper	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	China	Kwantung Leased Territory	South Sea Islands
1st class		4	—	—	—	3	32	—
Wireless		—	4	—	—	—	—	—
2nd class		42	3	—	8	—	—	—
Wireless	Land	16	—	—	—	—	—	—
	S. S.	20	—	—	—	—	—	—
Post and telegraph offices		7,697	176	80	772	—	22	—
Minor offices		1,649	37	11	104	—	141	—
Wireless	Land	17	3	1	1	—	48	1
	S. S.	712	7	—	—	—	—	—
Total		9,392	217	91	884	3	195	10

TELEGRAMS HANDLED IN 1935-1936

		Domestic Messages	Foreign Messages
Japan Proper (Japan—Manchuria included)	Despatched	62,433,347	1,321,910
	Delivered	65,544,777	1,329,789
Taiwan	Despatched	1,869,468	32,852
	Delivered	1,952,635	41,015
Karafuto	Despatched	905,032	199
	Delivered	877,446	851
Chosen	Despatched	7,977,060	15,246
	Delivered	7,900,567	20,894
P. O. in china	Despatched	30,936	132,449
	Delivered	34,156	126,817
Kwantung Leased Territory	Despatched	3,948,160	204,954
	Delivered	3,623,119	206,402
South sea Islands	Despatched	251,548	2,061
	Delivered	217,622	730

NUMBER OF TELEGRAMS HANDLED BY INLAND POST AND TELEGRAPH OFFICES

(1929–1936)

		Domestic	Foreign	Total	Increase or Decrease in %
1929–30	Despatch	63,905,977	1,294,828	—	—
	Arrival	66,507,676	1,336,570	—	—
1930–31	Despatch	57,382,506	1,183,861	58,566,367	de 1.31
	Arrival	59,925,616	1,224,974	61,150,590	de 1.23
1931–32	Despatch	55,507,280	1,193,654	56,700,934	de 0.32
	Arrival	57,784,498	1,224,442	59,008,940	de 0.35
1932–33	Despatch	54,065,046	1,254,430	55,319,476	de 0.24
	Arrival	56,281,163	1,243,925	57,525,088	de 0.25
1933–34	Despatch	56,529,921	1,237,193	57,767,114	in 0.44
	Arrival	58,843,016	1,242,847	60,085,863	in 0.45
1934–35	Despatch	59,173,906	1,262,539	60,436,445	in 0.46
	Arrival	61,591,759	1,272,011	62,863,770	in 0.46
1935–36	Despatch	62,433,347	1,321,910	63,755,257	0.55
	Arrival	65,544,777	1,329,789	66,874,566	0.64

LENGTH OF INLAND TELEGRAPH LINES

March 31, 1936

Land lines	Km.	As compared with the previous year
Aerial lines, routes	34,575	− 665
,, lines	234,090	− 505
Overhead cables,		
Routes	104	+ 13
Cores	23,621	+1,387
Underground lines		
Routes	745	+ 17
Cores	100.771	+1,455
Submarine cables		
Lines	15,462	+ 189
Cores	18,543	+ 201

PNEUMATIC TUBES

March 31, 1335

	Metre	As compared with the previous year
Length of routes	69,178	−1,130
Length of tubes	140,382	−1,841

FREQUENCIES AND HOURS OF FAULTS OF INLAND TELEGRAPH

1934-1935

Land and underground lines		
Contacts	Frequency	4,574
	Hour	23,426
Earth	Frequency	4,214
	Hour	40,803
Disconnection	Frequency	2,535
	Hour	14,617
Leakage	Frequency	235
	Hour	3,181
Other	Frequency	759
	Hour	1,311
Totol	Frequency	12,316
	Hour	83,338
As compared with the previous year	Frequency	− 274
	Hour	+ 20,245
Submarine cables	Frequency	102
	Hour	144,001
As compared with the previous year	Frequency	+ 5
	Hour	− 4,379

TELEGRAPHIC APPARATUSES AND BATTERIES

March 31, 1935

Apparatuses	
Telephones for telegraph service	4,279
Ink writers	3
Sounders	5,950
Automatic telegraphs, duplex	170
Undulator and siphon recorders	15
Printing duplex telegraphs, Japanese	55
Printing automatic duplex telegraph, alphabet	7
Double-duplex printing telegraphs	8
Phototelegraphs	4
Telegraph repeaters	209
Automatic time switch	89
Others	91
Total	10,880
Batteries	
Primary	94,218
Secondary	7,999
Total	102,217

Wireless Telegraph Service

The study of wireless telegraphy was begun in Japan in 1896, or one year after the invention of wireless telegraphy by Marquis Marconi. In 1903, an experiment was made between Nagasaki and Taiwan by the Communications Department with satisfactory results.

The First Station In November, 1906, Japan sent her delegation to Berlin to represent her at the First World Conference on Wireless Telegraphy. In May, 1908, the first land wireless telegraph station was established in Choshi, (Chiba prefecture), whilst the first marine wireless telegraph equipment was set up on the Toyo Kisen liner "Tenyo Maru" in the same year. In July, 1908 wireless telegraph stations were established at Ohsezaki in Nagasaki prefecture, Shionomisaki in Wakayama prefecture and Tsunojima in Yamaguchi prefecture. In December, 1908, a wireless telegraph station was established at Otchishi in Hokkaido. At the same time sets were installed on some of our ocean liners. Japan was thus placed on a more or less secure foundation in the sphere of wireless telegraphy.

The circulation of regulations for private wireless telegraph offices in October, 1915, greatly facilitated the healthy growth of the business, and the service was extended to wider areas. It was utilized for steamship communication, and contact was also made with steamers and between ships and land stations, and also between aeroplanes and steamers or stations on land. With the enforcement of a law for the establishment of wireless sets on steamers, the number of stations rapidly increased.

International Communication The extension of wireless communication with other countries started in Japan in 1915, when messages were exchanged between Otchishi station and Petropavlovsk in

Kamchatka. In 1916, the Funabashi station succeeded in exchanging messages with Hawaii. In 1920, the Iwaki station was established for handling messages between Japan and America. In 1925, the Government issued a law establishing the Japan Wireless Telegraph Company with a capital of ¥20,000,000, with a view to becoming absolutely independent of foreign telegraph companies, with whose co-operation Japan had been exchanging wireless messages with all other countries, except America, Russia, and China.

The Government transferred to the Company its Iwaki radio plant and the ground at Yosami and Yokkaichi which it was holding with the intention of erecting radio stations for the services with countries in Europe.

The Company has, according to the Law, to equip and manage the facilities and then rent them to the Ministry of Communications in consideration of a subsidy. Although many improvements were introduced at considerable outlay over all former installations of Iwaki radio plant by the Company, the advent of short-wave methods compelled it to close the stations upon the completion of its new stations at Oyama and Fukuoka.

The Company's circuits now offer from Nagoya direct communication service with England, France, Germany, Italy, Switzerland, Poland, Holland, Mexico and Brazil; and from Tokyo the circuits reach out to North and South America, Hawaii, the Philippines, French Indo-China, Siam, Dutch Indies, British India, and Syria. The Company has an extensive plan of development which will in future place Japan in direct touch with all the important countries of the world.

The Company now places the following stations in daily twenty-four hour service :

(a) Transmitting station at Oyama, near Tokyo.

Receiving station at Fukuoka, near Tokyo.

(b) Transmitting station at Yosami, near Nagoya.

Receiving station at Yokkaichi, near Nagoya.

Stations (a) are used for direct communication with San Francisco, Buenos Aires, Honolulu, Manila, Saigon, Bangkok, Bandoeng (Java), Bombay and Beirut (Syria); and, stations (b) for direct communication with London, Paris, Berlin, Rome, Geneva and Warsaw.

Messages originating in or destined to places beyond those mentioned above are retransmitted at those particular points.

Number of telegrams dealt with at wireless telegraph offices in the past five years was as follows :

		Domestic	Foreign
1930–31	Despatched	376,593	56,687
	Received	302,153	25,039
1931–32	Despatched	386,989	53,929
	Received	290,559	24,097
1932–33	Despatched	387,368	50,403
	Received	262,587	22,444
1933–34	Despatched	426,705	53,999
	Received	283,616	26,110
1934–35	Despatched	537,373	63,856
	Received	327,041	30,647

Telephone Service

According to the latest statistics, the number of telephone exchange offices in Japan proper was 5,310 and that of subscribers 870,476 in March, 1936.

The following tables show the development and present scope of the telephone service :

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE EXCHANGE AND MESSAGE OFFICES

Sept. 30, 1936

	Exchange Offices	Other Offices
Japan proper	5,310	8,177
Taiwan	115	173
Karafuto	31	93
Chosen	213	768
Kwantung Leased Territory	38	255
South Sea Islands	2	—

NUMBER OF INLAND TELEPHONE SUBSCRIBERS

	Total subscribers	Applicants for subscription
1929–30	690,043	182,217
1930–31	715,020	176,900
1931–32	729,914	172,150
1932–33	761,136	167,276
1933–34	796,538	161,857
1934–35	830,041	—
1935–36	870,476	—

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE SUBSCRIBERS IN THE EMPIRE, March 31, 1935

Japan Proper	Subscription
Tokyo Bureau	251,518
Nogoya Bureau	117,253
Osaka Bureau	222,654

Japan Proper	Subscription	Japan Proper	Subscription
Hiroshima Bureau	70,159	Taiwan	16,184
Kumamoto Bureau	76,045	Karafuto	5,263
Sendai Bureau	60,258	Chosen	37,694
Sapporo Bureau	32,154	Kawantung Leased Territory	41,498
Total	830,041	South Sea Islands	386

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE MESSAGES IN JAPAN PROPER

Year	In the Same Subscription Districts			With Other Districts	
	Messages between Subscribers	Hours of Conversations at Offices and Public Telephones	Requests for Calling out	Hours of Conversation	Requests for Calling out
1930-31	2,992,928,336	34,242,737	37,399	167,168,858	1,962,930
1931-32	3,111,359,022	34,755,091	37,131	180,033,609	1,954,216
1932-33	3,208,443,375	35,444,101	38,537	190,635,368	1,929,063
1933-34	3,564,536,772	36,949,570	43,165	211,604,540	2,003,246
1934-35	3,783,991,018	40,202,841	42,124	236,789,514	2,110,144

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE MESSAGES IN THE EMPIRE, 1934-1935

	In the Same Subscription District			With Other District	
	Messages between Subscribers	Hours of Conversation of Office and by Public Telephone	Requests of Call	Hours of Conversation	Requests of Call
Japan proper	3,783,991,018	40,202,841	42,124	236,789,514	2,110,114
Taiwan	77,639,368	89,161	546	2,472,413	48,880
Karafuto	24,328,144	26,322	—	543,838	22,977
Chosen	206,445,318	63,568	168	3,128,185	276,955
Kwantung Leased Territory	295,106,438	166,297	4,316	1,540,268	26,688
South Sea Islands	2,255,542	22	—	—	—

FREQUENCIES OF FAULTS WITH URBAN TELEPHONES IN JAPAN PROPER, 1933-1934

		As Compared with the Previous Year
Faults in exchange offices	512.164	-16,740
,, subscribers	578,716	+ 2,149
,, on routes	313,586	- 7,976
Total	1,404,466	-22,567
Faults per 1 subscriber	—	—

LENGTH OF TELEPHONE LINES IN THE EMPIRE 1935-1936

	Japan Proper		Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	Kwantung Leased Territory	South Sea Islands
	Km.	As Compared with the Previous Year					
Land lines							
Aerial lines, routes	59,682	+814	3,395	290	9,471	2,122	27
,, lines	596,647	+53	28,394	5,619	59,225	39,812	94
Overhead cables, routes	7,532	+1,510	157	31	17	314	3
,, cores	1,952,710	+169,595	18,060	5,198	39,072	59,851	375
Underground lines							
Routes	3,939	+345	22	4	43	22	—
Cores	4,179,112	+234,607	35,417	3,353	55,662	44,941	—
Submarine cables							
Lines	1,087	+24	—	—	—	—	—
Cores	8,858	+365	—	—	—	—	—

Figures for Japan proper are of March 31, 1936, while those for others are of 1933-34.

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE APPARATUSES AND BATTERIES IN TNE EMPIRE, 1934-1935

	Japan Proper	As Compared with the Previous Year	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	Kwantung Leased Territory	South Sea Islands
Manual telephone exchanges	12,043	+51	254	1	—	198	1
Automatic telephone exchanges	3,001	+474	1	85	841	197	2
Telephones	935,139	+42,948	17,620	5,658	43,648	24,695	354
Batteries	889,216	-11,260	24,516	5,999	71,446	17,171	470

Note: Figures for colonies are of 1933-34.

Wireless Telephone Service

The first experiment with wireless telephony in Japan was made in 1911 by the Communications Department with very satisfactory results. It was in 1923, however, that the service was opened for public use between Kobé city and steamers in the harbour. In 1926, this service was extended to Moji. The result being satisfactory, the Government decided further to extend the service and in December, 1932, the International Telephone Company, with a capital of ¥10,000,000, was established through the solicitation of the Communications Ministry to build up stations for the use of the Government and private bodies. This was done to facilitate wireless telephone service between Japan and the world, Japan's colonies and ships at sea. The transmitting station of the company is established at Nazaki, Ibaraki prefecture, and the receiving station at Komuro, Saitama prefecture, and these stations are connected each other and with the Tokyo Central Telephone Office by cables. Wireless telephones are now available between Tokyo, Nagoya, Kanazawa, Kobé, Osaka, Kyoto, Yokohama, Toyohashi, Nara, Himéji, Shimonoséki, Fukui, Fukuoka, Yawata, Wakamatsu, Nishinomiya, Amagasaki and Suma. The service has been opened between Formosa and Tokyo, on June 20, 1934.

In 1934-35 international wireless telephone service was successively opened between Japan and Manchoukuo, U. S. A., Canada, Mexico, Cuba, Philippines, Dutch East Indies, Sumatra, England, and Germany. The service with other 28 European countries was opened in July, 1935, with China in February, 1936, with Cape Town and Brazil in April, 1936, with Saigon in May, 1936, and with Argentine, Uruguay, Paraguay, French-Indo-China, Siam, and Union of South Africa in 1937.

Rates for the first 3 minutes range from ¥40 to ¥110 for European countries and from ¥54 to ¥95 for the U.S.A., the highest being ¥164 for Paraguay in South America.

Telephotograph Service This service is only available between Tokyo, Osaka and Formosa.

Radio

Radio broadcasting in Japan is under the control of a single organization, the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan, which in turn is supervised by the Ministry of Communications. Programmes are subjected to strict censorship and nothing that might harm the interests of the country and its people is allowed to go on the air. Advertising of all sorts is prohibited. Political speeches cannot be included in the daily programmes. Even election campaign speeches and Diet proceedings cannot be broadcasted. (See Chapter XXXVII.)

The First Programme The first radio programme in Japan went on the air on March 22, 1925, five years after the world's first regular commercial broadcasting by the station KDKA, East Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. The station, using the call letters JOAK, was in Tokyo, and it had a power of only 500 watts. This station, established temporarily at Shibaura, on the water front of Tokyo Harbour, was replaced in July by a 1 kw. station at Atagoyama, a hill in the southern part of Tokyo. In the difficult times following the great earthquake and fire of September, 1923, which laid waste a greater part of Tokyo, the radio played an important part in comforting and encouraging the citizens who were working hard to rebuild their city and their homes.

Shortly afterwards, small stations were established in Osaka and Nagoya, which form with Tokyo the three largest population centres. The engineers in charge of these stations were sceptical about their success. There was no assurance that the Japanese public would respond by buying radio sets and listening in, or would like the programmes once they were heard. These fears, however, were groundless. For a time there were not enough receiving sets in the stores to meet the demand. Instead of a novelty, the radio became a daily necessity. Elated at their success, the promoters worked out a plan to centralize all the broadcasting in the country, which was heartily approved by the Ministry of Communications. Before the end of a year, the stations in Tokyo, Osaka and Nagoya were merged, and the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan was formed to assure nationwide cooperation in meeting the demand for more efficient stations and better programmes.

The expansion of Japanese broadcasting in the past twelve years has been as follows :

March	22nd,	1925	The first experimental station JOAK commenced broadcasting at Shibaura, Tokyo.
June	1st,	1925	Station JOBK (Osaka) commenced activities.
June	15th,	1925	Station JOCK (Nagoya) „ „
July	12th,	1925	The experimental station JOAK was replaced by a 1 k.w. station at Atagoyama, Tokyo, now used as a studio.
July	15th,	1926	10 k. w. broadcasting was inaugurated at the Nagoyastation.
August	6th,	1926	The formation of the Nippon Hoso Kyokai (B. C. J.) as a corporate juridical person, with authorization to operate wireless stations in Japan proper, under the supervision of the Ministry of Communications.
Aug.	20th,	1926	The three stations JOAK, JOBK, & JOCK were amalgamated into C.B.J.
May		1928	10 k. w. broadcasting was inaugurated at the Tokyo and Osaka stations.
June	5th,	1928	10 k. w. broadcasting was inaugurated at the Sapporo station.
June	16th,	1928	10 k. w. broadcasting was inaugurated at the Sendai station.
June	16th,	1928	10 k. w. broadcasting was inaugurated at the Kumamoto station.
July	3rd,	1928	10 k. w. broadcasting was inaugurated at the Hiroshima station.
April	15th,	1930	Station JOJK (Kanazawa) commenced activities.
Dec.	6th,	1930	Station JOLK (Fukuoka) „ „
Feb.	1st,	1931	Station JOKK (Okayama) „ „
March	8th,	1931	Station JONK (Nagano) „ „
March	21st,	1931	Station JOPK (Shizuoka) „ „
April	6th,	1931	Station JOAK (Tokyo) Wave No. II „
Nov.	11th,	1931	Station JOQK (Niigata) „ „
Dec.	2nd,	1931	Station JOSK (Kokura) „ „
Feb.	6th,	1932	Station JOVK (Hakodate) „ „
Feb.	26th,	1932	Station JOUK (Akita) „ „
March	7th,	1932	Station JOTK (Matsuye) „ „
March	22nd,	1932	Station JORK (Kochi) „ „
April	1st,	1932	Monthly subscription fee was reduced from one Yen to seventy-five Sen.
June	24th,	1932	Station JOOK (Kyoto) commenced activities.
June	23rd,	1932	Station JOBG (Mayebashi) „ „
June	26th,	1932	Station JOBK (Osaka) Wave No. II „
			Station JOCK (Nagoya) Wave No. II „
July	13th,	1932	Station JOFG (Fukui) „ „
July	19th,	1932	Station JODG (Hamamatsu) „ „
July	23rd,	1932	Station JOXK (Tokushima) „ „
Sept.	4th,	1932	Station JOCG (Asahikawa) „ „
Sept	20th,	1932	Station JOAG (Nagasaki) „ „
May	16th,	1934	The reoganization :— The new statute came into force with the sanction of the Ministry of Communications, which has brought Japanese broad-

casting on to one unified working system.

April	1st,	1935	Monthly subscription fee was reduced from seventy-five Sen to fifty Sen.
Oct.	20th,	1935	Station JOHG (Kagoshima) commenced activities.
Dec.	13th,	1935	Station JOIG (Toyama) „ „
Sept.	25th,	1936	Extraordinary General Meeting.
		1936	The installation of Prince Fumimaro Konoe as Patron.
Nov.	21st,	1936	The new Osaka Broadcasting House was opened to service.
Nov.	22nd,	1936	Station JOOG (Obihiro) opened to operation.
Nov.	30th,	1936	Station JOJG (Yamagata) „ „ „
Dec.	14th,	1936	Station JOLG (Tottori) „ „ „

International Programme Exchange Starting with the vivid scenes of New Year's Eve from U.S.A., the year of 1936 was the busiest year the Corporation ever experienced in the line of international broadcasting.

In the early spring, speeches on the London Naval Disarmament Conference by Japanese representatives and the relay of Funeral Service of the late King George V. from England impressed the hearts of whole nation. Besides the large number of programme exchanges with other countries, as one of the chief events previously planned, the Corporation succeeded in relaying eye-witness accounts of almost all events from the actual scene of the Olympic stadium and swimming pool on the occasion of the XIth Olympiad which was held in Berlin.

In order to describe the running commentary of the Olympic Games, the Corporation sent a corps of JOAK staff members to Berlin for the benefit of the domestic listeners.

The entire nation most enthusiastically listened to these broadcasts from Berlin, because of the two-fold events; one of which was Olympic Committee's deliberation in Berlin on the fortunate city for 1940 Olympiad, and the other was the outcome of the Berlin Olympiad itself, awaiting the success of the large number of Japanese competitors participating in the Games. The result of reception was so successful that the whole nation not only enjoyed these broadcasts but marvelled at the technical perfection in the modern art of radio transmission for long distance in which much credit is due to the skill and effort of the operators on both sides.

The international programme exchange yearly adding its importance as one of the most effective mediums to create a better understanding of each nation, the Corporation is increasing its effort in various phases of this field to co-operate with as many broadcasting organisations of the world as circumstances permit.

In the year 1936, Japan participated in thirty-three international broadcasts.

Overseas Broadcast The Broadcasting Corporation of Japan inaugurated daily one hour short-wave broadcast, that is 2:00 to 3:00 p.m., Tokyo Time, under the name of "Overseas Broadcast" on June 1st, 1935 with the object of furnishing the residents in the foreign countries with accurate information about Japan and of introducing the culture of Japan.

The programmes of this broadcast consist of news in Japanese and English, music, entertainment, talk and eyewitness accounts of various sport events and other subjects, specially selected to present a true and interesting glimpse of the real Japan to all listeners abroad.

Though this broadcast was mainly directed to the West Coast of North America and Hawaii, the programmes of this broadcast met with an enthusiastic response and reports of good reception and much encouraging response complimenting the contents of the programmes were received, not only from the areas to which they were specifically addressed but also from other parts of the world.

Moreover, the Corporation was carrying out during the past year experimental transmissions, one for the East Coast of North America and South America and the other for Europe, each twice a week. These transmissions also met with considerable response and a large number of reception reports from those who had listened to these broadcasts in various countries to which these transmissions were specifically directed.

Encouraged by the good results of these experimental transmissions, the Corporation has decided to inaugurate three more daily transmissions, and the first programme of these transmissions went on the air on January 1st, 1937.

Transmitters of 20 kilowatt are used temporarily for these broadcasts, but they will be replaced in the near future by 50 kilowatt transmitter which is now under construction.

From the beginning of April 1937, the broadcast to Europe, on Monday, Wednesday and Friday, will be in Eng-

lish and German and on Tuesday, Thursday and Saturday, French and English will be employed. On Sunday the broadcast will be only in English.

In the other three directions broadcasts will be in Japanese and English.

Programme Hours The working hours of each broadcasting station in Japan differ a little according to their local conditions as well as the seasons of the year. According to the statistics of the year 1935, the average broadcasting hours per day per station were nine hours and fifty-eight minutes.

The first programme of the day is sent out at 6.00 a.m. (from April to October) and at 6.30 a.m. (from November to March), and the closing announcements of the day's programme goes on the air at 9.50 p.m.

The following table gives programme statistics for the year 1936 (from Jan. 1 to Dec. 31) classified into nine groups.

PROGRAMME STATISTICS
(From Jan. 1 to Dec. 31, 1936)

Programme Classes	Number of broadcasts	Hours (in total)	Duration (per broadcast)	Percent. (Programme hours)
		m.	m.	%
News	79,968	468,432	5.8	25.0
Talks, Courses	18,694	494,381	26.4	26.2
Children's Hour	5,704	81,134	14.2	4.3
School Broadcasting	5,041	81,930	16.2	4.3
International Broadcasting	492	13,943	28.4	0.7
Outside Broadcasting	2,639	222,314	84.4	11.8
Music	9,392	186,722	20.0	9.8
Entertainment	5,006	151,556	30,2	8.0
Miscellaneous	13,722	187,621	13.6	9.9
Total	140,658	1,888,033	13.3	100

Remarks: Figures show the total of seven central stations in Japan.

STATIONS IN ORDER OF FREQUENCIES

Kilocycles	Kilo-Watts		Stations	Date of opening
590	10.0	JOAK	TOKYO, NO: 1	7.12.1925
610	3.0	JOJK	KANAZAWA,	4.15.1930
630	0.5	JOKK	OKAYAMA	2. 1.1931
640	0.5	JODG	HAMAMATSU	7.19.1933
650	0.3	JOUK	AKITA	2.26.1932
670	0.5	JOTK	MATSUYE	3. 7.1932
680	0.5	JOVK	HAKODATE	2. 6.1932
690	10.0	JOBK	OSAKA, ON: 1	12. 1.1926
700	0.3	JOCG	ASAHIKAWA	9. 4.1933
720	0.5	JORK	KOCHI	3.22.1932
730	10.0	JOCK	NAGOYA, NO: 1	7·15.1925
740	1.0	JOSK	KOKURA	12.21.1931
770	10.0	JOHK	SENDAI	6.16,1928
780	0.5	JOPK	SHIZUOKA	3.21.1931
790	10.0	JOGK	KUMAMOTO	6.16.1928
810	10.0	JOIK	SAPPORO	6. 5.1928
830	10.0	JOFK	HIROSHIMA	7. 6.1928
870	10.0	JOAK	TOKYO, NO: 2	4. 6.1931
890	0.5	JOLG	TOTTORI	12.14.1936
910	0.5	JOLK	FUKUOKA	12. 6.1930
920	0.5	JOQK	NIIGATA	11.11.1931
930	0.5	JOAG	NAGASAKI	9.20.1933
940	10.0	JOBK	OSAKA, NO: 2	6.26.1933
950	0.5	JOOG	OBIHIRO	11.22.1936
980	0.5	JOXK	TOKUSHIMA	7.23.1933
990	10.0	JOCK	NAGOYA, NO: 2	6.26.1933
1,000	0.5	JOBG	MAYEBASHI	6.23.1933

Kilocycles	Kilo-Watts		Stations	Date of opening
1,020	0.3	JOFG	FUKUI	7.13.1933
1,040	0.5	JONK	NAGANO	3. 8.1931
1,050	0.5	JOHG	KAGOSHIMA	10.26.1935
1,060	0.5	JOIG	TOYAMA	12.13.1935
1,070	0.3	JOOK	KYOTO	6.24.1932
1.080	0.5	JOJG	YAMAGATA	11.30.1936
710	10.0	JODK	KEIJO, NO: 1 (CHOSEN)	2.16.1927
820	0.5	JBBK	HEIJO, NO: 1 (CHOSEN)	11.11.1936
970	50.0	JODK	KEIJO, NO: 2 (CHOSEN)	4.26.1933
1,030	0.25	JBAK	FUSAN (CHOSEN)	12.10.1935
1,090	0.5	JBBK	HEIJO, NO: 2 (CHOSEN)	11.11.1936
530	1.0	JFCK	TAICHU (TAIWAN)	5.11.1935
720	1.0	JFBK	TAINAN (TAIWAN)	4. 1.1932
750	10.0	JFAK	TAIHOKU (TAIWAN)	11.22.1928

Remarks: The frequencies of almost all stations in Japan have been altered since July 1st, 1936.

New Broadcasting Houses Development of our broadcasting is reflected in the establishment of two large broadcasting houses, one in Osaka and the other in Tokyo at a total cost of six million yen. The Broadcasting House in Osaka was opened to service in November 1936. This six storied building (exclusive of the central tower which is three storied) covers an area of 1927 sq. meters, and comprises 13 studios in all.

While in Tokyo, a site of 3950 sq. meters has been chosen near the Hibiya park for a six storied building which will house 16 studios and rooms for various department offices. The construction for the foundation has been already completed, and the steel structures are now being raised and it is expected that we shall see the central broadcasting house in full swing in the summer of 1938. In September, 1935, a research committee for the design of studios to be housed in these broadcasting houses was formed. This committee comprises electrical, acoustical and architectural specialists, and preliminary practical tests are being carried out at present at the JOAK building at Atagoyama.

Research Laboratory The technical research laboratory of the Corporation was established at Setagaya district in western part of the city of Tokyo in April 1930. The work of the laboratory is directed mainly to the fundamental and general researches as well as to the various possibilities of broadcast transmission and reception apparatus, wave propagation phenomena, visual broadcasting, patents and other problems related to the art of broadcasting.

Owing to the rapid development of the radio art, the laboratory was found to be too narrow to continue these researches, and the premises and building were enlarged in 1936.

Television For some years past research work of television has been going on separately at the Waseda University, Hamamatsu Higher Technical College, Tokyo Electric Co., Electrotechnical Laboratory of the Department of Communications and the Research Laboratory of the Corporation. They had their own special system and the comparison of merits between them is a question very difficult to solve. A somewhat different line of investigation is now being undertaken, namely, whether it is possible to combine advantages of these systems and realise the experimental broadcasting of the television.

The Television Society of Japan, which was formed in 1934, and which comprises the investigators of television throughout the country is earnestly recommending to start the experimental broadcasting, and the Corporation is now considering the matter to comply with the recommendation. The desirability of its early realization is justified, though the policy of the Corporation towards the question is yet to be disclosed. The special building for the purpose of the television research is under construction at present on the premises of the Research Laboratory.

Wireless Exchange System Although the growing trend of listeners of broadcast has been of a steady and healthy nature, the listeners are mainly concentrated in the city districts and the percentage of listeners to population in the country districts remains far below that of the former. This difference is chiefly attributed to the financial difficulties of the country districts. To conquer this drawback the Corporation is planning to start the wireless exchange system, with special units suitable for the nature of its service.

Technical experiments to find out the most efficient method for this system are being carried out at present in different regions throughout the country. A representative is chosen in a village and a broadcast receiving set is installed there, the operations and care of the set being entrusted to the representative and the audio output distributed by specially constructed lines to the subscribers in the village. The results in various districts so far are proving to be successful, and as soon as the plan is authorized by the government it is expected to be actually put in service at an early date. It is expected that by applying this system the majority of the population in country districts who are individually not able to pay the cost of a receiving set, the expense for maintenance and the charge for power supply for the receiving set, will now be able to enjoy the benefit of the broadcasting.

This system appeals also to those who find wireless reception difficult or who wish to avoid the trouble of looking after a wireless set.

Listeners When the Tokyo broadcasting station was opened on the 22nd of March 1925, the total number of listeners for the whole country was something like 5,400. On the 20th of August 1926, when the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan was formed, the number of listeners had reached a figure of over 338,2000.

The listening fee of two yen a month had been calculated to be charged at the time when the broadcasting services were started, was reduced to one Yen due to the unexpected increase in the number of listeners. This rate was uniform all over the country.

In September 1928, the number of listeners reached the 500,000 mark. In February 1932, three years and four months after, the number ran into 1,000,000, and in April of the same year, the subscription fee was reduced to seventy-five sen. The so-called "Golden Age" in our broadcasting begins at this period and in June 1933, the number passed the 1,500,000 mark, and keep ing up the momentum, it leapt into 2,000,000 in April 1935. In commemoration of this growth, the subscription fee was reduced to the modest sum of 50 sen a month, which is being kept up to this day.

To sum up, it took about seven years for the number of registrations to reach the first 1,000,000; the next 1,000,000 was reached in three years only; while the subscription fee has been reduced to half the original sum during these 10 years,—a rate without parallel elsewhere in the world.

Thereafter, there was a tendency for the number of registrations to go on rapidly increasing, and at the end of December 1936, the number reached the figure of 2,776,189, the rate of distribution representing 39.9 per 1000 population or 20.5 per 100 families.

THE YEARLY INCREASE OF LISTENERS

Year	Number of new registrations	Number of discontinuances	Number of net increases	Average increase per month
1925	200,191	5,619	194,572	17,688
1926	218,830	64,431	154,399	12,867
1927	129,867	101,541	28,326	2,361
1928	283,043	120,297	162,746	13,562
1929	243,559	161,860	81,699	6,808
1930	283,714	170,921	112,793	9,399
1931	396,078	181,791	214,287	17,857
1932	546,859	175,416	371,321	30,943
1933	504,657	196,976	307,693	25,641
1934	501,695	232,003	269,562	22,464
1935	628,214	220,947	407,081	33,923
1936	710,936	239,244	471,710	39,309
Total	4,647,643	1,871,046	2,776,189	19,414

PERCENTAGES OF THE NUMBER OF LICENCES TO 100 FAMILIES AS AT THE END OF DECEMBER, 1936.

	Localities	No. of licences	No. of families	%
1	Tokyo	733,030	1,282,703	57.2
2	Osaka	360,799	897,789	40.2
3	Kyoto	116,511	353,590	33.0
4	Kanagawa	112,715	358,278	31.5

	Localities	No. of licences	No. of families	%
5	Aichi	166,834	569,717	29.3
6	Hyogo	171,400	610,958	28.1
7	Shizuoka	73,288	348,124	21.1
8	Nara	22,917	123,914	18.5
9	Fukuoka	96,840	533,391	18.2
10	Chiba	50,650	293,941	17.2
11	Miyagi	33,632	200,309	16.8
12	Hiroshima	58,165	382,253	15.2
13	Toyama	23,049	154,917	14.9
14	Gumma	32,875	225,223	14.6
15	Saitama	39,625	277,572	14.3
16	Gifu	34,197	244,561	14.0
17	Okayama	39,377	281,769	14.0
18	Fukui	18,510	133,534	13.9
19	Ishikawa	21,472	158,113	13.6
20	Kumamoto	34,607	261,571	13.2
21	Tochigi	27,396	213,060	12.9
22	Yamaguchi	33,462	259,131	12.9
23	Wakayama	23,845	184,753	12.9
24	Hokkaido	69,237	545,390	12.7
25	Kagawa	18,815	152,197	12.4
26	Miye	29,619	239,846	12.4
27	Niigata	41,756	355,772	11.7
28	Shiga	17,141	151,132	11.3
29	Nagasaki	25,680	253,011	10.1
30	Nagano	32,314	332,726	10.0
31	Tokushima	13,013	145,844	8.9
32	Tottori	7,894	95,079	8.3
33	Ibaraki	23,592	287,677	8.2
34	Akita	14,144	175,382	8.1
35	Saga	10,190	127,713	8.0
36	Oita	15,439	195,292	7.9
37	Shimane	12,340	157,630	7.8
38	Yamagata	14,328	184,911	7.7
39	Ehime	18,633	243,211	7.7
40	Fukushima	19,761	272,571	7.2
41	Yamanashi	8,827	124,099	7.1
42	Kochi	10,856	156,385	6.9
43	Saghalin	4,329	65,542	6.6
44	Iwate	9,702	175,113	5.5
45	Aomori	8,844	161,832	5.5
46	Kagoshima	17,695	332,632	5.3
47	Miyazaki	6,147	158,435	3.9
48	Okinawa	623	126,432	0.5
49	South Seas	74	—	0.0
	Total	2,776,189	13,565,025	20.5

Remarks: The number of families is taken from the report of the National Census, Oct. 1, 1935.

MONTHLY INCREASES DURING THE YEAR 1936

Month	Number of new registrations	Number of discontinuances	Number of net increases	Number of net increase in the corresponding month of previous year
Jan.	59,545	17,316	42,350	31,470
Feb.	54,296	15,978	38,199	25,724
Mar.	59,753	22,971	37,083	24,504
Apr.	69,274	16,504	52,302	52,684
May	58,799	21,419	37,471	48,831
June	62,374	21,450	41,043	37,636
July	59,825	19,522	40,459	38,772
Aug.	69,695	19,051	50,402	35,216
Sept.	59,677	21,177	38,565	26,257
Oct.	52,970	24,411	28,516	26,154
Nov.	51,984	19,517	32,501	27,557
Dec.	52,744	19,923	32,819	32,276
Total	710,936	239,244	471,710	407,081

This number of registrations, when divided between cities and towns, the number in the former occupying 69% of the whole total, while in the case of the number of families, just the reverse is noted i.e. large percentage of 65.4 is claimed by towns, hence it is that the rate of diffusion, with the former comes out to be 40.8 per 100 families and with the latter 9.7%, constituting a marked difference between the rates of the two. The accompanying list gives the comparison of the rates of diffusion of licence holders in cities and those in towns during the past six years.

Year	Total Number of licence holders	%	Cities Number of licence holders	%	Towns & Villages Number of licence holders	%
1936	2,776,189	100	1,915,857	69.0	860,332	31.0
1935	2,304,479	100	1,628,059	70.6	676,420	29.4
1934	1,897,398	100	1,364,573	71.9	532,825	28.1
1933	1,627,836	100	1,166,777	71.7	461,056	28.3
1932	1,320,143	100	965,740	73.2	354,403	26.8
1931	948,822	100	542,340	57.2	406,482	42.8

The new registrations in the course of 1936 passed the 710,000 mark, creating a new record since the inauguration of broadcasting activities, which far exceeded the figure for 1935 over 628,000.

When this number of new registrations of over 710,000 is divided between cities and towns, the former occupies 59.8% of the total. Recently there is a marked tendency of the rate being on the increase with towns, and the reverse is the case with cities.

When the number of new registrations and that of discontinuances, during 1936 are classified respectively according to the professions, and set against the corresponding percentages for the previous year, as is done in the following list, we find that the increase in the percentage was recorded in agriculture, manufacturing industry, marine products industry.

Professions	New registration		Discontinuances		Population with profession
	1936	1935	1936	1935	1930
Agriculture	12.2	9.0	9.9	8.9	47.7
Marine products industry	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	1.9
Mining industry	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.9
Manufacturing industry	8.5	8.3	7.7	7.6	19.3
Commerce	37.6	39.7	37.4	38.0	15.1
Transportation industry	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.8	3.7
Civil, military services & persons of liberal professions	30.0	29.9	30.9	29.6	6.9
Households works	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.5	1.9
Other industries	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	2.6
No industry	8.2	9.7	10.8	11.8	not included
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

This classification of the population by professions is the result of the National Census in Japan proper, 1930.

Finance Since the beginning of its establishment, the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan has pursued its policy of lightening the financial burdens upon the listeners by reducing the subscription fee down to its minimum.

To commemorate the tenth anniversary of the opening of broadcasting in this country and to popularise radio throughout Japan, the Corporation carried out the reduction of the subscription fee from seventy-five sen to fifty sen on April 1st, 1935. This resulted in a great increase in the number of subscribers, viz. the increase for the year ended March 31st 1936, was 443,015. But the net revenue from this fee and others decreased from 15,874,151 yen for the fiscal year of 1934 to 13,447,631 yen for the fiscal year of 1935.

On the other hand, the expenditure, including the depreciation of building and plant, amounted to 13,088,702 yen for the fiscal year of 1935, showing an increase of 856,071 yen against the last year's.

As it is clear in the following financial statement of the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan, greater part of its revenue is spent on the maintenance and development of the service, as well as on the various kinds of new enterprises.

Among the various items of expenditure, there is the contribution to the Home Office, the sum of 1,262,465 yen for fiscal year of 1935, which was distributed among the prefectures as contribution to sanitary measures.
Besides this, the Corporation paid to the Government the sum of 395,446 yen as licence fee which was calculated upon the number of listeners registered at the end of the preceding financial year.

FINANCIAL STATEMENTS OF THE BROADCASTING CORPORATION OF JAPAN

Revenue Account for the year ending March 31st, 1936

EXPENDITURE

Programmes	¥ 2,541,718.49	Service	¥ 366,948.88
Engineering	1,181,395.72	Collection of Fees	1,651,166.27
Accession	1,393,720.77	Research	121,340.63

Administrative Expenses	¥1,605,422.87
Licence and Coutribution paid to Government	1,657,911.63
Expenses for Additions and Betterment	586,785.22
Retiring Allowances	235,000.00
Depreciation of Plant	728,166.18
Miscellaneous	8,275.09
Balance available for the year	1,369,779.54
Total	13,447,631.29

INCOME

Subscription Fees	¥13,088,702.62
Miscellaneous Receipts	358,928.67
Total	13,447,631.29

BALANCE SHEET

As on March 31st, 1936

ASSETS

Land	¥2,503,559.46
Buildings	2,882,865.23
Equipments	2,045,526.80
Loans	1,750,000.00
Securities	375,741.87
Sundry Debtors	225,510.61
Suspense Accounts	41,487.13
Cash in Hand	6,305,533.80
Total	16,130,224.90

LIABILITIES

Capital Account	¥1,382,200.00
Sundry Creditors	169,282.71
Physical Plant Fund	13,208,962.65
Balance available for the year	1,369,779.54
Total	16,130,224.90

CHAPTER XXV

LAND AND AIR TRANSPORTATION

State Railways

Historical Background

Japan's railway projects date from 1869, when the Government formed a plan to lay a trunk line linking Tokyo with Kyoto and Kobe, together with some branches to Yokohama and Tsuruga, a port on the Japan sea. As the first step, half a million yen was sanctioned for the work between Tokyo (Shimbashi) and Yokohama, but the State Treasury was in no position to find this amount, while private capital declined to venture into this novel field of investment. It was at this time that an Englishman, Horatio Nelson Lay, by name, came forward with a proposal to furnish the required funds. The terms offered by him were accepted and a Japanese loan for one million sterling was placed on the London market. With the arrival of a British engineering corps and materials, the first sod was dug on the 28.962 kilometre Shimbashi-Yokohama section in March, 1870, and on the 32.18 kilometre Kobé-Osaka section in November, 1870. The gauge adopted for these lines was one of 1.067 metres, which has later become the standard gauge of the Japanese railways.

Tokyo - Yokohama and Other Lines The work between Shimbashi and Yokohama was completed in September, 1872, while the Kobé-Osaka line was opened to traffic in 1874 and its further extension to Kyoto in 1877. These sections have practically formed the nucleus of what now constitutes the Tokaido Line, one of the main arteries of railway traffic in Japan. In 1880, the Kyoto-Otsu section was completed and in 1884 a further extension with a length of 41.834 kilometres between Tsuruga and Nagahama, a town along Lake Biwa, was completed and opened to traffic in pursuance of the railway idea of linking up the Pacific and the Japan Sea. Meanwhile, a survey was made on the Otaru-Horonai section in Hokkaido, where colonization work was being strenuously encouraged. Construction of this section was soon undertaken and the 88.495 kilometre length was opened to business in 1882, thus bringing the total length of railway under Government ownership toward the close of 1884 to 185.035 kilometres.

Private Lines About this time the Government was in financial difficulties and the building of State railways practically came to a standstill except for a few extensions. It was at this time that, not being in a position to undertake the work itself, the Government began to encourage private enterprise, the encouragement mostly being in the shape of subsidies. Under these circumstances, many private railways were built in rapid succession, the most notable among them being the Nippon Railway, the Sanyo Railway, the Kyushu Railway and the Hokkaido Colliery Railway. The total length of line thus built by private capital in the ten years between 1881 and 1891 aggregated 1,874.485 kilometres, a length more than double that of the State which did not exceed 886.559 kilometres by the end of 1891.

The Trunk Line Prior to this, the Government decided to lay a trunk line through the Nakasendo, the old mountainous highway of Central Japan, but in view of engineering difficulties along this line it was subsequently abandoned in favour of the level region of the Tokaido. Work on the new route was finished in July, 1889, whereby a through service was opened for a distance of 611.42 kilometres between Tokyo and Kobé. Then a branch to Yokosuka was opened and a 160.9 kilometres section between Takasaki and Naoétsu was completed with the exception of 9.654 kilometres over the Usui Pass. This difficult section, for which the Abt rack rail system was adopted, was not opened for service until 1893.

The Railway Construction Law In view of the industrial progress being made in the country there was an urgent demand for the speedy construction of more railways. The entire length of Japanese railways at that time amounted to only 2,574.4 kilometres and the bulk of contemplated lines was in remote districts with no prospect of immediate profit, and on that account did not appeal to private enterprise. These circumstances showed both the

Government and the public the advisability of state acquisition of private lines and opinion was further strengthened by the financial failure of some of the private concerns. In view of this, in 1892, the Railway Construction Law was passed and the Government set to work constructing important lines. The law embodied a comprehensive programme of railway building and contained the guiding principles on which the railway system of Japan was founded. At the same time the matter of consolidating the different lines into one complete system was being studied by a committee of enquiry appointed by the Government. The acquisition of private railways was accomplished in October, 1907, the subsidiary businesses being taken over at the same time. Immediately after nationalization the State Railways were organized under a Railway Bureau, which was directly responsible to the Cabinet. But in May, 1920, a separate Department of State was created to deal with railway affairs and the Minister of Railways was appointed to control it.

Railway Network

The law of 1892 authorized the Government to build certain specified lines within a certan limit of time, and also to buy up such private railways as were judged necessary for the completion of a unified system. Pursuant to this programme the State Railways proceeded with the work of construction and in 1906 and 1907 purchased 17 private lines to a total length of 4,547.034 kilometres, thereby bringing under national control all the railway lines in Japan proper, with the exception of feeding lines of local importance. In 1922 after a careful survey of the State lines the Railway Construction Law was modified and some new lines were added to the original programme. At the same time it was decided that, pursuant to the new law, such local lines as formed a connecting link between the State lines, either already projected or considered necessary for completing a unified national railway system be purchased.

Organization and Staff

Prior to the nationalization of the private lines, the State lines were operated on a departmental system based on the principle of centralization. The system worked well because the management of the State lines was a relatively small business, but when the Government assumed the management of all lines it was found unequal to the extra work, and in December, 1908, the Imperial Government Railways were removed from the control of the Minister of Communications and assigned to a newly created administrative body, the Railway Board. The administration was then decentralized and remains so today. The existing system of organization of the State Railways was established in May,1920, when the said Railway Board was made, by virtue of Imperial Ordinance No. 143, an independent department of the Central Government. According to the regulations, the Department of Railway not only controls the whole of the State lines, but supervises the provincial railways and tramways in Japan proper. It maintains one central and six regional offices. The Central Office is directly governed by the Minister of Railways and manages all matters relating to the State Railways as well as maintaining supervision over provincial railways and tramways. It is composed of eight departments according to the kinds of business dealt with. There are the Minister's Secretariat ; Bureau of Local Railway Administration ; Bureau of Traffic and Operation ; Bureau of Construction ; Bureau of Maintenance and Improvement ; Bureau of Mechanical Engineering ; Bureau of Electricity ; and Bureau of Finance and Purchase. The Central Office also controls Regions, District Construction, District Improvement, District Electric Offices and Tokyo Railway Hospital. On April 23, 1930, by virtue of Imperial Ordinance No. 83, a further bureau, the Board of Tourist Industry was created as a separate bureau of the Department of Railways. The bureau is controlled by the Minister of Railways and attends to the business of the tourist industry, its object being to encourage people of other lands, by advertising and in other ways, to visit Japan and see her incomparable scenic beauty, natural charm and national manners and customs, and to encourage Japanese living at home to take trips to different parts of the Empire.

As stated above, the administration of the State Railways is decentralized into six regions, Tokyo, Nagoya, Osaka, Moji, Sendai and Sapporo. Each region is a complete unit and is in charge of a director who is vested with power to conduct, at his own discretion, all affairs relative to his jurisdiction, excepting matters of general and large import for which decision of the central administration has to be obtained.

In the State Railways of Japan the members of the staff are either Government officials or employees.

On March 31, 1935 there were al-

together 209,456 servants in the employment of the State Railways as against 201,538 in the preceding year. The total salary for the year under review was ¥142,471,148 as against ¥137,932,168 in 1934. The average annual salary per person in employment was ¥680. As compared with the preceding year, the staff shows an increase of 7,918 during the year, and the annual payment of salaries increased by ¥4,538,980.

Finance By Railway Special Account Law, enforced since 1909, the budget of the State Railways was made separate of the general finances of the State. Furthermore, the law provides that all capital expenditure for railway construction and improvement should be met from the revenue accruing from all sources of traffic and that the expenditure should, in case the revenue is not sufficient to cover it, be supplemented by the proceeds of public loans issued as a charge on this special account.

Traffic

Goods and passengers carried by the State Railways in Japan proper since 1914–15 follow :

Fiscal years	Goods	Passengers	Goods Revenue	Passenger Revenue	Daily Average Revenue per km.
	Metric tons	(Unit in 1,000)	(¥1,000)	(¥1,000)	(In yen)
1914-15	35,837,241	166,092	51,750	54,671	33
1919-20	60,899,557	357,881	131,809	161,546	81
1921-22	58,312,333	454,535	167,241	214,519	99
1922-23	65,095,702	512,754	179,220	232,301	103
1923-24	65,818,955	579,288	178,109	249,563	102
1924-25	71,178,263	640,828	194,563	259,047	105
1925-26	73,090,274	683,568	198,786	262,074	103
1926-27	74,780,409	740,333	201,609	266,199	101
1927-28	78,621,788	795,722	211,749	271,523	101
1928-29	79,762,959	847,300	220,686	285,337	103
1929-30	77,224,824	862,939	217,949	279,030	99
1930-31	64,087,099	824,152	184,146	255,086	84
1931-32	60,590,746	787,222	176,124	239,972	77
1932-33	61,732,756	781,149	174,706	233,387	75
1933-34	71,970,592	841,316	198,038	254,534	—
1934-35	77,477,837	913,564	213,467	282,028	—
1935-36	71,739,000	974,047	221,804	297,775	84

At the end of 1935, the total working kilometreage of the State Railways reached 16,535.1 kilometres and shows an addition of 690.6 kilometres over the preceding year. The total train kilometreage amounted to 222,038,295 kilometres, being an increase of 18,390,684 kilometres or 9 per cent over the preceding year. The number of passengers carried during the year totalled 919,834,770 and the aggregate volume of goods transported amounted to 77,537,341 metric tons. As compared with the preceding year the former showed an increase of 73,697,940 passengers or 8.7 per cent and the latter 5,515,484 metric tons or 7.7 per cent. The receipts from these two sources amounted to ¥507,142,606, showing an increase of ¥42,422,708 or 9.1 per cent, over the preceding year.

Motor-car Service During the year under review 8 new routes with a total length of 617 kilometres were inaugurated for motor-car traffic and by the addition of the newly opened routes the total working kilometreage of the motor-car service reached 1,161 kilometres with 24 routes at the end of the year.

These extensions include those routes that were newly inaugurated in Sendai and Sapporo Regions where no motor-car service was available. The total number of passengers carried over those routes during the year came to 4,134,529, of which 3,846,011 being those isolated passengers of motor-cars only. The aggregate volume of goods handled amounted to 39,332 metric tons including 12,850 metric tons of goods carried over the motor-car routes alone. The receipts from passengers amounted to ¥918,569 and those from goods traffic to ¥62,978, the total being ¥981,547.

Ferry Service At present the State Railways run this service at 5 localities. They are Aomori-Hakodate ferry service connecting the main land with the island of Hokkaido, Shimonoseki-Moji ferry service connecting the main land with the island of Kyushu, Shimonoseki-Fusan route which connects the islands with the Asiatic mainland, Uno-Takamatsu service which links the Sanyo

ne (main land) with the Island of hikoku and Hokkaido-Karafuto route nking Japan proper with the Island f Karafuto or Saghalien. Besides, there re a few minor routes provided with maller steamboats or motorboats for nking such places of note for sight-eeing as Miyajima in the Inland Sea. At the end of the year under review here were altogether 60 boats consist-ng of 31 steamers and 29 harbour boats wned by the State Railways apart from hose chartered to private companies. The gross tonnage of these boats a-nounted to 48,957.55 tons, showing an in-rease of 270.78 tons in capacity as gainst the corresponding figures of the receding year, but the number of oats decreased by 3.

Accident and Casualty Returns The umber of accidents reported during the ear totalled 5,315, or 23.6 per 1,000,-00 train kilometres, showing an increase f 306 over the number for the preced-ng year, though there was a decrease f 0.6 per 1,000,000 train kilometres. The umber of casualties, including those aused by accidents, errors or unknown auses, numbered 3,506, during the year, r 15.6 casualties per 1,000,000 train kilo-metres. As compared with the preced-ng year this is an increase of 416 in the otal number, and 0.7 per 1,000,000 train ilometres. The number of casualties caused by suicide was 2,189, or a decrease of 71 in the number for the preceding year.

Construction

Railway construction expenses for the 1932–33 fiscal year totalled ¥47,743,368, while, the total expenses for 1931–32 were ¥37,706,907. The same for 1933–34 amounted to ¥53,130,133 and for 1934–35 ¥53,130,133.

The total expenditure disbursed during the year on account of construction a-mounted to ¥47,794,115 as against 53,-130,133 in 1934–35.

Length of Open Lines

The total length of State lines open for traffic on March 31, 1935, the end of the fiscal year of 1934, amounted to 16,-427.480 kilometres as against 15,737.077 kilometres in 1933–34, showing an in-crease of 690.403 kilometres. The total length of tracks reached 26,520.170 kilo-metres as against 25,612.643 kilometres in 1933–34, indicating increase of 907.527 kilometres. Of the total length of lines open for traffic 14,261.384 kilometres are covered by single tracks, 1,942.548 by double tracks, 29.963 by triple tracks, 173.292 by quardruple and the rest by multiple tracks. This length of lines is distributed according to regions as follows :

STATE LINES OPEN IN 1934

Kinds of Tracks	Single	Double	Triple	Quadruple and over	Total
Region	km.	km.	km.	km.	km.
Tokyo Region	1,309.725	616.265	2.910	128.588	2,057.488
Nagoya ,,	1,698.949	314.107	11.163	—	2,024.219
Osaka ,,	2,622.831	402.880	4.660	60.887	3,091.258
Moji ,,	2,493.623	409.844	9.360	4.110	2,916.937
Sendai ,,	3,197.411	29.853	1.870	—	3,229.134
Sapporo ,,	2,938.845	169.599	—	—	3,108.444
Total	14,261.384	1,942.548	29.963	193.585	16,427.480

Works and Plants

At the end of the year under review there were altogether 22 works and 3 detached plants in operation.

On March 31, 1935 there were 14,499 workmen, on the rolls and their monthly wages aggregated ¥900,029.

The aggregate expenses involved in the repair of the rolling stock at the railway workshops amounted to ¥23,359,-719. In addition to this the repair work at the Head Office, amounted to ¥1,162,078, at the Regional Offices ¥1,-674,690 and at offices other than the workshops ¥4,691,033, the entire total on repair works amounting to ¥30,887,520. The cost of by-products either consumed by the Railways or sold to other companies is estimated at ¥2,808,387. The following were turned out of the work-shops during the year : 11 dining cars, 9 third class passenger cars, 10 gasoline cars, 31 third class electric motor-cars, 53 two-ton covered wagons with brake vans, and 9 snow-ploughs, 761 steam locomotives, 185 electric locomotives, 3,081 passenger carriages, 1,615 electric cars. In addition, 6,260 wagons were re-moddelled.

Rolling Stock

The number of locomotives in opera-tion towards the end of the fiscal year

of 1935–1936 was 3,986 with an aggregate weight of 331,375 metric tons, consisting of 3,811 steam locomotives with an aggregate weight of 11,956 metric tons and 10 special locomotives representing 20 metric tons. There was an increase of 24 electric locomotives during the year, representing a weight of 2,353 metric tons. The number of passenger carriages aggregated 10,812. The total number of covered wagons in use at the end of 1935 was 67,485 with an aggregate loading capacity of 892,422 metric tons, 220 tank cars with a loading capacity of 2,596 metric tons, 30,294 uncovered wagons with a loading capacity of 433,400 metric tons and 747 special wagons.

Electric Power

On March 31, 1935 there were altogether 4 power stations, 50 substations, 181 distributing houses and 1 switching station in operation. During the year the number of power stations increased by 1, that of the substations and the distributing houses by 14 in each. It should be noted that the power stations and substations within the compound of the workshops have been newly included in the above number as independent ones. Besides, there were altogether 11 alternators representing 98,704 k.w.a., 152 converting machines for electric traction with a capacity of 242,354 k.w., and 594 transformers representing 720,702 k.w.a. in operation at these plants.

Finance

The State Railway revenue for the 1934–35 fiscal year totalled ¥969,187,927 against ¥870,165,166 for the 1933–34 fiscal year, while expenditure totalled ¥857,585,570. Revenue and expenditure since the 1926–27 fiscal year follow :

Fiscal Year	Revenue	Expenditure
	(In yen)	
1926-27	947,386,213	825,612,827
1927-28	1,006,458,791	859,806,853
1928-29	1,014,752,892	876,675,990
1929-30	1,004,911,356	892,160,458
1930-31	813,010,038	740,039,239
1931-32	767,657,721	678,774,390
1932-33	761,894,098	691,012,532
1933-34	970,165,166	770,366,710
1934-35	969,187,927	857,585,570

The State Railway finance is independent of the general finance of the State and its accounting system consists of three accounts, i.e., Capital, Stores and Revenue Accounts. Details for the total revenue and expenditure for 1933–34 are given below classified according to the three accounts.

Capital Revenue and Expenditure The capital revenue settled for the year 1935–36 was ¥140,315,288 as against ¥124,845,934 of expenditure settled, being an increase of ¥12,627,269 for the former and of ¥6,885,152 for the latter as compared with the preceding year. The increase in the revenue was attributable chiefly to the rise in the amount transferred from the railway profit and sundry receipts, as well as surplus income on the stores account, while the growth in the expenditure was due to the increase of improvements effected sums appropriated for the redemption of liabilities.

Item	1934–35	1933–34 (In yen)	1932–33
Capital revenue	139,982,882	127,435,706	116,730,548
Surplus on stores account	332,406	252,313	328,418
Total revenue	140,315,288	127,688,019	117,058,966
Construction, improvement, and motor-car routes	118,145,718	111,449,938	99,734,424
Redemption of debts	6,700,216	6,510,844	6,331,669
Total expenditure	124,845,934	117,960,782	106,066,093

Stores Account The revenue from the sale of railway stores for the year 1935–36 was ¥154,461,933 and the expenditure on this item amounted to ¥159,225,660, or an increase of ¥21,887,722 for revenue and of ¥21,536,566 for expenditure as compared with the previous year. The increase in the revenue was accounted for partly by the larger proceeds of sales of railway stores, and partly by the increase in receipts accruing from repairs of railway stores and from the supply of electric current while the increase in the expenditure is accounted for by the rise in the stores and workshop expenses and the charge for electric current.

Item	1934-35	1933-34 (In yen)	1932-33
Railway stores and workshop receipts	154,461,933	132,574,211	113,839,431
Railway stores and workshop expenses	159,225,660	137,689,094	115,030,275

Revenue Account The total revenue settled during the year amounted to ¥674,410,706 and the total expenditure ¥573,513,976 which are respectively ¥64,507,771 and ¥52,286,298 more than in the previous year. The increase in the revenue was attributable to the increase of the traffic and the sundry receipts, as well as receipts on suspense account and advances, while increase in the expenditure was accounted for by the growth in working expenses and subsidies to local railways, as well as the increase in refunds and advances appropriated for the C.O.P. payments.

The Revenue Account settled for the past three years is as follows :

Item	1934-35	1933-34	1932-33
Revenue:	¥	¥	¥
Traffic Receipts	512,931,499	468,652,906	421,418,616
Sundry Receipts	10,624,683	9,247,931	8,241,333
Receipts on Suspense Account & Advance	150,854,524	132,002,098	101,335,751
Total	674,410,706	609,902,935	530,995,700
Expenditure:			
Working Expenses	318,543,876	284,784,383	267,958,803
Interest Charges	91,788,215	93,775,493	88,883,405
Refunds and Advances	156,101,827	135,648,919	105,843,171
Secret Service Fund	27,440	27,440	27,440
Subsidies to Local Railways	7,052,618	6,991,443	7,203,345
Total	573,513,976	521,227,678	469,916,164

Fixed assets of the State Railways for the last nine years follow :

Fiscal years	Value at the beinning of the year	Value at the end of the year
	(In ¥1,000)	
1926-27	2,453,092	2,647,453
1927-28	2,647,453	2,858,794
1928-29	2,858,794	3,062,614
1929-30	3,062,614	3,246,724
1930-31	3,246,724	3,374,392
1931-32	3,347,392	3,413,786
1932-33	3,413,786	3,503,893
1933-34	3,503,893	3,613,169
1934-35	3,613,169	3,728,485

BUSINESS INCOME AND EXPENSES

(In ¥1,000)

Fiscal years	Income	Expenses	Net profit
1926-27	484,082	353,175	130,907
1927-28	506,444	368,277	138,167
1928-29	529,256	393,380	135,875
1929-30	518,016	399,026	118,989
1930-31	458,140	382,552	75,587
1931-32	433,540	365,088	68,451
1932-33	425,954	364,874	61,079
1933-34	474,254	385,578	88,675
1934-35	518,668	314,126	204,541

Railway Business in 1935 and 1936

The conditions of the electric railway business in the country have become considerably brightened. The tendency to improvement which became evident in 1932 after the depression in electric railway business had reached the lowest point in that year, has been consistently maintained since then, and has begun to yield quite appreciable results recently, with even those local companies which had failed to give any dividend in the past having commenced to yield one now.

Various electric railway companies have long since taken to side-lines as a means of balancing against depression in railway returns. Among such side-lines are the electric light and electric power industry, department stores

and management of land. Following the re-imposition of the gold embargo, the "extraordinary situation" boom enhanced the power of consumption to such an extent that not only the side-lines but also the main business of operating electric railways has begun to yield more and more profits. The recovery from the depression has been accelerated by the decreasing tendency in the rate of interest and by the curtailment of expenses.

It is now anticipated that the conditions of the electric railway business will be further improved with the strengthening of the low-interest tendency and the progress of the "extraordinary situation" boom. There are, however, some unfavourable factors such as the increased taxes, the lowering of electric light charges and the reduction of government grants, but it is considered unlikely that the electric railway business will suffer depression on this account. This prediction is based on the fact that the increase in the receipts of the electric railways and the profits derived from the side-lines undertaken by the various companies have been greater than expected, with the tendency still continuing. Further, the progress of the Government control over the transportation system will serve to make the foundation of the electric railway companies all the firmer.

Business Conditions As already stated, the electric railway business which reached the bottom of depression in 1932 has since been improving remarkably, especially following the re-imposition of the gold embargo. While definite figures for 1936 are still unavailable, the statistics for 1935 clearly indicate this rising tendency.

During 1935, the total receipts of the State railways amounted to ¥544,530,000 which sets the highest record for all the past years. It represents an increase of ¥25,870,000 or 5 per cent over the figures for the preceding year. Along with the increase in receipts, the expenditure of the State Railways also increased. Nevertheless, the profits amounted ¥215,000,000, a sum larger by ¥10,000,000 than the profits for 1934, representing 5.45 per cent of the total capital of the State Railways. This was the best result attained since 1929.

Local railways have also improved in business conditions. Their profits in 1935 totalled ¥41,100,000 which represents 4.2 per cent of their construction cost. Although only 0.1 per cent greater than the profits in 1934, they gained as much as 1.4 per cent when compared with the figures for 1932, showing the best result since 1930.

Simultaneously with the improvement in the conditions of the local railways, electric railways have recovered from their previous business depression. The receipts of the electric railways during 1935 totalled ¥114,920,000 showing a gain of ¥1,800,000 over the receipts in the preceding year. The expenditure of the railways during 1935 totalled ¥69,180,000. showing a decrease of about ¥1,500,000 as compared with the figures for the preceding year.

The better business conditions of the electric railways are to be attributed to various factors including the increase in the volume of both passenger and freight traffic on account of the progress of the general business boom and the curtailment of expenses enabled by the prevailing low-interest tendency. All this served to bring about a total net profit of ¥45,735,000 for the electric railways in 1935, which represents an increase of ¥3,300,000 over the net profit in 1934 and amounts to 5.6 per cent of the construction cost of the railways, the highest percentage since 1931.

The changes in the business conditions of the various railways from 1918 until 1935 are shown in the following table:

	State Railways (In 1,000 yen)				Private Railways (In 1,000 yen) Ordinary Railways	
	Receipts	Expenditure	Profits	Percentage of Profits	Receipts	Expenditure
1918	243,547	114,101	99,445	0.78	21,141	12,930
1919	309,931	202,861	107,115	0.77	28,671	18,078
1920	350,669	242,161	108,537	0.70	35,352	22,223
1921	397,599	218,550	178,949	1.01	40,142	23,069
1922	429,593	229,778	199,815	1.01	45,853	26,389
1923	443,354	261,242	182,112	0.85	50,543	28,544
1924	470,927	266,232	204,694	0.88	57,674	31,956
1925	480,450	259,439	221,011	0.88	61,548	34,267
1926	484,082	270,838	213,243	0.79	68,676	37,715
1927	506,444	281,987	224,456	0.75	74,696	42,104

	State Railways (In 1,000 yen)				Private Railways (In 1,000 yen) Ordinary Railways	
	Receipts	Expenditure	Profits	Percentage of Profits	Receipts	Expenditure
1928	529,131	300,707	228,428	0.73	82,477	46,077
1929	518,016	304,142	213,873	0.69	93,636	52,272
1930	458,140	284,324	173,316	0.53	87,841	52,474
1931	433,540	266,634	166,906	0.49	83,132	47,859
1932	425,954	265,087	160,872	0.45	81,735	47,404
1933	473,570	282,199	191,371	0.52	87,402	48,774
1934	518,668	314,126	204,541	0.54	91,380	51,857
1935	544,534	329,537	214,997	0.55	94,650	53,544

	Private Railways (In 1,000 yen) Ordinary Railways		Electric Railways			
	Profits	Percentage of Profits	Receipts	Expenditure	Profits	Percentage of Profits
1918	8,211	0.77	49,136	27,218	21,917	0.90
1919	10,592	0.80	62,670	40,402	22,628	0.80
1920	13,129	0.95	87,055	55,760	31,294	1.00
1921	17,072	0.98	101,374	56,379	44,994	1.26
1922	19,463	0.96	113,419	62,811	50,607	1.23
1923	21,998	0.81	120,372	65,421	44,951	1.05
1924	25,718	0.81	126,129	71,036	59,122	1.09
1925	27,280	0.72	129,098	75,805	53,292	0.97
1926	30,961	0.71	130,422	75,187	55,235	0.96
1927	33,591	0.64	137,063	77,949	59,114	0.94
1928	36,400	0.61	143,218	82,540	60,677	0.91
1929	41,364	0.56	140,472	80,752	59,719	0.93
1930	35,367	0.42	128,774	77,637	51,137	0.69
1931	35,273	0.38	116,645	72,558	44,089	0.58
1932	34,333	0.28	109,670	68,128	41,541	0.54
1933	28,627	0.40	110,860	67,554	43,305	0.54
1934	39,522	0.41	113,119	70,698	42,421	0.53
1935	41,105	0.42	114,919	69,184	45,735	0.56

(Note: The expenditure of the State railways as given in the above table is purely business expenditure excluding supplementary expenses, those required for the administrative control and the survey of railway lines and tracks.)

Details of the business conditions of the private railways during 1936 still remain to be ascertained but judging from the business conditions of the principal electric railways both in the Kanto and Kansai, it is clear that a further improvement was achieved during the year.

Kanto Railways The conditions of the business of the electric railway companies in the Kanto began to improve in the first half of 1934 and the improving tendency became more conspicuous during 1936. The aggregate profit of the eight principal electric railway companies in this district during that year amounted to ¥12,248,000 which equals to 10.2 per cent of the total paid-up capital of the companies. This represents an increase of ¥1,423,000 or 0.8 per cent in the profits as compared with the figures for the preceding year. In comparison with the profits for 1933, the increase is 1.2 per cent.

The average percentage of dividend offered by the electric railway companies in 1936 was 7.34 per cent, greater by 0.14 than the average percentage for the preceding year. This is attributable to the fact that the Tokyo-Yokohama Electric Railway Company increased the dividend for its shareholders by 1 per cent. Aside from the eight principal companies, the Shonan and Odawara Electric Railway Companies commenced to give a dividend to their shareholders in the same year and the Sagami Railway Company also increased its dividend.

As has been pointed out already, the improvement in the business conditions of these companies has been accomplished by the increase in receipts and the curtailment of expenses. The transportation receipts of the various companies have advanced by from 5 or 6 per cent to nearly 20 per cent, partly because the districts along the railways have been developed and part-

ly because the "extraordinary situation" boom has permeated into the lower classes. At the same time, the effect of the advancing boom upon various side-lines can not be overlooked.

Among the electric railway companies engaged in electric light and power supply as an additional line, Oji Electric Railway Company may be regarded as a representative one. The Keisei, Keio and Tamagawa Electric Railway Companies are also engaged in developing electric light and power supply as a side-line.

The Tobu Electric Railway Company has undertaken to operate autobus lines and the Tokyo-Yokohama Electric Railway Company has taken to the managment of department stores while the Meguro-Kamata Electric Railway Company has commenced the business of managing land. Apparently, these side-lines have been undertaken as means for promoting the electric railway business but in reality, they are intended as independent activities designed to enlarge the scope of the electric railway business.

As the side-lines thus undertaken have achieved a satisfactory development on the strength of the inflation boom, the business conditions of the various electric railway companies engaged in such activities have greatly improved.

Another factor affecting the electric railway business favourably is the decrease in the rate of interest on loans contracted by the various electric railway companies which have secured the greater part of their funds for construction of railways through this means.

The total receipts of the eight leading electric railway companies in the Kanto district during 1936 amounted to ¥44,277,000 which shows an increase of ¥5,400,000 over the figures for the preceding year of an increase of 14 per cent. The expenditure also increased to ¥32,000,000 which, however, is only ¥4,000,000 greater than the figures for the preceding year.

Details of the business conditions of the eight principal companies during 1936 are tabulated in comparison with the figures for the preceding six years as follows :

	Capitalization	Average Paid-up Capital	Receipts	Expenditure	Profits	Percentage of Profits	Dividend
			(In yen)				
First Half of 1936							
Tobu	50,500,000	27,750,000	4,726,000	3,483,000	1,243,000	8.9	7.0
Keisei	40,500,000	23,287,000	3,467,000	2,307,000	1,160,000	9.9	7.0
Keio	12,900,000	10,300,000	2,113,000	1,582,000	531,000	10.3	7.0
Tamagawa	12,500,000	7,950,000	1,748,000	1,336,000	412,000	10.3	7.0
Keihin	15,000,000	13,020,000	1,698,000	1,198,000	500,000	7.6	5.0
Tokoy-Yokohama	11,000,000	9,800,000	2,156,000	1,670,000	486,000	9.9	6.0
Meguro-Kamata	17,100,000	12,695,000	2,290,000	1,543,000	747,000	11.7	10.0
Oji	14,000,000	11,375,000	3,200,000	2,279,000	921,000	16.1	10.0
Total	173,500,000	116,127,000	21,398,000	15,398,000	6,000,000	13.7	7.3
Second Half of 1936							
Tobu	50,500,000	31,870,000	4,912,000	3,472,000	1,440,000	9.0	7.0
Keisei	40,500,000	23,287,000	3,665,000	2,542,000	1,123,000	9.6	7.0
Keio	12,900,000	10,300,000	2,089,000	1,561,000	528,000	10.0	7.0
Tamagawa	12,500,000	7,950,000	1,735,000	1,324,000	411,000	10.3	7.0
Keihin	15,000,000	13,020,000	1,735,000	1,222,000	513,000	7.8	5.0
Tokyo-Yokohama	15,000,000	11,243,000	3,060,000	2,475,000	585,000	10.4	7.0
Meguro-Kamata	17,100,000	12,695,000	2,674,000	1,936,000	738,000	11.6	10.0
Oji	14,000,000	11,375,000	3,009,000	2,099,000	910,000	16.0	10.0
Total	177,500,000	121,740,000	22,879,000	16,631,000	6,248,000	10.2	7.4
1936	177,500,000	118,933,000	44,277,000	32,029,000	12,248,000	10.2	7.34
1935	173,500,000	114,247,000	38,877,000	28,052,000	10,825,000	9.4	7.2
1934	151,325,000	107,877,000	35,229,000	25,224,000	10,057,000	9.3	7.1
1933	149,400,000	101,977,000	33,185,000	24,108,000	9,204,000	9.0	7.1
1932	149,400,000	97,989,000	32,356,000	23,144,000	9,315,000	9.5	7.9
1931	149,110,000	94,869,000	30,656,000	21,108,000	9,656,000	10.1	8.6
1930	148,725,000	92,115,000	33,724,000	21,266,000	10,748,000	11.6	9.5

Kansai Railways The business conditions of the electric railway companies in the Kansai continued to improve during 1936. Their profits continued to expand with the increase in the transportation receipts and the larger profits derived from the electric light and power enterprises. The total receipts of

the six leading companies in the district during the year amounted to ¥84,000,000, showing an increase of ¥4,600,000 over the figures for the preceding year.

The profits of the six leading companies during 1936 totalled ¥26,710,000 or 10.9 per cent which represents an increase of more than ¥2,100,000 or an increase of 1 per cent over the profits for the preceding year and 0.8 per cent over the figures for 1931, recording the highest percentage in recent years. The average dividend of 7.3 per cent is also a noteworthy fact illustrating the improvement in the business conditions which is expected to continue into 1937.

Kansai also experienced a full share of the trade boom, with Osaka as the chief centre of activity. The influence was directly felt by spinning and rayon industries, all of which were very active during the year, and foreign trade experienced a remarkable degree of prosperity. It is firmly believed that this tendency will continue for at least another few years, which means that the receipts of the various electric railway companies will continue to swell.

The following are the details of the business conditions of the six principal electric railway companies in the Kansai district during 1936, tabulated in comparison with the figures for the preceding five years.

	Capitalization	Average Paid-up Capital	Total Receipts	Total Expenditure	Profits	Percentage of Profits	Dividend
Accounts closed in March, 1936							
Hanshin Dentetsu	100,000,000	47,500,000	8,021,000	4,968,000	3,053,000	12.9	9.0
Keihan Dentetsu	93,850,000	58,994,000	8,134,000	5,730,000	2,404,000	8.1	3.0
Nankai Tetsudo	70,000,000	43,200,000	8,184,000	5,458,000	2,725,000	12.6	10.0
Osaka Denki	45,720,000	35,560,000	5,464,000	3,719,000	1,745,000	9.8	8.0
Hanshin Kyuko	45,000,000	45,000,000	10,359,000	7,301,000	3,058,000	13.6	10.0
Osaka Tetsudo	20,600,000	16,010,000	953,000	727,000	226,000	2.8	—
Total	375,170,000	246,264,000	41,115,000	27,903,000	13,211,000	10.7	7.1
Accounts closed in September, 1936							
Hanshin Dentetsu	95,000,000	45,125,000	8,637,000	5,621,000	3,016,000	13.4	9.0
Keihan Dentetsu	93,850,000	58,994,000	7,798,000	5,751,000	2,047,000	6.9	4.0
Nankai Tetsudo	70,000,000	43,200,000	8,837,000	5,774,000	3,063,000	14.2	10.0
Osaka Denki	45,720,000	35,560,000	5,914,000	3,868,000	2,046,000	11.5	8.0
Hanshin Kyuko	45,000,000	45,000,000	10,605,000	7,667,000	2,938,000	13.1	10.0
Osaka Tetsudo	20,600,000	16,010,000	1,156,000	767,000	389,000	4.9	—
Total	370,170,000	243,889,000	42,947,000	29,448,000	13,499,000	11.1	7.6
1936	372,670,000	245,077,000	84,062,000	57,351,000	26,710,000	10.9	7.3
1935	375,170,000	246,264,000	79,437,000	54,592,000	24,562,000	9.9	6.7
1934	375,170,000	239,376,000	76,786,000	53,864,000	23,021,000	9.6	6.3
1933	375,170,000	231,954,000	73,329,000	52,346,000	20,982,000	9.1	6.3
1932	375,170,000	228,894,000	70,399,000	51,142,000	19,718,000	8.3	6.6
1931	367,670,000	225,109,000	71,744,000	49,025,000	22,718,000	10.1	8.4

Prospects Greater improvement in the business condition of the railway companies is expected in the future as both passenger and freight traffic will continue to increase in volume owing to the operation of the enormous national budget. A prosperous future is also expected for the various sidelines although there are unfavourable factors present such as the increased taxation and reduced electricity charges as well as the likelihood of discontinuance of government grants to local railways.

Under the present system, only those local railways which commenced business by the end of 1936 are entitled to government grants which as a rule last for 10 years. In other words, according to the present system, local railways to be constructed in the future will not be given any government grants. If this system continues, not only with the construction of future railways be affected, but also some of the existing local railways will not be able to function, as they depend chiefly on government grants. Herein lies the importance of the question of government's grants. Under the present circumstances, it is unthinkable that the government grants to private local railways will be discontinued. It would be necessary for the government to continue

the grants, even if there is a reduction in the amounts.

The question that remains to be solved in the future concerns the control of the transportation system. Although the various local railways have, as already stated, achieved in recent times, a remarkable improvement in their business conditions, the improvement has been such as cannot be regarded as a complete or fundamental recovery from the depression from which they suffered before the trend of events for the better. The yields of the railways are still at a low level as compared with the prosperous times of the past. The reason may be sought in the collapse of the monopolization system in the railway business, the competition presented by the automobile business and the pressure brought to bear upon the local railways by the Ministry of Railways.

In order to liquidate the difficult situation, it is necessary that a control of the transportation system should be enforced, especially in the capital. Already, contracts have been concluded for the merger of the Shonan and Keihin Railway Companies as well as the Keihin Underground Railway Company and the Subway Company.

The question of amalgamation between Tokyo-Yokohama Electric Railway Company and the Tamagawa Electric Railway Company is under discussion, as also a merger of the Meguro-Kamata and Tokyo-Yokohama Electric Railway Companies.

It is expected that the realization of a strong control of the transportation system will stabilize the situation for the local railways.

TRAFFIC AND RECEIPTS OF JAPANESE GOVERNMENT RAILWAYS

Date	Average Mileage in Operation	No. of Passengers Carried	Revenue			Freight Loading	Freight Discharges
			Passenger	Freight	Total		
	km.	(1,000)	(¥1,000)	(¥1,000)	(¥1,000)	1,000m.t.	1,000 m.t.
1932	15,292	605,260	178,684	126,340	305,024	39,984	60,247
1933	15,488	825,457	255,346	216,722	372,263	60,955	67,952
1935 Jan.	16,465	78,061	24,105	16,290	40,394	5,523	6,134
Feb.	16,480	62,715	20,146	16,767	36,914	5,666	6,306
Mar.	16,508	73,971	25,824	20,122	45,947	6,562	7,355
Apr.	16,558	142,086	33,993	18,425	52,419	5,889	6,450
May.	16,579	80,381	25,838	18,295	44,133	5,935	6,684
June	16,664	69,567	21,498	16,812	38,310	5,419	6,179
Jul.	16,681	73,304	22,663	17,209	39,872	5,628	6,376
Aug.	16,730	70,128	26,503	16,833	43,336	5,360	6,013
Sep.	16,741	80,705	21,474	18,696	40,170	5,726	6,381
Oct.	16,822	85,319	26,598	21,135	47,733	6,639	7,326
Nov.	16,924	71,979	23,248	19,912	43,160	6,347	7,042
Dec.	17,073	72,142	23,102	21,368	44,470	6,694	7,428
Jan.—Dec. 1935	—	960,357	294,992	221,864	516,858	71,388	79,678
Jan.—Dec. 1934	—	883,318	275,810	208,693	484,503	67,368	74,934

Private Railways

General The status of provincial railways in operation and those not yet opened at the end of 1935 follows:

	No.	Length (Kilometres)	Construction Cost (In yen)
Railways in operation	260	7,088	1,018,266,471 (estimate)
Compared with the year before	(de.) 6	(de.) 96	(in.) 4,278,482 (estimate)
Railways not opened yet	158	3,126	757,058,780 (estimate)
Compared with the year before	(de.) 21	(de.) 339	(de.) 21,135,967

Traffic During the 1934–35 year the number of passengers carried was 499,878,493, the coaching receipts amounting to ¥62,262,808. As compared with the preceding year the number of passengers carried increased by 37,515,823 or 8.1 per cent, the coaching receipts by ¥3,195,217 or 5.4 per cent. The increase both in traffic volume and coaching receipts was accounted for by the improvement of the financial situation that had been in depressed condition these

few years. The average kilometres of journey per passenger came to 8.6 kilometres and the average coaching receipts per passenger ¥0.125, which means a decrease of 0.8 kilometres for the former, but a loss of ¥0.03 for the latter as compared with the previous year. The total amount of goods moved during the year under review figured 26,327,344 metric tons and the receipts accrued therefrom amounted to ¥20,303,665. There are a gain of 1,487,694 metric tons in the volume and of ¥994,004 in the receipts. It appears that the return of business prosperity, coupled with the larger demand for munitions and the heavy crops, has brought about the boom of goods traffic during the year, resulting in the swell of the volume of goods hauled and the receipts therefrom. The average goods receipts per metric ton came to ¥0.771, which was a loss of ¥0.006. Altogether 1,812 accidents took place on all the local railways, in which 384 persons were killed and 482 injured. The number of accidents decreased by 58, the injured by 97, and the killed by 5 against the corresponding figures of the previous year.

Rolling Stock The aggregate number of locomotives in use by the local railways on March 31, 1935 was 897 with the weight of 23,135 metric tons, being a decrease of 50 locomotives. These comprise 664 tanks, 66 tenders, 164 electric and 3 gasolene locomotives.

The number of carriages belonging to the local railways at the end of the year totalled 4,343 with a capacity of 308,474 seats, being a decrease of 90 carriages and an increase of 127 seats over the preceding year.

The total of freight cars in use numbered 11,006 with the loading capacity of 109,012 metric tons, a loss of 470 wagons but an increase of 4,615 metric tons in the capacity.

Finance The total working revenue of the local railways during the year aggregated ¥91,606,427 as against their total working expenses of ¥51,857,275, leaving a profit of ¥39,749,152. As compared with the preceding year the working revenue showed a gain of ¥4,204,123, and the working expenses ¥3,082,617. The net profit for the year came to ¥32,454,168, which is composed of the profit shown above plus ¥32,674,237 of miscellaneous receipts, less ¥22,822,749 of interest paid and ¥17,146,472 of other charges. The earnings per day per kilometre ¥35.472, and the profit per day per kilometre ¥15.392, showing an increase of ¥2.021, ¥1.413 and ¥0.608 in earnings, expenses, and profit respectively against the figures for the previous year. The percentage of working expenses to working revenue stood at 56.6 per cent and that of working profit to the construction expenses at 4.1 per cent, being a gain of 0.8 per cent for the former and of 0.1 per cent for the latter.

Assets and Liabilities Both assets and liabilities of the private railways at the end of 1934–35 fiscal year totalled ¥2,115,910,749.

Employee On March 31, 1935 there were altogether 40,845 employees on the staff of the local railways, their monthly allowances amounting to ¥2,252,922, or an increase of 332 and ¥83,264 re spectively.

Tramcar Service

Growth of Tramways The tramways in Japan date back from 1880, when an application was tendered for the construction of the Tokyo Horse Tram Co.'s line which was completed and opened to traffic in 1883. As provided by the Tramway Law now in force, all the tramways in Japan are constructed as a rule on highways. The street railways, a certain number of suburban railways and others laid in provinces are placed under the control of the Law. Such public bodies as cities, towns and villages may take the management of tramways without restriction. Steam and electricity are mostly employed as motive power except a few local tramways where gasolene, horse or human power is used for the purpose.

Lines in Operation On March 31, 1935 there were 135 tramways open to business with a length of 2,615.20 kilometres and an aggregate capital of ¥1,468,193,689, being a loss of 6 in number, 37.45 kilometres in length, and a decrease of ¥603,280,350 in capital. Classified according to kinds of motive power they are made up as follows :

Kind of power	No. of Tramways	Kilometres	Capital
		k.m.	¥
Electric	89	2,079.62	1,431,452,036
Steam	8	153.38	1,861,000
Steam and gasolene combined	9	75.52	3,795,000
Gasolene	12	122.72	23,157,000
Horse power	15	150.47	7,743,000
Human power	6	33.49	185,663
Total	140	2,615.20	1,468,193,689

New Lines, Lines Under Construction During the year 6 tramways with a total length of 8.20 kilometres were newly opened to business, while 4 tramways with a total length of 5.72 kilometres were granted charters for construction. Most of them use electricity as power and aim at conducting transportation in and near towns. The tramways under construction at the end of the year numbered 70 and their aggregate length measured 785.56 kilometres while the total capital amounted to ¥23,036,000, being a decrease of 2 in number, of 26.44 kilometres in length, and of ¥2,769,842 in capital respectively as against the preceding year.

Results of Working The number of passengers carried during the 1934–35 period was 1,570,739,965, the coaching receipts resulting therefrom being ¥104,-759,835. Compared with the preceding year the number of passengers decreased by 4.3 per cent and the receipts by 2.8 per cent.

The goods carried during the period was 1,907,384 metric tons, and the goods receipts ¥1,430,598, being a loss of 0.8 per cent in receipts and of 12.7 per cent in the volume of goods carried.

The total revenue of the tramways during the year amounted to ¥113,112,507 as against their total working expenses of ¥70,689,908, leaving a balance of ¥42,-422,599 as profit. This was a gain of 2 per cent in the revenue, 4.6 per cent in the profit and a loss of 2 per cent in the working expenses. The working revenue per day per kilometre was ¥124.21, the working expenses per day per kilometre ¥46.58, being respectively an increase of 77.63 and the profit per day per kilometre ¥4.60, ¥4.74 but a loss of ¥0.14 as compared with the preceding year. The ratio of the working expenses to the working revenue stood at 62.5 per cent, or an increase of 1.6 per cent while the ratio of the profit to the construction expenditure was 5.3 per cent or 0.1 per cent more than in the preceding year.

Assets and Liabilities The total capital investment of all the tramways open to business up to the end of the year under review amounted to ¥1,658,-587,395 of which ¥1,386,682,331 was paid up and ¥807,840,784 was claimed by construction expenses for open lines. Besides, there was ¥679,718,208 in the shape of debentures, floating debts, overdraft and bills payable, etc.

Tourist Industry

Three organizations, viz., the Board of Tourist Industry, the Japan Tourist Bureau (founded in 1912), and the Kokusai Kanto Kyokai (founded in 1931), a foundation devoting itself solely to the carrying out of travel publicity abroad, and forming the hub from which radiate innumerable lines connecting it with other important organizations, such as the Society for International Cultural Relations and other cultural bodies, tourist associations in various districts, transportation concerns, hotels and all other organizations that have anything to do with the tourist industry of Japan.

The Board of Tourist Industry is divided into two departments, one for general affairs and the other for business promotion. In addition to these, it has three boards of investigation dealing with tourist resorts, hotel enterprises and treatment of tourists respectively. These boards comprise experts of the government and the public on the respective subjects. The Committee of Tourist Industry holds its general meeting at least once a year, when it decides what course to follow in carrying out any important undertaking.

The Kokusai Kanto Kyokai runs an office in New York and Los Angeles, though the actual business is carried on there in the popular name of the Japan Tourist Bureau.

The branch offices of the Japan Tourist Bureau, both in Japan and abroad, number about 130 in all. Besides, it has agents in some important cities abroad in order to make the network of its service as extensive and satisfactory as possible.

Since the establishment of the Board of Tourist Industry, tourist organizations of a non-commercial nature have been successively founded in many parts of Japan, and at present the total number is in the proximity of 400.

During the past two or three years, an annual increase of over 20 per cent has been recorded in the number of foreigners who visited Japan. According to statistics issued by the Board of Tourist Industry, the year 1935 witnessed the entry into this country of 42,-629 foreigners, not including the 2,700 passengers on ships making a world-cruise, 132,700 through passengers on ordinary boats and 500,000 members of the crews of various vessels which called at Japanese ports during the same year.

The total amount of money spent in 1935 in this country by foreigners was ¥96,019,000 of which ¥70,242,000 was spent by tourists, according to the estimate of the Ministry of Finance. During the same year, Japan exported cotton piece-goods to the amount of ¥490,000,000 raw silk to the amount of ¥380,000,000, rayon textiles to the amount of ¥120,000,000

and silk textiles to the amount of ¥77,000,000. It will be noted that the amount of money spent in this country by tourists came very near the value of the export of silk textiles.

The total number of foreigners visiting this country did not increase much in 1936 over the figures for the preceding year, but the same rate of increase as before was recorded in the number of those who travelled the country for sightseeing. Particularly noteworthy is the fact that a remarkable upward tendency was indicated in the number of tourists coming from Manchoukuo and other East Asiatic countries.

In consideration of the future of Japan's tourist industry, special mention must be made of the fact that elaborate preparations have already been commenced for holding the 12th Olympic Games in Tokyo in 1940 which will also be the 2,600th anniversary of the foundation of the Empire. Besides various national enterprises in connection with the celebration of the anniversary, international conferences in varied fields are also expected to be held in this country during that year.

It is rather difficult to form any idea as to the number of foreign visitors likely to visit Japan in 1940, but the Board of Tourist Industry and other organizations are looking for it as an epoch-making year in the history of tourist industry in Japan. The rate of increase of foreign visitors during the past 15 years, 1921–1935, has been 5 per cent per annum, and their number in 1940 will under ordinary circumstances reach 53,000, while the 12th Olympiad and some 10 international gatherings are bound to add several thousands to this number.

The governmental authorities and the civilian organizations concerned are energetically devising ways and means to promote the tourist industry in conformity with the exceedingly favourable situation. Apart from the question of perfecting sporting facilities and means of transportation, plans are under consideration for the improvement of roads, traffic, sanitation, hotels and amusement facilities. The establishment of an international sea-bathing resort has been proposed and some organizations are sponsoring the creation of better facilities for the study of Japanese culture, by means of museums, art galleries, etc.

FOREIGNERS WHO VISITED JAPAN

In 1935

Nationality	Duration of Stay: Less than 15 days	Less than 3 months	More than 3 months	Total	Purpose: Sight Seeing	Official Business
Americans	6,004	2,015	1,092	9,111	6,188	53
Canadian	212	72	91	375	206	1
British	3,404	2,908	981	7,293	4,591	54
German	439	579	505	1,523	620	14
French	327	415	152	894	499	11
Soviets	462	480	338	1,280	206	125
Hollanders	346	309	134	789	546	8
Hindus	131	217	380	728	241	0
Philippinoes	274	214	49	537	386	0
Chinese	2,160	1,415	10,685	14,260	1,314	152
Others	1,182	1,235	3,422	5,839	1,248	288
Total	14,941	9,859	17,829	42,629	16,045	706
1934	12,850	8,863	13,483	35,196	11,837	689
Increase or decrease (–)	2,091	996	4,346	7,433	4,208	17
Percentage of Increase of Decrease (–)	16%	11%	32%	21%	35%	3%

Nationality	Commercial Business	Miscellaneous	Total	%	1934	Increase
Americans	448	2,422	9,111	21.4	7,947	1,164
Canadian	26	142	375	0.9	380	–5
British	469	2,179	7,293	17.0	6,391	902
German	240	649	1,523	3.6	1,313	210
French	47	337	894	2.1	883	11
Soviets	279	670	1,280	3.0	1,427	–147

Nationality	Commercial Business	Miscellaneous	Total	%	1934	Increase
Hollanders	78	157	789	1.9	666	123
Hindus	329	158	729	1.7	669	59
Philippinoes	17	134	537	1.3	385	152
Chinese	1,346	11,448	14,260	33.4	12,676	1,584
Others	388	3,915	5,839	14.0	2,459	3,380
Total	3,667	22,211	42,629	100	35,196	7,433
1933-34	3,660	19,010	35,196			
Increase or decrease (—)	7	3,201	7,433			
Percentage of Increase or Decrease (—)	0.2%	17%	21%			

Railways in Chosen, Taiwan, Manchuria, etc.

Chosen

The first railway enterprise in Chosen dates back to 1899, when a railway linking Keijo (Seoul) with Jinsen (Chemulpo), 29.485 kilometres in length, was laid and opened to traffic by the Kei-Jin Railway Company. The outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War caused the military authorities of Japan to build the Keijo-Fusan, Keijo-Shingishu and Masan lines which were opened to traffic in 1905 and 1906 respectively. In 1906 the Imperial Government of Japan nationalized the Keijo-Fusan Line and also took over the Keijo-Shingishu and the Masan Lines from the War Office of Japan, placing all these lines under direct control of the Railway Bureau of the Korean Residency-General. Meanwhile the work of construction was steadily pushed on and in 1910 the Heijo-Chinnampo line was completed. On the spanning of the Yalu River with a swing bridge in 1911 the peninsular railway was brought into connection with the South Manchuria Railway. In 1914 the Taiden-Mokpo and Keijo-Gensan lines were completed, while in 1915 part of the Gensan-Kainei line was opened. In 1928 the Kankyo line which connects Kainei to Gensan was completed, and in 1933 the Tomon line which connects Kainei to Yuki was opened to traffic. The latter is connected with the Keito line of S.M.R.C. at Kainei, thus preparing a new eastern transportation facility between Chosen and Manchoukuo. On March 31, 1935, the State Lines in Chosen open to business totalled 3,077.4 km. as against 2,935.4 km. in 1934 showing an increase of 142 km. The number of passengers carried aggregated 25,614,815 as against 1,568,881,881 of the number of passengers carried one kilometre, while the weight of goods hauled was 7,681,776 metric tons as against 1,643,305,463 ton-kilometres. The coaching receipts amounted to ¥24,358,001 and goods receipts to ¥25,790,513, and the total ¥50,148,514. As compared with the preceding year the number of passengers shows an increase of 3,376,477, and the volume of goods hauled an increase of 426,917 metric tons, while the coaching receipts increased by ¥3,556,280 and goods receipts by ¥2,981,092 and ¥6,537,372 for the total. The average revenue per day came to ¥137,393, the average revenue per kilometre to ¥16,658, the average revenue per day per kilometre to ¥45.64, being an increase respectively of ¥17,910, ¥2,294 and ¥6,29.

The aggregate length of private railways open to traffic on March 31, 1935 amounted to 1,249.3 kilometres, the length of lines under construction 15.2 kilometres, and lines contemplated but not yet granted charters 301.2 kilometres, the total length of all these lines amounting to 1,565.7 kilometres. The number of private companies which are already operating railways in Chosen numbered 9, viz., Chosen Railway Company, Chosen Keinan Railway Company, Kongosan Electric Railway Company, Shinko Railway Company, Chosen Keito Railway Company, South Chosen Railway Company, Chosen Gas & Electric Company, South Manchurian Railway Company, and Kunsan Municipal Railway. Besides, there were two railway companies which were provided with a charter but had not begun work. Of the above mentioned companies the former six receive regular subsidies from the Government. The aggregate capital of the six subsidized companies amounts to ¥100,300,000 of which ¥45,380,000 is paid up, while the aggregated capital of the other non-subsidized companies came to ¥9,560,825. The total length of tramways operated in Korea came to 80.9 kilometres indicating a gain of 6.7 kilometres over the previous year. The power used is mostly electricity. (See Chapter XL for fuller informations.)

Taiwan

It was not until the cession of the Island of Formosa (Taiwan) from the Chinese Government to Japan that the island began to enjoy railway facilities, for, prior to that time, the only railroad existing was a small light railway between Keelung and Shinchiku built at the time of the Ching Dynasty. Soon after the cession, the Taiwan Government-General brought forward a plan, with the approval of the Diet, to build a railway connecting Takao with Keelung at the expense of ¥28,800,000. Work was started in 1889 from both termini and finished in April, 1908. This line now forms the trunk line in the island's communication system. The construction of this pioneer line was followed by other lines, that is, the Kyukyodo-Heito section completed in 1912, the Taito line in 1917 and the Giran line in 1924. The length of lines open to traffic on March 31, 1935, was 881.7 kilometres, being the same as the preceding year. The working route kilometreage of the Government lines at the end to line in 1917 and the Giran line in the train kilometreage during the year 8,968,725 kilometres, the vehicle kilometreage 160,358,297 kilometres, being an increase of 215,224 kilometres for the train kilometreage and of 9,498,619 kilometres for other vehicles. The number of passengers carried came to 18,144,327, the volume of goods hauled to 5,706,127 metric tons and the earnings accruing from these two sources to ¥21,424,698. Compared with the corresponding figures for the preceding year the number of passengers increased by 1,003,468, the volume of goods by 619,400 metric tons and the total earnings by ¥2,093,649.

Most of the private railways existing in Taiwan were originally constructed by sugar refining companies for transporting sugar and other materials, transportation business being conducted only as a side work. At the end of March 31, 1935, there were 20 companies with the total working km. of 2,341 while the balance 1,836.9 km. were for the exclusive use of the companies owing to them.

The tramways, which form an important factor in the island communication system, have made a marked development in recent years. The total length of lines in operation on March 31, 1935, was 1,232 km., the number of passengers carried aggregated 3,085,987, goods moved 715,701,554 m.t. and the total receipts ¥1,663,383.

Karafuto Railway

The first railway in Karafuto (Japanese Saghalien) was constructed by the Military Department in 1906 between Otomari, formerly known as Korsakovsa, and Toyohara, formerly Vladimolocka, 41.83 km. in length. It was a light railway with a gauge of 0.61 metre and exclusively used for military purposes. With the withdrawal of the military Government in April, 1907, the railway was transferred to the control of the Karafuto Administration and opened to public traffic in August of the same year. As traffic went on increasing the gauge was widened to 1.07 metres, some time in 1910, while construction of sections further north of Toyohara was started. Late in 1911 the work on the Toyohara-Sakaehama section being completed, the Otomari-Sakaehama section, 94.13 km. which now forms the trunk line in the island's communication, was opened to traffic. Construction work has been continued since and a branch line linking the Kawakami Mine with Konuma, and the Honto-Noda section on the west coast were completed and opened to business in 1914 and 1920 respectively. In addition, the construction of a branch line which connects Toyohara, the capital of the island, with Maoka on the west coast, was started in 1921 and opened to business in 1928.

The lines in operation at present totalled 342.9 kilometres, remaining the same as the previous year. The total number of passengers who travelled by the railways during 1935 totalled 1,400,482 and showed a decline of 4,548 or 3 per cent as compared with the previous year, though the receipts showed a gain of ¥17,921 the total receipts being ¥830,639. The total of both passenger and goods receipts amounted to ¥2,058,458 showing an increase of ¥175,791 over the receipts for the preceding year.

There are altogether three local railway companies that have run railway business in Karafuto.

South Manchuria Railway

It was on September 5, 1905, that the Japanese Government, by virtue of Article V of the Peace Treaty concluded between Japan and Russia, acquired possession of the railways in Manchuria from Changchun to Dalny, now Dairen, and Port Arthur, now Ryojun, together with its branch lines, all the rights, privileges, and property attaching thereto, including the local mines formerly owned by the Chinese Eastern Railway. On June 7, 1906, Imperial

Ordinance No. 142 was issued concerning the establishment of the South Manchuria Railway Company and on July 13 of the same year General Viscount Gentaro Kodama was appointed chairman of the promoters' committee which were composed of 80 members. On July 25, 1906, the presidency was assumed by General Viscount Masataké Terauchi, the then Minister of War, due to the death of General Kodama. The articles of association relative to the company were prepared by the committee on the basis of the Imperial Ordinance and the instructions of the Government. They were approved by the Government on August 18 and the establishment of the company was sanctioned by the Minister of Communications on November 1, 1906. The authorized capital of the company at first was ¥200,000,000, of which ¥100,000,000 represented the total of the appraised value of railways with properties and the mines at Fushun and Yentai as handed over to the company by the Military Field Railway Department. The other half of the capitalization was offered to public subscription and the shareholders were guaranteed a 6 per cent dividend per annum by the Japanee Government. By March, 1930, 800,000 shares representing 80 million yen were paid up, but with the development of various activities after the World War the capitalization was increased to 440 million, one-half of the increased capitalization being taken up by the Japanese Government. The company is authorized to issue debentures not exceeding twice the amount of paid-up capital, and not exceeding the amount of total capitalization. The company has often issued debentures on the home and foreign markets and on such occasions both the principal and interest have been guaranteed by the Government. The total capital paid up on March 31, 1935 amounted to ¥548,208,-000 and the capital unpaid to ¥251,792,-000 the total length of lines open to business was 1,129.1 kilometres. The gauge of these lines was 1.067 metres at first, excepting the Mukden-Antung Line. The company shortly after its establishment rebuilt the lines to the standard gauge of 1.434 metres. The doubling of track between Dairen and Changchun,704.3 kilometres, was completed in 1915. In the year 1934 the number of passengers carried was 13,-786,403 and showed an increase of 2,-152,528 over the previous year. Goods carried aggregated 21,671,342 m.t. The income from these came to ¥101,489,276. (See Chapter on Manchoukuo.)

Motor Transport and Its Development

Behind Japan's motor transport system there is no such history of experimentation and endeavour as characterizes the arrival of the motor car in the West. The first car seen in Japan was one imported from America by a foreign resident of Yokohama in 1897, and then for the next ten years there was no great increase in the number. In 1907 there were only 16 cars in the whole country. Then came a change. In 1912 there were 520 vehicles and a year later 1,000. In 1921, passenger cars numbered 4,683 and business cars numbered 7,439. The great earthquake and fire which destroyed Tokyo and Yokohama in 1923 brought about a great demand for motor cars because rail traffic was interrupted at various places and the help of motor cars was badly needed. In 1924, the number increased to 40,070, of which 27,959 were passenger cars and 12,097 were trucks. The rate of increase for the five years 1921–26 was for passenger cars 100.49 per cent and for trucks 1,200.6 per cent. This rapid development of motor car transport has driven rikishas, electric cars and provincial railways into the background. Motor-car passengers are increasing year after year, while passenger receipts on provincial railways are quickly decreasing. To the present, except in the vicinity of large cities, Japan has not been blessed with good roads, but the construction of first-class motor roads is being pushed ahead in all parts of the country and traffic is bound to make a phenomenal increase as the roads are completed.

Number of Cars According to the statistics taken by the Police Bureau, Home Ministry, the number of all kinds of cars in Japan proper was 175,904 at the end of 1935.

NUMBER OF MOTOR CARS IN JAPAN PROPER

At the end of	Ordinary Cars: Private	Ordinary Cars: Taxicabs	Trucks	Special Cars	Small Cars	Total
1933	7,723	59,010	38,199	5,187	25,124	135,234
1934	7,970	62,511	42,059	4,938	39,095	156,573
1935	9,213	64,795	46,918	5,065	49,913	175,904

Number of Cars in Principal Prefectures in 1934

	Ordinary Cars	Trucks	Special Cars	Small Cars	Total
Tokyo	17,608	9,918	1,104	12,733	41,363
Osaka	5,732	3,975	467	8,438	18,612
Hyogo	3,535	2,089	211	3,193	9,028
Kanagawa	3,055	2,199	129	1,889	7,272
Aichi	3,404	2,872	448	3,962	10,686
Shizuoka	2,338	1,793	134	1,371	5,636
Fukuoka	2,798	1,002	210	1,221	5,231
Kyoto	2,475	1,321	164	1,748	5,708

Figures of the National Resource Bureau taken at the end of October 1936 are as follows :

Number of Cars in the Empire

(October 31, 1936)

	Cars	Trucks	Special	Total
Japan proper	79,775	50,437	3,882	134,094
Colonies	9,233	5,645	663	15,541

Commercial Passenger Cars Although the available figures are old, the business mileage of commercial passenger motor vehicles by fixed lines at the end of 1930 totalled 122,284 kilometres. If the business mileage of motor trucks by fixed lines be added, the total amounts to more than 160,900 kilometres. There were many cases of duplication of services by competitive lines, but if the actual business mileage is estimated as being one-third of the above total, it will be found that it was more than double that of the Government-owned and private railway and tramcar services combined. The total number of companies and individuals engaged in bus business in 1935 reached 3,423. Among prefectures Fukuoka led with 204. The other prefectures which had over 100 were as follows : Kumamoto 158, Fukushima 186, Hokkaido 161, Oita 138, Hyogo 131, Hiroshima 102. These figures do not necessarily represent the prosperity or better facilities for motor transportation in the districts, but in many cases simply indicate the absence of any effective control of the business. The worst instance of the case is a road in Kumamoto where 10 buses are running.

The Ministry of Railways is going to control over such disorder or competition according to the Motor Transportation Business Law promulgated in 1934.

The prefectures which had geographical and geological handicaps had smaller numbers such as Okinawa 9, Tottori 30, Nara 25, Fukui 38, and Kochi 22. The prefectures in which the six big cities are located had comparatively small numbers indicative of a good control, i.e. Tokyo 71, Kanagawa 74, Osaka 36, Aichi 70 and Kyoto 50.

(As to the production and supply of motor cars in Japan see Chapter XIX.)

Aviation

History of Development

The Early Period During the Satsuma Rebellion in 1877, two balloons were built. In 1891, Mr. Chuhachi Ninomiya made a model of an aeroplane shaped like a bird from his own design, and, in 1894, another shaped like an insect. In 1897, Mr. Isaburo Yamada obtained a patent for a kite balloon of his own invention. Two of these kite balloons were used in the siege of Port Arthur during the Russo-Japanese War. In 1907, a balloon corps was organized in the Telegraph Corps at Nakano, and, in June, 1909, a special military balloon investigation association was established. In March, 1910, a gliding test of aeroplane No. 1 of the Hino type was made at Toyamagahara, Tokyo, and, in October that year, a flying test of an aeroplane of the Narahara type was made. On December 19 of the same year, Lieutenant Tokugawa (now Lieutenant-General) flew 3,000 metres in four minutes in a Farman aeroplane at Yoyogi, and Captain Hino flew in a Glady aeroplane. This was the first time that an aeroplane flight was carried out in Japan.

The First Civilian Flight In the spring of 1911, airship No. 2 of the Yamada type was taken out of the hangar at Osaki, Tokyo, and made a successful cross-country flight. In March and April of the same year, an American flyer carried out an exhibition flight in Osaka and Tokyo ; on April 8, Mr.

Shinzo Morita, who had studied flying in France, flew in a 45 h.p. monoplane over the Joto parade-ground in Osaka, this being the first flight by a civilian flyer in this country; and, in April that year, the aerodrome and flying ground at Tokorozawa were completed. In June, 1912, Mr. Atwater, an American flyer, conducted a series of exhibition flights by hydroplane on the sea off Nishinomiya near Osaka; and, in July that year, five officers were selected from each army division to be trained as flying officers. This marks the beginning of instruction in flying to military officers in this country. In the autumn of 1912, a number of aeroplanes and airships participated in the grand military manœuvres. In February, 1913, the Teikoku Hiko Kyokai (Imperial Aeronautical Association) was established; on May 4 that year, Mr. Koha Takeishi, a civilian flyer, started on a Naruo-Osaka-Kyoto flight, but, when landing in the Fukakusa parade-ground in Kyoto, he met with disaster and died as the first victim of civilian aviation in Japan.

Contest of Civilian Aviators In 1914, a contest by civilian aviators was held at Naruo, near Osaka, under the auspices of the Imperial Aeronautical Association, and, during the Tsingtao campaign Japanese military aeroplanes took part in actual fighting for the first time and displayed their ability in scouting, in bombing the enemy fortress and in an aerial combat with enemy planes. In 1915, a meet of civilian flyers was held in Osaka, and a military flying battalion was formed. Between January and April, 1916, American aviators visited Japan and performed trick flying at Naruo and other places; and, on April 27 that year, night flying was successfully carried out for the first time in this country. In 1917, the flying battalion was enlarged into the first and second battalions and a balloon corps. In April that year, Mr. Bird Smith, an American flyer, again visited Japan and carried out a series of high-class exhibition flights in Osaka and Tokyo. In April, 1918, Mr. Masao Goto, a private flyer, succeeded in making a non-stop flight between Tokorozawa and Osaka for the first time.

Military Flying School In April, 1919, the Military Aeronautical Department and the Military Flying School were established; and, on October 22 that year, the first mail transport flight between Tokyo and Osaka was carried out with success. In 1920, the Aeronautical Institute was established at Tsukishima, Tokyo; and in May that year, two Italian aviators paid a visit to Japan by air. In March, 1921, the regulations for the control of aviation were put in force. In the autumn of 1922, the Japan Aerial Transport Institute started a regular flying service between Sakai and Shikoku by hydroplanes. In 1923, the military air force was made an independent arm. The Osaka Asahi Shimbun started a regular air service between Tokyo and Osaka in January and the Japan Aerial Navigation Co., Ltd., opened one between Osaka and Beppu in July that year. In March, 1924, the dirigible S. S. No. 3 exploded and, in September of that year, the trial flight of the newly built airship Astra was carried out.

Air Mail Traffic In April, 1925, air mail traffic was started between Tokyo and Osaka; and, on July 25 that year, an aeroplane of the Asahi Shimbun took off from the Yoyogi parade-ground in Tokyo and, on October 27, reached Rome after a flight of 16,000 kilometres (in stages) via Moscow, Paris and London. In 1926, the Japanese Navy purchased from Italy the dirigible S-No. 3, which was one with a semi-rigid envelope, introduced into Japan for the first time. In June, 1927, the Aviation Law came into effect. In May, the Coast Defence Association successfully carried out a flight round the mainland, and, in October that year, the airship S-No. 3 exploded, while participating in the grand naval manœuvres. In April, 1928, Mr. Habuto, a civilian aviator, established a new record by flying 2,000 kilometres in 13 hours and 23 minutes; and, in July that year, aerial defence manœuvres were conducted in Osaka.

The Air Transport Co.. In 1929, the Japan Air Transport Co., Ltd., was established and inaugurated a regular air passenger service between Tokyo, Osaka and Fukuoka, later extending it to Seoul and Dairen; and two Army scouting planes of the 88 type flew between Tachiarai and Heito without stopping, making a record of aerial connection between the mainland and Taiwan. On their homeward flight, one of the planes flew for 15 hours and 15 minutes, thus establishing a new record of staying in the air in this country. In 1930, the Japan Students' Aviation League was formed and associations for the study of aviation were established one after another in different universities and colleges in Tokyo and Osaka. Mr. Yoshihara, a civilian flyer, flew from Berlin to Tokyo via Siberia in 11 days and simultane-

usly, Mr. Azuma, also a civilian flyer, eached Tokyo from Los Angeles via lew York, London, Berlin and Siberia. n March, 1931, the airship No. 8 which ad been made in Japan and belonged o the naval air force at Kasumigaura ook off and stayed in the air for a ecord length of time of 60 hours and ne minute.

The Aeronautical Institute In May, he Aeronautical Institute which ranks s the best research station in the world vas completed six years after the start- ng of its construction. In the same nonth, the aeroplane "Young Japan" belonging to Hosei University, a mem- ber of the Students' Aviation League, et off for Europe from the flying round at Haneda near Tokyo and, at he end of August, reached its desti- nation, Rome. After the outbreak of he Manchurian trouble in September hat year, our military planes partici- pated in actual warfare for the first ime since the Tsingtao campaign. In October of the same year, the aero- plane (Fokker No. 3-M) of the Japan Air Transport Company succeeded in lying between Taiwan and the main- and. In 1932, as a consequence of the Manchurian trouble, 64 "Aikoku" (Pa- riotic) planes were constructed with noney contributed by the people gen- erally, and, moreover, defence from erial attack became much discussed in our principal cities and important eco- nomic centres. On February 23, our Navy planes fought with enemy planes n the air over Shanghai. In the fight- ng, Lieutenant Kotani was killed, while Lieutenant Ikuta shot down a Boeing plane of the enemy. The trial night lights between Tokyo and Tachiarai on he nights of April 20 and May 2 that year proved a success.

Present Condition of Civil Aviation

Modest but definite progress of com- mercial aviation in Japan is indicated n the annual report of the Japan Air Transport Company, which reports mails carried by the company's planes during the year 1934 totalled 1,268,435, recording almost a 50 per cent increase over the 647,601 of the previous year. Commencing with April 1, 1935, the company has resumed night flying and also has inaugurated a special early morning service bringing Mukden within a day's reach from Tokyo by way of Seoul and Dairen. The early morning service was extended to Hsinking, the capital of Manchoukuo, on May 1. Fur- ther expansion of commercial aviation is expected to be facilitated consider- ably by the 15-year Government sub- sidy plan adopted by the Communica- tions Ministry last year with a tenta- tive budget of ¥200,000,000 for the whole period and originally a sum of ¥5,500,- 000 for the 1935–36 year but later cut to a smaller amount. During the last fiscal year the Japan Air Transport Company maintained the longest route of service totalling 2,118 kilometres be- tween Tokyo and Dairen by way of Nagoya, Osaka, Fukuoka, Urusan, Seoul, Heijo and Shingishu. Of the other avia- tion concerns Japan Aviation Research Institute maintains a 290-kilometre serv- ice between Osaka and Matsuyama in Shikoku, by way of Takamatsu; the Tokyo Air Transport Company a 150- kilometre service between Tokyo and Shimoda; the Tokyo Asahi Shimbun- sha, Ltd., a 415-kilometre service be- tween Tokyo and Niigata; and the Japan Marine Air Transport Company a newly opened service between Ma- tsué, Shimané Prefecture, and Hirosaki on the Japan Sea coast. The Tokyo- Shimoda service is operated only be- tween May and September and the Tokyo-Niigata service between May and October. In 1934 the total distance of commercial air routes in Japan was 3,751 kilometres.

Except the Japan Air Transport Com- pany, which has a paid-up capitaliza- tion of ¥4,000,000 all Japanese commer- cial aviation firms are still operated on extremely limited scale, while even Ja- pan Air Transport is assisted by an annual Government subsidy of ¥500,000.

Japan had a total of 235 civil air- planes, on October 1, 1935. The Japan Air Transport Company opened to busi- ness in April, 1929, and since its opera- tion to service the company has contrib- uted a great deal to the development of civil aviation in Japan. However, the re- sults have not proved satisfactory, es- pecially with recent years. Its profit rate was dropped considerably of late. Its business results since the opening of business follow:

	Paid-up Capital	Profit	Profit Rate	Annual Dividend Rate
	(¥1,000)			(In per cent)
1st h. 1929	2,500	355	28	5
2nd h. 1929	2,500	622	49.8	6
1st h. 1930	2,500	887	71.0	6
2nd h. 1930	3,955	1,033	52.2	6
1st h. 1931	4,000	979	49.0	6
2nd h. 1931	4,000	390	42.3	6
1st h. 1932	4,000	939	47.0	6
2nd h. 1932	4,000	924	46.0	6
1st h. 1933	4,000	844	42.2	6
2nd h. 1933	4,000	274	13.7	5
1st h. 1934	4,000	379	19.0	5
2nd h. 1934	4,000	254	12.7	5
1st h. 1935	4,000	189	9.5	5

The company will be given subsidy totalling ¥19,970,000 spreading over 11 years after its founding. For the first five years especially three years following its founding the subsidy was larger, but since then the amount has been decreasing. In the third year the subsidy totalled ¥3,580,000, but in the 10th year it will come down to ¥770,000 and in the last year it will be reduced to ¥120,000. The company opened aviation service between Tokyo and Toyama. The service to Formosa in January, 1936. The Fukuoka-Shanghai service is on the programme, but this depends on the improvement of Sino-Japanese relations.

REGULAR AIR SERVICE ROUTES IN JAPAN

Route	Distance (In kilometres)	Time Required for Flying	Carrying	Company or Body Operating Route	No. of Flights
Tokyo-Osaka	435	2 h. 30 m.	Passengers, Freight and Mail	Japan Air Transport Co., Ltd.	Twice (both ways) per day (except Sundays)
Osaka-Fukuoka	500	3 h.	,,	,,	,,
Fukuoka-Urusan	240	1 h. 50 m.	,,	,,	Once (both
Urusan-Keijo	310	2 h. 10 m.	,,	,,	ways) per
Keijo-Heijo	200	1 h. 10 m.	,,	,,	day (except)
Heijo-Shingishu	160	1 h.	,,	,,	Sundays)
Shingishu-Dairen	273	1 h. 40 m.	,,	,,	,,
Osaka-Shanghai			,,	,,	Thrice a week
Osaka-Fukuoka	500		,,	,,	Not yet
Fukuoka-Shanghai	950		,,	,,	opened
Tokyo-Toyama	280		,,	,,	During summer
Osaka-Takamatsu	140	1 h. 10 m.	,,	Japan	Once
			,,	Air Trans-	(both
			,,	port Insti-	ways) per
				tute	day (except Sundays)
Takamatsu-Matsuyama	150	1 h. 10 m	,,	,,	,,
Matsuyama-Beppu	130	—	,,	,,	Once a week
Osaka-Shirahama	120	—	,,	,,	3 times a week
Tokyo-Niigata	415	2 d. 30 m.	,,	Tokyo Asahi	3 times a week
Osaka-Toyama / Toyama-Niigata	600	—	,,	,,	During summer
Tokyo-Shimoda	150	55 m.	Passengers and freight	Tokyo Air Transport Co.	Once (both ways) on Monday, Wednesday and Friday
Nagoya-Futami	67	—	,,	Ando Aeronautical Ins.	During summer
Osaka-Matsué	390	—	,,	Japan Sea	Once
Matsué-Oki	102	—	,,	Air Transport	a week

Remarks: Except on the Dairen-Shingishu route of the Japan Air Transport Company, considerable reductions are made for the through rates both for passengers and goods that are carried beyond one fixed section between Dairen and other places.

OPERATION OF AERONAUTICAL COMPANIES IN JAPAN PROPER

April, 1934—March, 1935

	Frequency of Flight	Distance of Flight	Number of Passengers	Quantity of Goods	Quantity of Mailmatters
1933-34	6,552	1,933,290	11,779	51,755 kg.	221,792 kg.
1934-35	6,928	1,892,722	13,211	60,739 ,,	199,247 ,,
1935-36	7,084	2,037,506	11,877	75,643 ,,	265,564 ,,

RESULTS OF FLIGHTS IN JAPAN PROPER

(All kinds of flights are included)

	Frequency of Fliget	Distance of Flight	Hour of Flight	Number of Accidents	Casualties Death	Casualties Wounded	Damages on Machine
1930	30,018	2,346,025	15,499	38	1	4	26
1931	51,370	3,010,260	20,600	63	12	18	57
1932	51,984	2,807,112	19,422	66	14	10	51
1933	53,521	3,153,860	22,104	60	11	23	48
1934	57,922	3,758,042	25,887	52	9	20	45
1935	68,044	4,201,771	28,606	65	9	30	55

Measures to Promote the Aviation Service

Profoundly convinced of the absolute necessity of promoting aviation service under existing conditions the Ministry of Communications intends to make it a national policy to launch a comprehensive aviation programme extending over three years beginning with the fiscal year of 1937-38. This programme covers the perfection and expansion of aviation facilities, training of aviators, encouragement and control of aircraft industry, perfection of both national and international aviation systems, etc.

Perfection and Expansion of Aviation Facilities The aviation facilities of this nation, including aerodromes, grounds for forced landing, aeronautical wireless stations, aerial lighthouses and aviation meteorological observatories, are in such condition that they are far from bearing a favourable comparison with those in various other countries. There are at present less than 10 state-managed flying grounds for civilian aeroplanes in this country, which are all too small and poorly equipped. Even the Tokyo airport, in spite of its being located at the entrance to the capital, is not large enough to enable the easy landing of a large-sized passenger plane such as the Douglas machine which traverses the American Continent.

As a means of rectifying the unsatisfactory situation, the authorities of the Ministry of Communications are endeavouring to perfect the national aviation system through the improvement of existing aviation fields and establishment of new ones in the leading cities throughout the country with the cooperation of the prefectures concerned. They are also making efforts to increase the number of grounds for forced landing and improve and expand the aerial lighthouses and other facilities in order to promote the regular air service.

Training of Aviators While the necessity of training air pilots and aircraft mechanics in order to promote the aviation service is generally recognized, the institutes for such training in this country are still very poorly organized and have few adequate training grounds. To make matters worse, the aeroplanes used by these institutes for exercise purposes are generally of a very inferior quality.

The communications authorities are working for an increase in the number of superior aviators by controlling these training institutes and urging an improvement of their equipments.

Encouragement and Control of the Aircraft Industry From the standpoint of science and technique, the Japanese people are not inferior to any other in producing aircraft of superior order but owing to the smallness of demand for civilian aeroplanes, few efforts have been made to manufacture flying machines of new types. Though some new types have been produced in the country they are chiefly imitations of foreign-made ones. The expensiveness of the production of an original type is held responsible for the slowness in the progress of aircraft industry in the nation. The government authorities are considering measures to encourage the manufacture of experimental aircraft, besides undertaking to direct the aircraft-making activities through its aeronautical research institutes. They aim at enabling the manufacture of aircraft at less cost than at present, so as to increase the demand for aeroplanes. The authorities also deem it essential to control as well as give encouragement to the manufacturers of aeroplanes and makers of aeroplane parts. The leading newspaper publishers in the country are encouraged by means of special grants to buy home-made aeroplanes instead of imported machines for use in their business. As an additional means of encouraging aircraft industry, the authorities also feel the necessity of granting subventions for the promotion of the export trade of home-made aircraft.

International Aviation Besides perfecting the national aviation system by

improving the existing facilities and creating new ones, it is being strongly urged that the air routes linking this land with other countries should be perfected and expanded. It is emphasized that this country should gain the mastery of a regular air line connecting Manchoukuo, China and Europe, another connecting India, the South Sea Islands and Australia, a third connecting Soviet Russia and a fourth connecting the United States of America. Though the difficulty of competing with the already extended influence in the East of America and Europe is conceded, yet such a mastery is deemed essential to the growth of this nation.

Promotion of the Aircraft Industry With a view to furthering the development of the aircraft industry of the country, the government authorities are devising adequate ways and means to encourage the use of aircraft for searching out schools of fish to help fishing industry, to take aerial picutures and conduct aerial surveys, in addition to promoting the regular air transport business. Measures are also under consideration for encouraging the establishment of light aeroplane clubs, glider clubs and similar civilian aviation organizations, as well as for increasing facilities for training in aviation.

Flying Grounds

Public and private flying grounds in Japan are as follows :

Public Grounds The Tokyo Airport. The Tokyo flying ground is situated at Suzuki-Shinden, Haneda-machi, Tokyo, prefecture (Long. 139° 40′ E. and Lat. 35°30′ N.). It is a flying ground on land and covers an area of 528,926 square metres. Its runway extends for 600 metres from east to west and as much from north to south. It slopes at a gradient of 1/500 and is divided into 330,000 square metres of exposed land, 198,000 square metres of grass land and 33,000 square metres of concrete paved zone. The usual direction of wind there is from south to north. In the grounds, there are a signal pole, a weighing beam, a compass correction stand, and a factory.

The Osaka Airport. The Osaka flying ground is situated at Kizugawajiri, Funa-machi, Minato-ku, Osaka (Long. 135° 23′ E. and Lat. 34° 39′ N.). It is a flying ground both on land and water in category and covers an area of approximately 350,000 square metres. Its runway extends for 720 metres from east to west and 400 metres from north to south. The ground inclines in a minor degree from north to south and is overgrown with clover. The gliding range for hydroplanes is the sea outside Osaka harbour. The direction of wind there is generally from east to west. Chief provisions in the ground are a signal-pole, two tower-cranes, and a compass correction stand.

The Fukuoka Flying Ground. The Fukuoka flying ground is situated at Najima, Tadara-mura, Kasuya-gun, Fukuoka prefecture (Long. 130° 26′ E. and Lat. 33° 39′ N.). It is a flying ground for hydroplanes and its gliding range extends over the eastern part of Fukuoka Bay. The direction of wind there is generally from south to north. It is provided with a signal-pole, a crane, a weighing beam for hydroplanes, a compass correction stand, a gliding incline, an anchorage, etc.

The Urusan Flying Ground. The Urusan flying ground is situated at Urusan, Urusan-gun, Keisho-Nando (South Kyongsang-do), Chosen. It is a flying ground on land and its runway extends for 600 metres from east to west and for the same distance from north to south.

The Keijo Flying Ground. The Keijo flying ground is situated at Nyoito, Ryukomen, Koyo-gun, Keikido (Kyongki-do), Chosen. It is a flying ground on land and its runway extends for 600 metres from east to west and for the same distance from north to south.

The Dairen Flying Ground. The Dairen flying ground is situated at Choushuitzu, Kwantung Province. It is a flying ground on land and its runway forms a circle with a 600-metres diameter.

Other public flying grounds are Shingishu, Niigata, Matsué, Toyama, Miyakonojo and Nagoya.

Aeronautical Wireless Stations

The following wireless stations exist with the special object of supplying aeroplanes flying the Tokyo-Dairen and the Osaka-Shanghai routes with weather reports and also of reporting their arrival and departure :

Name	Call Signal	Site
Tokyo Wireless Station	JXS	Otemachi Nichomé, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.
Hakoné „ „	JXH	Segyodaira, Mishima-machi, Takata-gun, Shizuoka prefecture.
Kameyama „	JXK	Ochizaki, Kameda, Kameyama-machi, Suzuga-gun, Miyé prefecture.

Name	Call Signal	Site
Osaka Wireless Station	JXO	Dojima Nichomé, Kita-ku, Osaka.
Fukuoka „ „	JXF	Najima, Tadara-mura, Kasuya-gun, Fukuoka prefecture.
Itsuhara „ „	JXI	Itsuhara-machi, Shimokata-gun Nagano prefecture.
Tomiyé „ „	JXY	Minami Tomiyé-mura, Matsuura-gun, Nagasaki prefecture.
Kagoshima Post Office	JKB	Yamashita-cho, Kagoshima.
Naha „ „	JCX	Tenki-cho, Naha.
Urusan Wireless Station	JBM	Hokumen-Dotei, Urusan, Urusan-gun, Keisho-Nando (South Kyongsang-do), Chosen.
Keijo „ „	JBB	Hommachi 1-chomé, Keijo (Seoul), Keikido (Kyonkido) Chosen.
Dairen Telegraph Office	JDP	Kanbudori, Dairen.
Taihoku „ „	JFQ	Kyomachi, Taihoku, Formosa.

Land Marks for Aviators

In order to secure the safety of aerial navigation, the following places are marked with their names in large white "Kana" letters :

Mark	Place
Numazu	Tsuruta, O-oka-mura, Sunto-gun, Shizuoka prefecture.
Hamamatsu	Matakogawa, Tomizuka-mura, Hamana-gun, Shizuoka prefecture.
Kameyama	Nomura, Kameyama-machi, Suzuka-gun, Miyé prefecture.
Shōdoshima	Shikai-mura, Azuki-gun, Kagawa prefecture.
Imabari	Ohama, Chikami-mura, Koshichi-gun, Ehimé prefecture.
Murozumi	Aburada, Murozumi-machi, Kumaké-gun, Yamaguchi prefecture.
Nakatsu	Tsunoki, Nakatsu-machi, Shimoké-gun, Oita prefecture.
Yukuhashi	Yukibashi, Yukibashi-machi, Kyoto-gun, Fukuoka prefecture.
Urusan	Sansanri, Urusanmen, Urusan-gun, Keisho-Nando (South Kyongsang-do), Chosen.
Kwokan	Nasanri, Kwokanmen, Yeido-gun, Chusei Hokudo (North Choongchong-do), Chosen.
Taiden	Kudori, Gainamen, Taidén-gun, Chusei Nando (South Choongchong-do), Chosen.
Ten-an	Seiseiri, Ten-anmen, Ten-an-gun, Chusei Nando (South Choongchong-do), Chosen.
Shariin	Tetsuzanri, Shriinmen, Hozan-gun, Kwokai-do (Whanghai-do), Chosen.
Heijo (Pyongyang)	Jinkori, Seisenmen, Daido-gun, Heian Nando (South Pyong-an-do), Chosen.
Teishu	Jogaido, Teishumen, Teishu-gun, Heian Hokudo (North Pyong-an-do), Chosen.
Shingishu	Mirokudo, Kojomen, Gishu-gun, Heian Hokudo (North Pyong-an-do), Chosen.
Pitzuwo	Pitzuwo, Kwantung Province.

Civilian Aeroplanes

Civilian aeroplanes on October 1, 1935, for which certificates of airworthiness and registry certificates have been granted, are as follows :

Classification	Description	Number	Total Number
Free from all restrictions	Aeroplanes	33	33
	Hydroplanes	—	
Not qualified for trick flying	Aeroplanes	177	202
	Hydroplanes	25	
Total	Aeroplanes	210	235
	Hydroplanes	25	

Note: 50 planes were damaged by the typhoon of September 21, 1934.

Civilian Aviators in Japan Licensed Japanese civilian aviators on October 1, 1935, were as follows :

Classification	1st class	2nd class	3rd class	Total
Aeroplane and hydroplane pilots	267	332	97	696
Navigators	18	246	—	264
Mechanics	—	—	—	86
Dirigible balloon pilots	—	—	—	1

Aerial Lighthouses According to the first plan of the Department of Communications 19 aerial lighthouses will be established along the Tokyo-Osaka route and the same number along the Osaka-Fukuoka line. On the former four larger ones, at Hakoné (Shizuoka prefecture), Yaizu (Shizuoka), Chita (Aichi) and Ikoma (Nara) were already erected, but these have been changed and 34 lighthouses have been erected between Tokyo and Osaka. The erection of the same number of aerial lighthouses between Osaka and Fukuoka is also comtemplated. In the following list those under the heading Osaka and Fukuoka the first five have been completed :

Tokyo-Osaka Place	Prefecture
Tokyo Airport	Tokyo
Totsuka	Kanagawa
Tsujido	,,
Hiratsuka	,,
Kōzu	,,
Manazuru	,,
Yoguratake	,,
Kurakakéyama	Shizuoka
Jikkoku	,,
Gotemba	,,
Numazu	,,
Tagonoura	,,
Miho	,,
Yaizu	,,
Kuno	,,
Kanaya	,,
Fukuroi	,,
Hamamatsu	,,
Toyohashi	Aichi
Manzu	,,
Goyu	,,
Chitamotomiyayama	,,
Akeno	Miye
Chisezaki	,,
Seki	,,
Kata	,,
Reisanji	,,
Tsuge	,,
Uyeno	,,
Okawara	Kyoto
Kasagi	,,
Kizu	,,
Ikomayama	Nara
Osaka	Osaka

Osaka-Fukuoka Place	Prefecture
Osaka	Osaka
Suma	Hyogo
Murozu	,,
Tamatsu	Okayama
Hayashima	,,
Kasaoka	,,
Hachigaminé	Hiroshima
Kamikitagata	,,
Minaga	,,
Kumanoato	,,
Hiroshima	,,
Iwakuni	Yamaguchi
Takamori	,,
Kushihama	,,
Nakaseki	,,
Ubé	,,
Karita	Fukuoka
Wakamatsu	,,
Kanegasaki	,,
Hiyamizutogé	,,

Organizations connected with Aviation

The Aviation Council This body is under the direct control of the Minister of Education and returns reports on matters submitted by him ; it also deliberates on important matters concerning the study of the basic theories of flying-machines and makes recommendations to the Cabinet Ministers concerned. It is composed of a president and 20 councillors, and, in case of particular need, councillors ad interim are appointed. The councillors are the Vice-Ministers of the Departments of War, Marine, Education, and Communications, as well as those who have deep knowledge and wide experience, while the councillors ad interim are selected from among scholars and experts.

The Imperial Aeronautical Association The Imperial Aeronautical Association was established in 1913 with the object of encouraging and protecting the development of science and art pertaining to aviation and of flying machines and their parts and accessories as well as diffusing knowledge of, and culti-

vating taste for, aerial flight among the people. A sum of ¥500,000 granted from the Privy Purse was made a foundation-fund, and, with interest accruing from it and with receipts from dues paid by its members (¥2.00 per member), the Association carries on its undertaking, the principal items of which are presenting persons who fall victims to aviation and accidents connected thereto with condolence money, awarding bounties to persons connected with aviation, and giving lectures, cinema shows, and exhibitions concerning aviation. It also publishes a monthly journal containing aviation news at home and abroad. It has an Imperial Prince as patron and a board of directors of 30 members, including a president, two vice-presidents, and a managing-director. In addition, it has five auditors and over 105 councillors, from whom directors are elected. Its offices are located at No. 7, Sakurada Hongo-cho, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

The International Aviation Commission This Commission is a permanent body formed in accordance with the provisions of the Treaty relating to Aviation, and makes or receives proposals bearing on alterations and modifications of the provisions of the treaty to and from the signatory Powers, and reports to them such alterations and modifications as are adopted.

The International Aviation Federation This Federation consists of various corporations relating to aviation in different countries and chiefly aims at the progress of civil aviation through mutual consultation and also the promotion of mutual facilities. Besides, it undertakes recognition of world flying records. The Imperial Aeronautical Association represents Japan in the Federation.

The Aeronautical Institute The Aeronautical Institute was first established at Etchujima in Tokyo in April, 1918 by taking over the business of the Commission on Investigation of Aeronautics organized in the Tokyo Imperial University in April, 1916, with the object of making researches in aeroplanes, airships, balloons, motors, aviation psychology and other matters concerning aviation. Subsequently, in the earthquake and fire of 1923, the institute was destroyed and was newly constructed at Komaba in the grounds of the Department of Agriculture of Tokyo Imperial University in 1927. It is divided into the departments of air pockets, aeroplanes, physics, chemistry, metallurgy and material, and ranks first in the world in point of equipment.

Training Institutes Below are lists of institutes established for the training of aviators :

PRIVATE INSTITUTES AND SCHOOLS FOR THE TRAINING OF CIVILIAN AVIATORS

Name	Site	Representative
Sakai Seaplane Flying School	Shin-Koyenchi, Ohama, Sakai, Osaka prefecture.	Choichi Inouyé
Japan Flying School	Tachikawa-machi, Tokyo prefecture.	Tamotsu Aiba
Hamamatsu Aeroplane Works, Ltd.	Tomuzuka-mura, Hamana-gun, Shizuoka prefecture.	Koshiro Irié
Dai-ichi Aeronautical School	Funabashi-machi, Chiba prefecture.	Kojiro Munezato
Nagoya Flying School	Obatagahara, Higashi-Kasuga-gun, Aichi prefecture.	Fukuhi Mihara
Ando Flying Institute	Shin-Maiko, Asahi-mura, Chita-gun, Aichi prefecture.	Kozo Ando
Japan Light Aeroplane Club	Saginuma, Tanuma-machi, Chiba prefecture.	Sanji Narahara
Tokyo Flying School	Susaki, Fukagawa-ku, Tokyo.	Tatsugoro Yendo
Teikoku Flying School	Tsudanuma-machi, Chiba prefecture.	Kikuo Suzuki,
Asia Aeronautical School	Susaki, Fukagawa-ku, Tokyo.	Kintaro Iinuma
Kokusui Volunteer Air Corps	Tatetsu, Osaka	Ryoichi Sasakawa
Tanaka Aeronautical Institute	Susaki, Fukagawa, Tokyo	Fujio Tanaka
Miyajima Aeronautical Institute	Tsuzumigahama, Hiroshima	Shigemi Yemi

FLYING MACHINE AND MOTOR MANUFACTURERS

Aeroplane Manufacturers

Name	Site of Factory
Mitsubishi Heavy Industry Co., Ltd.	Oyé-machi, Minami-ku, Nagoya
Kawasaki Shipyard, Ltd.	Higashijiriiké, Hyogo, Kobé
Aichi Time-Piece and Electric Apparatus Co., Ltd.	Funagata, Sennen-cho, Minami-ku, Nagoya
Nakajima Aeroplane Works	Ota-machi, Nitta-gun, Gumma prefecture
Ishikawajima Aeroplane Works, Ltd.	Tachikawa-machi, Tokyo prefecture
Kawanishi Aeroplane Co., Ltd.	Hyogo.
Tokyo Gas & Electric Industry Co., Ltd.	No. 100-1 chome, Iriarai, Omori-ku, Tokyo

Motor Manufacturers

Mitsubishi Heavy Industry Co., Ltd.	Oyé-machi, Minami-ku, Nagoya
Kawasaki Shipyard, Ltd.	Higashijiriiké, Hyogo, Kobé
Tokyo Gas and Electric Industry Co., Ltd.	Iriyamazu, Iriarai-machi, Yebara-ku, Tokyo
Tokyo Factory of the Nakajima Aeroplane Works, Ltd.	Ogikubo, Suginami-ku, Tokyo
Aichi Time-Piece and Electric Apparatus Co., Ltd.	No. 15 Funagata, Sennen-cho, Minami-ku, Nagoya

Balloon and Dirigible Manufacturers

Fujikura Industrial Co., Ltd.	No. 132 Osaki-machi, Yebara-ku, Tokyo
Tokyo E. C. Industrial Co., Ltd.	No. 437 Ikejiri-machi, Setagaya-ku, Tokyo

CHAPTER XXVI

SEA TRANSPORTATION

Historical Background

The dawn of Japan's history is associated with maritime activities. The national mythology is rich in stories of sea adventures. Later authentic records fully demonstrate the energy and spirit of the early Japanese, who had to fight their way through stormy seas in the primitive craft of those days. The period covered by the latter half of the sixteenth and the beginning of the seventeenth century marks the golden age of marine activity in Old Japan. This was in a great measure due to the stimulus received by the natives through the appearance of Portuguese and other foreign ships in Japanese waters. Japanese vessels not only were in evidence in South China and the South Sea Islands, but cruised the Pacific as far as Mexico and fought their way through the Indian Ocean and round the Cape of Good Hope to Europe. Military rulers encouraged maritime enterprises and many large vessels were built. Thus the shipping trade between Japan and the South Seas and India, carried on under letters patent and numbering no less than two hundred ships at one time, engaged in commerce with twenty different countries, which were eventually dotted with regular Japanese colonies.

Ban on Shipping Activities Unfortunately, while the maritime prosperity of Japan was thus making progress by leaps and bounds, the Tokugawa Shogunate took the drastic measure of secluding the country and forbidding all foreign intercourse. Its first act was to place a strict ban on the propagation of Christianity in 1613. Subsequently, in 1634, all commercial relations with foreign countries were stopped, and in 1636 the construction of large ocean-going vessels was forbidden. For a period of more than two centuries thereafter the ocean trade of Japan was forcibly suspended.

The Well-timed Visit Commodore Perry's visit in 1853 was opportune, inasmuch as by this time many Japanese amongst the intelligent classes were dimly aware of conditions outside Japan, and the Shogun's Government, amid much confusion of opinion, took a firm step and signed the treaty. This event was followed in 1854 by the conclusion of similar treaties with the leading nations of Europe. Commercial intercourse with foreign countries was thus resumed, and the time-worn restrictions on navigation and ship-building were withdrawn. Then was formed the nucleus of the present mercantile marine of Japan. The Shogun's Government, finding the old Japanese methods of ship-building and navigation utterly out-of-date, promptly decided upon introducing the ideas of the outside world. For this purpose, students were sent abroad, while foreign experts were engaged to work in Japan. A ship-building yard was established in Yokosuka, and a naval school in Nagasaki.

After the Meiji Restoration

The First Steamship Co. In the third year of Meiji the Government promulgated the Mercantile Marine Regulations. In the same year, the pioneer steamship concern was inaugurated and a new leaf in the history of the Japanese mercantile marine was turned. The first company to be incorporated was the Kwaiso Kaisha, or Forwarding and Transport Company, which was later re-named the Teikoku Yusen Joki Kaisha (Imperial Mail Steamship Co.). Mampei Kimura was one of the chief promoters. A regular service was maintained between Tokyo and Yokohama and between Osaka and Kobé. Yataro Iwasaki, founder of the Mitsubishi interests, incorporated a shipping company called the Tsukumo Shokai, later renamed the Mitsubishi Shokai, in 1870 and inaugurated a regular passenger service between Tokyo and Kochi in Shikoku, from which place Iwasaki hailed. Three steamers formerly owned by Lord Yamanouchi, former feudal lord of Tosa, were employed in the service. When the Japanese Government sent a punitive force against Formosa in 1874, all foreign steamship companies interested in the Far Eastern shipping trade declared neutrality and rejected the Government's offer to charter their ships. Perplexed at this, the Government ordered the Mitsubishi Shokai and Teikoku Joki to offer their ships, and thus the transportation of troops was

smoothly effected.

The N. Y. K. Comes into Existence Shigenobu Okuma, then Minister of Finance, and Toshimichi Okubo, then Home Minister, made efforts to organize the Yubin Kisen Mitsubishi Kaisha after the termination of the expedition. The two above-mentioned firms were dissolved and the Government's ships were handed over to the new company. The Mitsubishi interests made large profits under Government protection. Kaoru Inouyé and Admiral Tsugumichi Saigo, who were Okuma's political opponents, organized a corporation to rival the Mitsubishi's as a means of overthrowing Okuma and ordered, in 1882, Eiichi Shibusawa, Takashi Masuda and others to form a semi-Government shipping company under the name of the Kyodo Unyu Kaisha. Keen competition later ensued between the two and threatened to lead them to ruin. Consequently, the Government ordered them to effect a merger. In 1885 the Nippon Yusen Kaisha was incorporated through the investment of ¥5,000,000 by the Mitsubishi and ¥6,000,000 by the Kyodo Unyu. At the time of founding, the company owned 58 steamers with an aggregate of 68,700 tons. The Pacific Mail Steamship Company of America was then operating a regular line between Yokohama and Shanghai with the s. s. Golden Age, the Costa Rica and two other ships, all of which were purchased by the Japanese Government in 1874 for the transportation of Japanese soldiers on the expedition to Formosa. Iwasaki waged a freight war with the Pacific Mail at that time and finally purchased these four ships for $8,000,000. This price included the Shanghai wharf now owned by the Nippon Yusen Kaisha at Whampoo.

The O. S. K. About this time the Osaka Shosen Kaisha was established in Osaka. It was then a small concern maintaining services in the Inland Sea of Japan, but later developed into a large company. The Nippon Yusen Kaisha, while maintaining the services originally inaugurated by its predecessors, opened new lines to Korea and North China, and one between Shanghai and Vladivostok; and in 1891, it inaugurated the service between Kobé and Manila and commenced to despatch occasional ships to Australia. In 1892, the N. Y. K. Japan-Bombay service was opened, the first regular Japanese steamship connection with a far-away foreign country. The rapid progress of Japanese shipping is attested by the fact that in the beginning of 1891 the total tonnage owned in Japan was 100,000, and one year later this figure had increased by 10,000.

The Sino-Japanese War During the Sino-Japanese War of 1894–5, when the greater part of Japanese shipping space was requisitioned for transport purposes, a large number of steamers were purchased or chartered by Japanese owners and Japan, having complete command of the sea, was able to maintain its established oversea services. At the close of the war Japan found that its merchant marine had grown by 100 per cent compared with the pre-war figures. Meanwhile the Nippon Yusen Kaisha lost no time in consolidating its established lines and in 1896 it inaugurated three trunk lines, viz., the Yokohama-London-Antwerp line, the Hongkong-Japan-Seattle line and the Yokohama-Manila-Australia line. In 1898 the Tokyo Kisen Kaisha was established, and it maintained a regular fast service between Hongkong and San Francisco via Japanese ports with three fine new passenger ships. The Osaka Shosen Kaisha opened a new line on the Yangtzekiang in 1898. In the following year, this company opened a line from Formosa to Hongkong, via Amoy and Swatow. The increase in Japanese tonnage at that time was remarkable. Whereas, at the end of 1897, it amounted to only 270,000 tons, it suddenly increased at the end of 1898 to 477,000 tons, the ratio of growth continuing, until the gross tonnage of steamers of 1,000 tons and over at the end of 1903 amounted to 521,000.

Foreigners' Services Mention must not be omitted of the valuable contribution made by foreign experts to the development of the Japanese mercantile marine. Through the remarkable foresight of Iwasaki, not only foreign captains, officers, engineers and pursers were freely engaged afloat, but numerous experts,business and technical, were employed on shore to conduct the business of the Nippon Yusen Kaisha. A large number of these foreigners remained in the company's service for a considerable time after its formation. Foremost among them were A. R. Brown, Alexander Macmillan, T. H. James, J. W. Ekstrand, W. H. Hasewell and Hector Frazer, whose names are still familiar to old timers in the Far Eastern shipping trade.

One noteworthy fact in connection with the development of the shipping business is the advance made by Japanese mariners. Japan imported the science of navigation from the West and early in the Meiji Era the captains, chief engineers and mates were mostly

foreigners. When the Nippon Yusen Kaisha was first organized in 1884 the company owned 57 steamers with a total tonnage of 60,000 and employed about 174 foreigners, the number being increased to 224 during the Sino-Japanese War. During the Russo-Japanese War Japanese mariners were the recipients of much praise, and their credit was greatly raised. After the war, in 1907, the number of foreigners was reduced to 87 and by 1920 there was not a single foreign officer in a Japanese ship.

The Russo-Japanese War The Russo-Japanese War broke out early in 1904, and Japan found herself compelled to undertake transport work of the biggest magnitude ever known in her history. This situation naturally created the necessity of purchasing additional tonnage, with the result that at the end of 1906 the total merchant marine reached a little more than one million gross tons, and Japan thus ranked sixth among the great maritime Powers of the world. Through the expansion of trade after the war, sufficient employment was found for these steamers. The Tokyo Kisen Kaisha opened its South American service before the war terminated. The Osaka Shosen Kaisha started in 1909 its Far East-Puget Sound service. Elsewhere the expansion was also pronounced, for in 1907 four large Japanese companies trading on the Yangtze-kiang pooled their interests and formed the Nisshin Kisen Kaisha (Japan-China Steamship Company) and the Osaka Shosen Kaisha in the meantime inaugurated the Tsuruga-Vladivostok and the Osaka-Kobé-Moji-Dairen lines. The general slump in the shipping trade which prevailed all over the world during this period was felt in Japan, but the country was not so badly hit as to prevent the further growth of its shipping, for, at the end of the year when the World War broke out, the total gross tonnage of ships flying the Japanese flag was 1,590,000, of which 1,310,000 tons represented ships of more than 1,000 gross tons each. Turning to the share which Japanese merchant shipping contributed to its foreign commerce, it was found that, whereas, prior to the Sino-Japanese war (1894–5), only 10 per cent of inports and exports were carried by Japanese ships, the proportion increased to 40 per cent after the Russo-Japanese War (1904–5), and just before the commencement of the World War, it had grown to 48 per cent.

The World War An extensive dearth of tonnage and the consequent pressing demand for space all over the world, caused by the World War, created a unique situation for Japanese merchant shipping, so much so that the total gross tonnage suddenly swelled by a million tons within a brief period and the yearly shipbuilding capacity increased from 50,000 tons to a half million gross tons. The share contributed by Japanese vessels to the transportation of imports and exports increased to nearly 80 per cent, the remaining 20 per cent being carried by foreign ships. Many new shipping services to all corners of the globe were opened one after another, and, besides rendering distinguished service to the cause of the Allies, the Japanese mercantile marine maintained a regular fortnightly Japan-England mail service, and despatched extra ships to European waters during the war. Furthermore, in response to the call of the United States after that country participated in the War a group of Japanese shipowners delivered a number of steamers aggregating 150,000 tons to the United States Government on charter at rates considerably lower than those which shipowners at that time could have obtained in the open market.

The inevitable aftermath of the war abnormalities—shipping depression—set in early in 1920, and this is still being felt all over the world. Japanese shipping in common with that of all other nations is undergoing a severe test of its perseverance and fortitude. Despite this Japanese shipping has considerably increased. The Tokyo Kisen Kaisha transferred all of its Pacific ships to the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, by which the latter became one of the greatest shipping companies of the world.

Working Agreements

Japan's three largest shipping concerns, the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, the Osaka Shosen Kaisha and the Kinkai Yusen Kaisha, the last-mentioned being a subsidiary of the first, entered into an agreement in April, 1931, on shipping co-operation as a countermeasure for the shipping depression. The basic principles involved in the agreement were the mutual respect of services operated by them, the readjustmnt of steamship routes, the extension of the pooling system and co-operative management. The agreement is to last for 10 years. As the result of this agreement, the Nippon Yusen Kaisha abolished its South American Atlantic service, leaving its operation to the Osaka Shosen Kaisha. The Osaka Shosen Kaisha discontinued the operation

of its Puget Sound line, leaving the entire interest of the service to the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, and the Osaka Shosen Kaisha entrusted the management of its North European line west of Suez to the Nippon Yusen Kaisha. The mutual use of agents, joint acceptance of passenger and goods transportation, joint utilization of shipping, land and sea equipment, and the joint purchase of fuel and ships' materials were agreed on among them.

Government Policies

While the means of improving our shipping business are necessarily diverse and cannot be decided simply and uniformly, the Ministry of Communications considers it most effective under the prevailing conditions both at home and abroad to adopt the following measures which are provided for as forming one of the major national policies by the budget estimates presented to the 70th session of the Imperial Diet :

1. Encouragement of the Construction of Superior Ships. It has of late been a common phenomenon of the shipping circles of the world to plan to turn tramp steamers into regular liners. This tendency is inevitably bringing about a demand for superior ships. The shipping policies of various nations also show that efforts are being made to replace superannuated "uneconomical" vessels with new superior ones.

The term "superior" does not necessarily mean of large size and high speed but signifies that vessels should be economically superior and strong in competition with others considering the conditions of the routes on which they are placed. A glance at the various routes established by Japanese shipping interests will reveal that the equipments should be improved and perfected by employing superior ships in not a few cases. The fact that the Japanese fleet of freighters in service between the Far East and New York has of late been successfully competing with various foreign fleets is also taken as a proof of the necessity of encouraging the construction of more of these superior vessels.

Such being the situation, the Ministry of Communications has worked out a plan to grant a subvention for the construction of superior ships having a tonnage of more than 6,000 tons and a speed of more than 19 knots each. This plan aimed to encourage the construction of 150,000 tons of passenger ships and 150,000 tons of freighters during the period of four years commencing with the 1937-38 fiscal year.

2. Encouragement of Shipping on Foreign Routes. Japanese ships have so far seldom been put in service between foreign ports although their activities in both the passenger and freight services between Japan and foreign countries have been such that no foreign vessels can compete with them. As much as 70 per cent of the foreign trade of this country is carried on by means of Japanese ships, the rest being divided among foreign ships.

In order to avoid inciting other nations to adopt and strengthen the policy for "transport of domestic goods by domestic ships" in retaliation, should the share of Japanese ships in the foreign trade of this nation be increased, it is considered advisable to effect the necessary shipping expansion of the nation through the development of foreign routes on the basis of the principle of mutual liberty with foreign ships. However, it is recognized to be exceedingly difficult for Japanese ships to develop foreign routes owing to the firm hold on these routes of the vessels of other countries. In view of this fact, the Government undertakes to give a subsidy for the encouragement of shipping on foreign routes.

The plan worked out by the Ministry of Communications is to grant subventions to ships in service between foreign ports for over 6 consecutive months during the period of five years beginning with the 1937-38 fiscal year. The Ministry intends to have 150,000 tons of ships placed on foreign routes during the first year of the period and 200,000 tons in subsequent years.

3. Financial aid for Shipbuilding. The financial facilities for shipping enterprises in this country are very unsatisfactory compared with those in other nations where the importance of maritime banking institutions has long been recognized in the form of legislation or by other means.

As yet there are no specific banking institutions in this country which are established especially in the interests of the shipping business, and bankers on account of their bitter experiences in connection with the constant fluctuations in the prices of ships immediately following the European War, still regard making advances on mortgage of ships as running a great risk. The Government is therefore endeavouring to promote the supply of funds to shipping business along with its policy for the encouragement of the construction of superior ships by lowering interest rates for advances on mortgage of ships, as well as to satisfy the general demands

of the shipping business men. The Ministry of Communications has formulated a plan in cooperation with the Ministry of Finance to make a total sum of ¥100,000,000 available as advance and the interest rate is fixed at 3.7 per cent, of which 1 per cent is to be borne by the Government which also undertakes to bear 70 per cent of any loss which the banker may sustain for making such advances.

4. Training of Seamen and Facilities for Testing and Experimenting. The adoption of the foregoing measures necessitates the training of more superior seamen and the establishment of facilities for testing and experimenting on ships. The Ministry of Communications has decided to grant a subsidy to the institutions for the training of seamen and to the establishments of testing facilities of ships and machines during the period of five years commencing with the 1937–38 fiscal year.

The Law to Control Steamship Routes The Law to Control the Steamship Routes passed the 69th session of the Diet, and regulations pertaining to its enforcement were issued later, and the law was enforced on August 1, 1936. The fundamental object of the law is to prevent unreasonable competition among steamship companies so as to promote the healthy development of sea transportation business in Japan, by establishing control over the operation of the routes. Ever since ocean transportation made an appearance upon the international stage for the first time early in the Meiji Era the Government has given protection to steamship companies, which have also been eager to develop themselves by their own accord along with the general industrial development of the country. This was especially true during the World War at which time it progressed by leaps and bounds. At present the country holds 5,000,000 tons of steamers and steamship lines spread over all the oceans, making Japan the third greatest seafaring nation in the world.

The reason that Japanese sea transportation made such a wonderful development was largely due to the fact that perfect freedom was given to the shipping business. In a country like Japan which was behind most other countries in this respect it was both necessary and wise to give the industry a free hand to enable it to develop quickly in line with other rapidly expanding industries and leave it without restrictions, to make profits by the spur of free competition.

Fortunately this laissez-faire policy coincided with the principle of the freedom of the sea, and so the sea transportation of Japan has attained its present prosperity.

But the economic power of shipping companies has made a rapid increase and the sphere of their activity has become very complex, so that their interests conflict, one with another, and each company is attempting to conquer its rivals by resorting to ruthless competition. Of course this may have had the good result of combining out some weak enterprisers, but such warfare injures all parties, causing waste of capital and diminishing the rate of development. Moreover, nationalism seems to be the watchword of the times and each country adheres to the principle of using its own steamers. In such circumstances, home companies must act as a unit in order to maintain Japan's supremacy in the international market and to overcome foreign competition.

Shipping companies in Japan, being aware of this situation, have organized a union to avoid the evils arising out of the situation. However, in the event of the union's inability to attain this object by itself, the State should take part in preventing shipping companies from goint too far in schambling after profits by using the power vested in it, and encourage the industry to run its business on a rational basis under well-regulated control. This is the reason that the law has come into existence.

Exercising in this manner a certain amount of state control over the sea transportation industry may appear at the first glance to be opposed to the policy which has long had "laissez-faire" as its traditional ideal. But the freedom of enterprise must always be subject to prevailing conditions to a certain extent. This law does not by any means deny the principle of the freedom of the sea transportation industry. Only when the domestic companies compete with one another on the same waters in disregard of the amount of traffic and space the State will interfere with the authority vested in it The gist of the Law to Control Steamship Routes is as follows :

(1) The law puts the promotion of Japanese sea transportation abroad as its main objective. But as the unification of the coastwise lines and the adjustment of the capital invested cannot be neglected for strengthening the power of her shipping business the law is to be applied to all shipping business run by the subjects, whether individuals or legal persons, of the Em-

pire in oceanic and coastwise shipping as well as to the following near-sea transportation :

(a) Districts where there are routes between Japan proper and Korea.

(b) Districts where there are routes between the mainland of Japan and Hokkaido, or Saghalien.

(c) Other districts where there are routes subsidized by the Government.

(2) In order to allow a healthy development of the sea transportation industry in Japan and to obviate ruthless competition as far as possible the Minister of Communications is authorized to resort to the following measures :

(a) First to advise the companies to stop competition.

(b) If they do not listen to this advice or if the advice proves inadequate to get any result, to order them to come to some agreement as to their routes.

(c) If they cannot come to any such agreement, to prohibit or restrict the management of the routes.

(3) The Governmental control of the route may result in the monopoly of a route by a certain company with its subsequent evils, and when the Minister of Communications considers the freights or other items in the management of shipping business on the route are against the public interest, he is authorized to issue orders to rectify them and to safeguard the interests of the general public.

(4) (b) and (c) in (2) and the order in (3) being important administrative procedure they will be enforced only after they have been fully discussed by the Commission for the Control of the Steamship Routes, except where secrecy is required for military or diplomatic reasons.

The organization and power of the Commission for the Control of the Steamship Routes is fixed by an ordinance, according to which the members of the Commission consist of those who are authorities in this field : namely, the Minister of Communications, who is made the chairman of the Commission ex officio, and fifteen men from among high officials of the Departments concerned, men of attainment and experience, persons engaged in the sea transportation business, and representatives of the freighters.

(5) This law does not apply to the shipping business carried on by foreign interests.

Encouragement of Shipping The new measures which are to be carried out by the Ministry of Communications for the encouragement of sea transportation business are (1) to subsidize those ships which continue service over 6 months' ocean transportation for the coming 5 years beginning in the fiscal year of 1937–38 so as to realize an oversea placement of 150,000 tons in the first year and 200,000 tons in the following year ; (2) to allow a loan of ¥100,000,000 under reasonable conditions to help ship owners in improving their ships and overseas transportation activities ; and (3) to subsidize schools for training seamen and to establish facilities for the examination of ships.

There are nine steamship companies working overseas and domestic services under governmental subsidy. These concerns are the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, the Osaka Shosen Kaisha, and Nisshin Kisen Kaisha, the Nanyo Yusen Kaisha. the Kinkai Yusen Kaisha, the Kokusai Kisen Kaisha, the Kita Nippon Kisen Kaisha, the Harada Kisen Kaisha and the Kuribayashi Shosen Kaisha. The subsidy is paid to these companies for a period of one year from April to March in most cases, while in certain cases the subsidy runs over a period of three years.

The N.Y.K. Yokohama-London service has Kobé, Shanghai, Honkong. Singapore, Colombo, Suez, Port Said and Marseilles as intermediate ports of call. Its San Francisco line has Honolulu as the only intermediate port of call on both outward and homeward (eastward-bound) trips. On the westward-bound trip it has Nagasaki, Shanghai, and Hongkong. The company's Yokohama - Seattle (eastward - bound) service has Victoria or Vancouver as ports of call and its westward-bound service has Kobé, Moji and Shanghai as ports of call. Its South American West Coast line between Yokohama and Valparaiso (eastward-bound) has Hololulu, Manzanillo, or Salina Cruz, Callao and Iquique as ports of call and its westward-bound line has as ports of call Kobé, Moji and Hongkong. The N.Y.K. Yokohama-Melbourne service has as ports of call Kobé, Nagasaki, Hongkong, Manila, Davao, Thursday Island, Brisbane and Sydney both ways.

The O. S. K. South American East Coast line (Yokohama-Buenos Aires) for its outward bound trip has as ports of call Kobé, Nagasaki, Hongkong, Singapore, Cape Town, Rio de Janeiro and Santos. When homeward bound the line has Santos, Rio de Janeiro and Cristobal as ports of call. The O. S. K. African East Coast line operates between Kobé and Cape Town and on its outward bound trip has Moji, Hong-

kong, Singapore, Colombo, Mombasa, Zanzibar, Dar-Es-Salaam, Beira, Loureço Marques and Durban. When homeward bound the line has Durban, Lourenço Marques, Mombasa, Zanzibar, Singapore and Moji as ports of call. These are the most important steamship lines operated under Government subsidy.

The Kokusai Kisen Kaisha, owner of motor and steam vessels aggregating 300,000 tons deadweight, has reached new heights of prosperity under the able management of Mr. S. Kurokawa, President, the net profit for the year ending December 31, 1936, having amounted to over ¥4,160,000. During the last few years seven speedy motor vessels have been built and placed in commission on the Orient-New York express service, whilst three 19-knotters were completed early in 1936. The latter have been allocated to the newly inaugurated Far East-North Europe fast service, which maintains four-weekly sailings in conjunction with two new freighters of the Nippon Yusen Kaisha. Furthermore, five motor and turbine super-freighters of about 9,200 tons deadweight each are now on order with the shipbuilders here in Japan and will all be completed before the end of the year 1938. The Kokusai Line, which was mainly engaged in tramp shipping before, now maintains several regular services of international significance, thus contributing much towards Japan's balance of foreign payments, which fact is worthy of particular mention at this moment when the importance of invisible exports cannot be too heavily stressed.

In addition, the Nanyo Yusen Kaisha operates under Government subsidy the South Sea line between Kobé and Sourabaya, Java, calling at Macassar, Sourabaya, Samarang and Batavia on the outward trip. Ships sail direct for Kobé on the homeward trip. The Nisshin Kisen Kaisha operates the China Coast line between Shanghai and Canton as the southern line and between Shanghai and Tientsin or Taku as the northern line. The company also maintains the Shanghai-Hankow line with Chenkiang and Nanking as ports of call, the Hankow-Ichang line with Shasi as port of call, the Hankow-Hsiangtan line with Changsha as port of call, Hankow-Changteh line, and the Ichang-Chungching line, all these five lines being known as the Yangtze River services.

The Kinkai Yusen Kaisha, affiliated with the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, operates a subsidized regular service between Kobé and Tientsin or Taku during the winter with Moji as port of call and also the Yokohama-Newchwang (Yingkow) service with Nagoya as port of call both under Government subsidy. It also runs a regular service between Hakodaté and Odomari in Karafuto. The N. Y. K., O.S.K. and Harada Kisen Kaisha jointly maintain a Kobé-Tsingtao regular steamer service. The Tsuruga-Viladivostok regular service is operated by the Kita Nippon Kisen Kaisha, which is affiliated with the Osaka Shosen Kaisha. The Kuribayashi Shosen Kaisha, Hokkaido, operates a regular service between Hakodaté and Petropavlovsk in Kamchatka seven times a year during the warm season. Stores and other supplies of daily necessity are carried by ships on the service for Japanese fishermen engaged in the Kamchatka fisheries. A regular connecting service between Aomori and Muroran is maintained by the Kita Nippon.

Nippon Yusen Kaisha regular liners sailing between Japan and Europe call on their outward trips at Istanbul and Beirut more than twice every three month, those sailing between the same places call on their outward and homeward trips at Piraeus more than twice every three months, and those sailing between Japan and the United States call on their homeward trips at Havana in Cuba once every two months, all under Government subsidy.

Open Ports The open ports in Japan proper are Yokohama, Kobé, Niigata, Ebisu, Osaka, Nagasaki, Hakodaté, Shimizu, Takétoyo, Nagoya, Yokkaichi, Uno, Onomichi-Itozaki, Tokuyama, Imabari, Shimonoseki, Hagi, Moji, Wakamatsu, Hakata, Karatsu, Suminoé, Kutchinotsu, Miiké, Misumi, Kagoshima, Izuhara, Naha, Hamada, Sakai, Miyazu, Tsuruga, Nano, Fushiki, Funakawa, Aomori, Otaru, Nemuro, Kushiro, Muroran, Sasuna, Shishimi, Miiké, Shiogama and Kamaishi.

Promotion of Seamen's Welfare

There are two important organizations for the promotion of seamen's welfare. They are subsidized by the Central Government. They are the Seamen's Aid Society of Japan and the Imperial Society of Life-Saving service.

Shipping Business and Japan's Income

Japan's foreign trade has continued to show an import excess since 1919. In her invisible trade the inflow of foreign capital is practically nil because of unfavourable international economic relations while investment by the Japanese in enterprises in Manchoukuo is continually increasing, and there seems to be

no other way of turning the balance of international payments in favour of Japan than by increasing exports and ordinary income in invisible trade. The rate of increase of exports, however, has began to lessen since 1935, and the income from sea transportation which has been the main stay in invisible trade in all years will become more important in the settlement of Japan's international payments. The balance of Japan's international payments through visible and invisible trade in the past 3 years is as follows :

	1934	1935 (In ¥1,000)	1936
Foreign trade: Excess of imports of merchandise	94,559	15,196	130,175
Excess of exports of silver	13,137	146,805	28,465
Excess of Imports	81,423	—	101,710
Exports	—	131,609	—
Invisible foreign trade: Excess of ordinary receipts	144,333	178,213	303,400
Excess of extraordinary payments	183,441	371,539	183,100
Excess of Receipts	—	—	120,300
Payment	39,108	193,326	—
(Figures for 1936 are estimates by Yokohama Specie Bank.)			
Balance: Excess of receipts	—	—	18,590
Excess of payments	120,530	61,711	—

The foreign trade of Japan in 1934 resulted in an excess of imports to the value of ¥81,000,000 including silver bullion, and the invisible trade in an excess of payments to the amount of ¥39,000,000. In 1935, export trade showed a great increase while exports of silver bullion also increased as an effect of the American silver policy, and the balance resulted in an excess of exports to the value of ¥130,000,000 ; but in invisible trade investments to Manchoukuo and other extraordinary payments increased and international payments exceeded ¥61,000,000 over receipts. In 1936 an import excess of ¥101,000,000 was more than covered by the excess of receipts to the amounts of ¥120,000,000. In the international payments invisible foreign trade plays an important part in national economy, ordinary receipts especially having the most important bearing on it.

The ordinary accounts of 1935 invisible foreign trade (given in full in the chapter on foreign trade) ended in an excess of receipts of 178,213,000 as follows :

	1935	1936
Receipts	¥820,553,000	740,375,000
Payments	642,340,000	596,042,000
Excess of receipts	178,213,000	144,333,000

Increase was shown both in receipts and payments and the excess of receipts increased by ¥33,000,000 over that of the previous year. It is largely due to the increase of receipts through sea transportation business and profits from undertakings abroad. Of the sea transportation accounts in the invisible foreign trade in 1935 the receipts and payments of items which have to do directly with international sea transportation business are as follows :

Receipts in connection with shipping	1935	1934 (In ¥1,000)
Freight for import merchandise	107,686	88,719
Freight for export merchandise	84,493	70,913
Freight for transportation of foreign goods between foreign countries	55,605	54,131
Foreign passenger fares	26,312	17,059
Hire of Japanese vessels	521	304
Miscellaneous receipts of shipping companies	3,135	2,159
Total	277,752	233,285

Receipts in connection with shipping	1935	1934
	(In ¥1,000)	
Payments in connection with shipping		
Office expenses abroad	9,452	8,587
Hire of foreign vessels	10,715	6,725
Equipments	23,673	23,351
Repairs	1,168	1,962
Loading and tonnage dues	63,803	57,890
Miscellaneous payments of shipping companies	16,709	8,391
Total	125,520	106,906
Excess of receipts	152,232	126,379

Both receipts and payments from shipping business in 1935 greatly increased and the net profit exceeded ¥25,800,000 (20 per cent) over that of the previous year. The relation of the net profit obtained through shipping business and the excess of receipts in the ordinary account of Japan's invisible foreign trade since 1923 has been as follows :

	(A) Net Profit of Shipping Business	(B) Excess of Ordinary Receipts Invisible Trade	Percentage of (A)to (B)
1923	68,379	169,769	40
1924	90,068	164,204	54
1925	104,331	154,918	67
1926	103,125	140,014	73
1927	113,663	147,850	76
1928	118,731	161,196	73
1929	137,560	180,954	76
1930	107,853	133,015	81
1931	86,868	83,620	103
1932	83,047	115,254	72
1933	107,533	87,209	102
1934	126,379	144,333	87
1935	152,232	178,213	85

The receipts in connection with shipping business come first in adjusting Japan's national income through the invisible trade in all years and they still have, as a whole, tendency to rise. But it is a notable fact that the world-wide activity of Japanese ships has not increased much since 1930 or 1931. When variations of exchange rates and friction over freight rates are taken into consideration it has retrogressed about 10 per cent in the past 5 years in spite of the unprecedentedly high amount of the net profit in 1935.

Shipping Business in 1936

Throughout 1936 the conditions of the shipping world in this country were the most prosperous since the European War. Improvement has been continuing for four years following the re-imposition of the gold embargo, but it was greatest during 1936. This is attributable to the fact that until 1935 the improvement was limited to Japanese shipping circles, while a world-wide shipping boom started during the latter part of 1936. The year 1936 may therefore be regarded as an epoch in the shipping business.

So long as the low exchange rates of the yen and the activity in the foreign trade of the nation suffer no change, there will be no unrest in Japanese shipping circles, and it is a fact that there exist no factors which would warrant pessimism over the quotations of the yen and the prospects of the foreign trade. It is true that the recent rise in the prices of commodities is causing a slight unrest but this upward trend of commodity prices is common to the whole world.

Further, as Japanese goods are comparatively cheap, it is unlikely that the export trade of this nation will decline. On the contrary, the increased activities in the munitions industry are expected to bring about a continued expansion of Japanese foreign trade. A total of some 600,000 tons of ships will be completed during 1937 and 1938 and when the new ships are put in service along foreign routes, there will be no depression in the general situation.

Generally speaking, the prospects of Japanese shipping circles during 1937 are bright and the shipping business of the world achieved a remarkable improvement. The recent soaring of freight rates has some temporary factors among its causes but nevertheless it clearly shows a fundamental improvement in the conditions of the shipping business. It is also clear that the world-wide rising tendency of commodity prices and the increasing activities of the munitions industry will serve to increase the volume of marine freight.

Thus, the business conditions of the shipping companies are expected to record a further improvement. According to circumstances, the Nippon Yusen

Kaisha and the Osaka Shosen Kaisha may even pay higher dividends to their shareholders.

Freight Rates The improvement in the conditions of Japanese shipping circles, which has been continuing since 1933 following the re-imposition of the gold embargo, is not only limited to the coastwise service but also applied to the foreign routes, which were for some time in a most depressed condition. As already stated, the shipping boom was confined within Japanese circles up to 1935 but extended throughout the world in the latter half of 1936. Let us first examine the changes in the conditions of the coastwise shipping service as shown in the following table :

COASTWISE SHIPPING SERVICE

	Rates for Coal (Wakamatsu-Hamamatsu)		Rates for Logs (Karafuto-Mainland)	
	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest
1936				
January	¥1.80	¥1.60	—	—
February	2.40	1.80	—	—
March	2.60	2.40	¥1.35	¥1.30
April	2.50	2.15	1.50	1.40
May	2.50	2.35	2.00	1.50
June	2.40	2.30	1.70	1.60
July	2.20	1.80	1.70	1.60
August	2.05	1.80	1.60	1.30
September	1.90	1.65	1.30	1.15
October	1.85	1.60	1.30	1.20
November	2.00	1.80	—	—
December	2.00	2.00	—	—
1936	2.60	1.60	2.00	1.15
1935	2.30	1.60	1.60	1.20
1934	2.50	1.35	1.70	1.00

The above table shows that the rates for coal from Wakamatsu to Hamamatsu which are the best indications of the conditions of the coastwise service were ¥1.60 at the lowest and ¥2.60 at the highest during 1936. The lowest rate was the same as the preceding year but the highest represented an increase of ¥0.10. Further, while the lowest rate continued for many of the months of 1935, the year 1936 recorded the lowest rate only in two months. The average rate in 1936 was around ¥2.20, greater by ¥0.35 than the average rate in 1935. Similar conditions are also found in the rates for the timber produced in the northern region.

Principally accountable for the rise in the freight rates of the coastwise service was the fact that while there were more frequent movements of freight, the number of bottoms showed a tendency to decrease. The more frequent movements of freight were brought about by the increased activities in the munitions and other industries in the country while the decreasing tendency of bottoms was caused by the increase in the tonnage in service along foreign routes and the recall of foreign ships. In this respect, special mention must be made of the fact that the improvement in the conditions of foreign routes and the situation brought about by the civil strife in Spain combined to cause large-size ships to disappear from the coastwise service.

Ocean freightage also advanced in 1936 from the previous year, particularly in the latter half of the year, when the rates for principal goods all soared. Further details may be clarified by an examination of the following table :

FOREIGN SHIPPING ROUTES

	Rates for Cereals (Plate-Europe) (In Shilling)		Rates for Soy Beans (Dairen-Europe)	
	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest
1936				
January	17.9	17.9	27.6	27.0
February	17.9	17.9	27.6	26.0
March	17.9	17.9	26.6	25.0
April	17.9	17.9	24.3	23.0
May	17.9	17.9	23.0	20.0
June	17.6	17.6	23.6	20.0
July	18.0	17.6	24.6	21.6
August	21.6	18.3	26.6	24.6
September	23.0	21.0	27.6	26.0
October	23.0	22.3	30.0	27,6
November	23.9	22.3	33.0	29.6
December	32.6	25.6	41.3	37.6
1936	32.6	17.6	41.3	20.0
1935	18.0	13.6	26.0	14.6
1934	17.6	13.0	29.6	22.6

The lowest rate for cereals during 1936 was 17 shillings and 6 pence, which represents a decrease of only 6 pence from the highest rate in the preceding year, while the highest rate in 1936 set a new record for all time since the European War, being 32 shillings and 6 pence. This rise becomes all the more remarkable when one considers the fact that ships can be profitably operated along foreign routes at the rate of 17 shillings and 9 pence. The highest rate for soya beans from Dairen to Europe during 1936, which was more than 41 shillings, also set a record for all time.

The soaring of ocean freight rates was caused by the increased demand for shipping space brought about by the shortage of provisions in European coun-

tries, the civil strife in Spain and the activity of the munitions industry in the whole world. This resulted in a rapid increase in the total tonnage of ships that the Japanese shipping companies put in service along foreign routes, which in turn served to further the improvement in the conditions of the coastwise service.

Firm Foundation

The Japanese shipping companies led the world shipping circles in recovering from the business depression because they have been operating on a firm foundation. Besides being supported by the low exchange rates of the yen and the expansion of the foreign trade of the nation, the shipping companies have been favoured by satisfactory relations of demand and supply. The improvement in these relations may be better appreciated through an examination of the following figures :

	Index Number of Trade	Index Number of Bottoms
1914	100	100
1924	163	223
1932	194	248
1933	224	242
1934	265	239
1935	289	239
1936	307	246

In this connection, it must be noted that the index number does not show the efficiency of the superior ships constructed in recent years. Further, if there are more ships in service along the coastal lines than needed, they can be commissioned on foreign routes and, on the strength of the low exchange quotation of the yen, Japanese ships can be profitably operated at such rates as would incur a loss to foreign ships. The low level of Japanese seamen's wages and their ability also cannot be overlooked in this respect. Suffice it to say that so long as the low quotations of the yen continue, there will be prosperity for the Japanese shipping circles.

As regards the foreign trade of the nation, there is little possibility of its declining at least for the time being. The expanding rate of foreign trade has slackened considerably but it will be some time before there can be any shrinkage in the trade volume. For the world-wide improvement in business conditions and the rising tendency of commodity prices cannot fail to affect the Japanese foreign trade. Further, the increased activities in the munitions industry are expected to cause the imports of raw materials to swell which in turn will promote the export trade of this country.

Although severe restrictions are being put on the import of Japanese goods by various governments, there is no need of pessimism. The present soaring tendency of the prices of commodities in this country is causing some unrest, but it must be noted that commodity prices are on an upward trend in every nation of the world. It is said that the increasing rate of commodity prices is higher in this country than in other lands, but even so no great pessimism is warranted, because the prices of Japanese goods have been comparatively low in the past.

The question that must be considered here concerns the tendency of shippinig space to increase in this country. Ships with a total tonnage of from 220,000 to 230,000 tons were completed during 1936 and it is estimated that the year 1937 will witness the completion of ships totalling around 300,000 tons in all. About the same figures are predicted for 1938. When passenger ships, tankers and whalers are left out of account, the figures of nearly 500,000 tons are expected to be recorded as an increase in the shipping space in this country during 1937 and 1938.

It may be impossible to say that the completion of so many ships will produce absolutely no effect upon the conditions of the nation's shipping business as a whole. Nevertheless, it is unthinkable that such an increase in bottoms will occasion a general depression in the shipping business. Particularly in view of the fact that most of the new ships will be commissioned on foreign routes, it is considered that their digestion will not be difficult in the face of the progressing recovery of the world shipping circles. In short, the Japanese shipping circles will in all probability continue to enjoy satisfactory business results.

PRINCIPAL SHIPOWNERS

(At the end of January, 1937)

Shipowners	Location of Head Office	No. of ships	Gross Tonnage
Nippon Yusen Kaisha	Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo	88	648,306
Osaka Shosen ,,	Sozemachi, Kita-ku, Osaka	107	499,876
Kokusai Kisen ,,	Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo	27	160,620
Kinkai Yousen ,,	Marunouchi, ,, ,,	47	143,064
Mitsui Bussan ,,	Muromachi, Nihonbashi-ku, Tokyo	34	146,376
Toyo Kisen ,,	Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo	11	64,619
Nanyo Kaiun ,,	Tokyo	11	54,695
Kawasaki Dockyard Co.	Kawasakimachi, Kobé-ku, Kobé	10	62,921
Kawasaki Kisen	Kaigandori, Kobé-ku, Kobe	14	56,498
Tatsuma Steamship Co.	Honmachi, Nishinomiya, Hyogo-prefecture	15	62,538
Shimatani Kisen Kaisha	Kobé	15	41,041
Nihon Godo Kosen Kaisha	Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo	1	2,951
Kita Nippon Kisen ,,	Odomari-machi, Saghalien	22	49,390
Railway Department	Marunouchi, Kojimach-ku, Tokyo	16	56,018
Nisshin Kisen Kaisha	,, ,, ,,	17	41,508
Kuribayashi Shosen Kaisha	Muroran, Hokkaido	17	54,341
Mitsubishi Trading Co.	Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo	6	40,335
Ishihara Sangyo Kaiun	Kyoto	7	36,193
Nippon Tanker Co.	Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo	6	43,222
Yamashita Kisen Kaisha	Sakaemachi, Kobé-ku, Kobé	14	82,400
Kokai Trading Co.	Enoko-Higashino-machi, Nishi-ku, Osaka	6	29,851
Iino Trading Co.	Nakamaizuru, Kyoto	4	39,608
Kyoritsu Kisen Kaisha	Muromachi, Nihonbashi-ku, Tokyo	11	30,571
Kishimoto ,, ,,	Minami-Horie-dori, Nishi-ku, Osaka	4	24,824
Karafuto ,, ,,	Tokyo	5	24,705
Naigai ,, ,,	Odomari, Saghalien	6	27,964
Tochigi Trading Co.	Kobé	9	29,681
Shimomura Kisen Kaisha	Sozecho, Kita-ku, Osaka	4	23,055
Tamai Shosen ,,	Kobé	4	22,979
Inui ,, ,,	Kobé	5	22,763
Hakuyo ,, ,,	Osaka	4	22,217
Kokura Petroleum Co.	Kofunecho, Nihonbashi-ku, Tokyo	3	21,931
Meiji Kaiun Kaisha, Ltd.	Akashicho, Kobé-ku, Kobe	6	21,878
Matsuoka Kisen Kaisha, Ltd.	Seidomura, Mukogori, Hyogo prefecture	5	21,679
Total, with 316 others,		872	3,471,072

LIST OF LARGE N. Y. K. VESSELS

	Tonnage:	Passenger Accommodation:			
	Gross	1st Class	Cabin Class	2nd Class	Tourist Cabin
M.S. Chichibu Maru	17,526	243	—	95	—
M.S. Asama ,,	16,975	239	—	96	—
M.S Tatsuta ,,	16,975	239	—	96	—
S.S. Taiyo ,,	14,458	—	91	—	241
M.S. Terukuni ,,	11,931	121	—	68	—
M.S. Yasukuni ,,	11,933	121	—	68	—
M.S. Hikawa ,,	11,622	—	76	—	69
M.S. Hiyé ,,	11,621	—	76	—	69
M.S. Heian ,,	11,615	—	76	—	69
S.S. Fushimi ,,	10,936	84	—	38	—
S.S. Suwa ,,	10,672	81	—	38	—
S.S. Haruna ,,	10,421	85	—	40	—
S.S. Hakoné ,,	10,420	85	—	40	—
S.S. Hakozaki ,,	10,413	85	—	40	—

	Tonnage: Gross	Passenger Accommodation: 1st Class	Cabin Class	2nd Class	Tourist Cabin
S.S. Hakusan „	10,380	85	—	40	—
S.S. Kashima „	9,908	72	—	34	—
S.S. Katori „	9,849	72	—	34	—
M.S. Heiyo „	9,816	42	—	—	80
S.S. Rakuyo „	9,419	42	—	—	51
S.S. Anyo „	9,257	—	24	—	47
S.S. Bokuyo „	8,619	34	—	—	53
S.S. Ginyo „	8,613	—	20	—	37
S.S. Atsuta „	7,983	57	—	14	—
S.S. Kamo „	7,955	53	—	14	—
S.S. Kitano „	7,952	57	—	14	—

LIST OF LARGE O. S. K. SHIPS

Name of S.S.	Gross Tonnage	Nominal Horse Power	Year Constructed
S.S. Arizona	9,683	5,500	1920
M.S. Rio de Janeiro	9,626	5,000	1929
M.S. Buenos Aires	9,625	5,000	„
M.S. La Plata	7,266	3,800	1925
M.S. Santos	7,266	3,800	1925
M.S. Montevideo	7,266	3,800	1926
S.S. Arabia	9,480	5,500	1918
S.S. Africa	9,475	5,500	„
S.S. Manila	9,486	5,600	1915
S.S. Hawaii	9,467	4,800	1915
S.S. Horai	9,192	7,400	1912
S.S. Mizuho	8,506	6,400	„
S.S. Takachiho	8,154	7,100	1933

LIST OF KOKUSAI LINERS

	Deadweight Capacity Tons	Main Diesel Engine B.H.P.	Maximum Speed Knots
M.V. Kagu Maru	9,206	7,000	19.8
M.V. Kano „	9,383	7,600	19.4
M.V. Kashii „	9,240	7,000	19.6
M.V. Katsuragi „	9,087	6,000	18.0
M.V. Kinugasa „	9,199	7,000	19.4
M.V. Kirishima „	9,265	6,000	18.4
M.V. Kiyosumi „	9,494	7,600	19.7
M.V. Komaki „	9,501	7,600	19.6
M.V. Kongo „	9,436	7,600	19.7
M.V. Kurama „	10,294	4,000	17.0

Statistics Statistics of Japanese ships, prepared by the Ministry of Communications follow:

SHIPS REGISTERED

(On September 30, 1936)

Steamships

Tonnage	Japan Proper No.	Japan Proper Gross tons	Korea No.	Korea Gross tons	Formosa No.	Formosa Gross tons	Kwantung No.	Kwantung Gross tons	Total No.	Total Gross tons
20- 100	1,827	80,863	328	13,447	120	5,477	44	2,436	2,319	102,223
100- 500	656	155,292	40	7,721	9	1,894	19	4,797	724	169,704
500- 1,000	211	157,512	4	3,046	2	1,290	5	3,672	222	165,520
1,000- 3,000	357	665,915	18	32,948	—	—	19	36,357	394	735,220
3,000- 6,000	339	1,518,421	1	3,204	—	—	38	168,803	378	1,690,428
6,000-10,000	153	1,138,303	—	—	—	—	6	40,435	159	1,178,738
over 10,000	20	247,869	—	—	—	—	—	—	20	247,869
Total	3,563	3,964,175	391	60,366	131	8,661	131	256,500	4,216	4,289,702

Sailing Ships

20- 100	13,543	626,155	972	33,415	35	1,852	219	9,699	14,769	671,121
100- 500	1,980	280,782	8	1,120	9	1,349	2	298	1,999	283,549
500- 1,000	4	2,229	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	2,229
over 1,000	4	9,507	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	9,507
Totol	15,531	918,673	980	3,4535	44	3,201	221	9.997	6,776	966,406

Other Sailing Ships Measured In Koku

(10 koku counted as one ton)

200- 500	106	31,040	—	—	—	—	—	—	106	31,040
500-1,000	3	1,837	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	1,837
Total	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Grand Total	109	32,877	—	—	—	—	—	—	109	32,877
	15,640	921,960	980	34,535	44	3,201	221	9,997	16,885	969,693

REGISTERED SHIPS IN JAPAN PROPER

(Since 1870)

	Steamers		Sailing Ships		Other Sailing Ships Measured in Koku		Total	
End of	No.	Gross tons	No.	Gross tons	No.	Gross tons	No.	Gross tons
1870	35	24,997	11	2,611	—	—	46	27,608
1882	198	64,313	399	51,684	—	—	597	115,997
1892	375	157,147	239	34,163	—	—	614	191,310
1897	626	426,624	171	27,412	—	—	797	454,036
1902	1,033	605,122	3,591	329,839	1,260	548,422	5,884	989,803
1907	1,574	1,109,444	4,210	357,275	1,168	442,399	6,952	1,510,959
1912	1,981	1,430,329	6,443	441,039	1,671	554,834	10,095	1,926,851
1916	2,159	1,696,631	9,314	585,593	1,171	380,116	12,644	2,320,236
1921	2,955	3,167,737	14,280	960,947	830	264,419	18,065	4,155,126
1926	3,246	3,607,038	14,184	873,468	564	177,073	17,994	4,498,213
1930	3,351	3,907,908	15,380	896,272	367	117,041	19,098	4,815,884
1932	3,308	3,874,619	15,038	867,658	308	97,060	18,654	4,752,283
1933	3,295	3,780,197	14,981	862,846	275	87,401	18,551	4,752,283
1934	3,365	3,811,773	15,062	874,935	229	71,623	18,656	4,693,870
1935	3,441	3,836,813	15,255	896,907	181	55,119	18,877	4,739,232
1936	3,563	3,964,175	15,531	918,673	109	32,877	19,203	4,886,135

SHIPBUILDING YARDS

Private shipbuilding yards capable of building ships of more than 50 tons (end of 1935)

Under individual management	600
Under corporation management	91
Other shipyards	6
Total	697

SHIPS LAUNCHED DURING 1935:

(Ships smaller than 100 tons omitted)

Steamers	Number	94
	Tonnage	132,365
Sailing ships	Number	101
	Tonnage	13,536
Total	Number	195
	Tonnage	145,901

SHIPS BUILT AT PRIVATE YARDS

	No. of Private Yards	No.	Gross tons	No.	Gross Tons
1897	81	112	12,431	66	4,391
1907	224	76	28,838	220	16,841
1912	228	168	48,155	372	28,899
1916	219	94	144,024	519	45,831
1920	352	69	226,081	12	1,711
1926	324	27	51,303	5	560
1930	430	49	148,382	11	5,849
1932	531	46	56,084	20	2,679
1933	559	39	75,907	23	3,913
1934	588	78	141,856	99	13,004

For 1935 the total number of ships built and their tonnage already reached 195 and 145,901 respectively.

HOLDERS OF CERTIFICATE OF COMPETENCY AS MARINERS

End of	Japanese	Foreigners	Total
1882	1,901	325	2,226
1912	26,139	351	26,490
1916	33,976	351	34,327
1921	45,775	349	46,124
1926	60,154	132	60,286
1930	76,787	132	76,919
1932	89,177	132	89,309
1933	92,751	132	92,883
1934	96,469	132	96,601
1935	101,370	132	101,502
1936(June)	103,224	132	103,356

HOLDERS OF MARINERS' SERVICE BOOK

End of	Japanese	Foreigners	Total
1902	79,753	774	80,527
1907	164,293	1,109	165,402
1912	206,806	1,889	208,695
1916	254,597	2,853	256,950
1921	357,174	5,000	362,174
1930	212,917	4,823	217,740
1932	233,910	5,098	239,008
1933	175,251	2,877	178,128
1934	166,693	2,218	168,911
1935	186,437	2,287	188,724
1936(June)	196,379	2,308	198,687

CHAPTER XXVII

JUSTICE AND POLICE

Judicature

The Judicature's Position

Since the promulgation of the Japanese Constitution in 1889, the right of the sovereignty of the Emperor has been divided into the three distinct departments, of legislation, judicature and administration.

In accordance with Article 57 of the Constitution, "the Judicature shall be exercised by the Courts of Law according to law, in the name of the Emperor." Judges are appointed from among those possessing such qualifications as are determined by law and they are guaranteed by the Constitution against being deprived of their positions unless by way of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment. Not only are the judges guaranteed their positions, but they have authority in exercising judicial power to judge on their own independent views, using the statutes as the sole standard of judgment without being in any way swayed by interference from others and unaffected by authority arising from any quarter.

Since the judges are entirely independent of the administration the results of judicial decisions are equally independent thereof, and the decisions are not affected by the administrative power except in cases of pardon or provisional release.

Composition of the Courts

In Japan, the ordinary Courts of Law for the adjudication of civil and criminal cases consist of (1) District Courts (Ku-Saibansho), (2) Local Courts (Chiho-Saibansho), (3) Courts of Appeal (Koso-in), and (4) the Supreme Court (Tai-shin-in). The District Courts, the Courts of Appeal and the Supreme Court are all collegiate courts with special divisions, in each of which sit a number of judges.

District Courts The District Courts are presided over by single judges. A three instance system is adopted in the adjudication of all ordinary cases, and any one may lodge an appeal against a judgment rendered in the first instance and demand revision of that rendered in the second instance.

In the matter of civil cases, the District Courts possess judicial power to adjudicate on the following matters in the first instance :

1. Demands for money less than 1,000 yen or for articles, the value of which is less than 1,000 yen.

2. The following cases irrespective of value :

(a) Legal actions brought by lessors against lessees, or vice versa, for the receipt, vacation, use, occupation or repair of houses or other buildings or parts thereof, or for the seizure of the furniture and fixtures or belongings of lessees by lessors.

(b) Legal actions only concerning the boundaries of real estates.

(c) Legal actions only concerning occupations.

(d) Legal actions brought by employers against employees, or vice versa, for contracts of employment, the terms of which do not exceed one year.

(e) Legal actions brought by travellers against hotel or inn keepers, or vice versa, for matters concerning board or lodging, or by travellers against water or land forwarding agents, or vice versa.

(f) Matters concerning bankruptcy.

In criminal cases, the District Courts, as the courts of law for adjudication in the first instance, possess judicial power concerning the following matters, provided they have not been subjected to preliminary examination :

1. Offences punishable with detention or fine.

2. Offences punishable with penal servitude, imprisonment for fixed terms or by imposition of fines, except those punishable with penal servitude or imprisonment for more than one year.

Local Courts In civil cases, the Local Courts possess judicial power concerning the following matters :

1. In the first instance :

Demands other than those falling under the jurisdiction of the District Courts or of the Courts of Appeal.

2. In the second instance :

(a) Appeals lodged against judgments rendered by the District Courts ;

(b) Demands determined by law for revision of decisions or orders render-

ed by the District Courts.

Further, with reference to criminal cases, the Local Courts possess judicial power concerning the following matters :

1. In the first instance :

Criminal cases falling neither under the jurisdiction of the District Courts nor under the special jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.

2. In the second instance :

(a) Appeals lodged against judgments rendered by the District Courts ;

(b) Complaints determined by law against decisions or orders rendered by the District Courts, except those falling under the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.

Courts of Appeal The Courts of Appeal possess judicial power concerning the following matters :

1. Appeals lodged against judgments rendered in the first instance by the Local Courts.

2. Complaints determined by law against decisions or orders rendered in the first instance by the Local Courts, except those falling under the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.

Powers to adjudicate in the first and second instances in civil cases brought against the members of the Imperial Family belong to the Tokyo Court of Appeal.

The Supreme Court The Supreme Court (Taishin-in) is the highest court of law and possesses judicial power concerning the following matters :

1. In the final instance :

(a) Appeals against judgments rendered by the lower courts ;

(b) Complaints determined by law against decisions or orders rendered in the second instance by the Local Courts or by the Courts of Appeal ;

(c) Complaints against decisions to reject appeals made by the District or Local Courts.

2. In the first, and at the same time, final instance : Preliminary examination and adjudication of offences against the Imperial House, offences of internal disturbance, and offences committed by members of the Imperial Family, for which punishment heavier than imprisonment should be imposed.

Public Procurators

A public procurator's office, with the necessary number of procurators, is attached to each court. The work of the public procurator is, in accordance with the code of criminal precedure, to take legal actions, to go on with necessary legal proceedings, to demand a right application of the law, and to observe the right execution of a judgment. According to the code of civil procedure, he also has rights to ask for a report whenever he thinks it necessary and present his opinions to the court on it, and as a representative of public welfare he carries out his supervising business as laid down by the law in all judicial and administrative matters related to the court. But the public procurator acts absolutely independently of the court.

Court Officials and Procurators

Qualifications Candidates for the office of judge or procurator are chosen by the Minister of Justice from among those who have passed the higher judicial service examination. The selected candidates then have to serve a term of over one and a half years of probation in the courts or in a public procurator's office and pass a further examination, after which, should the report on their estimated ability be favourable, they will receive an appointment as judge or procurator. But those who have been professors of law in the Imperial Universities or lawyers of over three years standing can be appointed as judges or public procurators without examination and estimation.

The following are not to be appointed as either judges or public procurators.

(1) Those who have been convicted of a grave crime, with the exception of those political offenders who have been rehabilitated.

(2) Those who have served sentences on minor offences.

(3) Those who have been adjudicated bankrupt and could not be exempted from the responsibility.

Position of Judges and Public Procurators Judges are permanent officials appointed by His Majesty directly, or by His Majesty's order indirectly, or by His Majesty's approval, according to the grade of their position. Unless by way of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment judges are not to be moved to another post or place, be suspended from office, be deprived of position, or receive a reduction of salary, without their consent, except in so far as the Minister of Justice may order retirement from service by the decision of a general meeting of the Court of Appeal or the Supreme Court on account of disability caused through weakness of body or mind.

The retiring age is for the President of the Supreme Court 65 years, and for other judges 63 years.

The public procurators are appointed by His Majesty directly or by His

Majesty's order indirectly or by His Majesty's approval. Unless by way of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment the public procurators are not to be deprived of their positions against their own will.

The Procurator-General at the age of 65 years and all other public procurators at 63 years of age must retire from service. A public procurator must obey the orders of higher authorities and judicial policemen must obey the orders issued by the public procurators or through them within the district of jurisdiction of the public procurator's office.

The Jury System

In 1923 the Jury Law was issued, and Japan finally adopted the jury system under which persons other than judges are allowed to take part in criminal trials. The jury system is used in such criminal cases as where the punishment may be capital, or penal servitude or imprisonment for life. Other criminal cases in which the sentence may be penal servitude or imprisonment for a term longer than 3 years are tried by jury only upon demand of the accused and when they come within the jurisdiction of the Local Courts. The following cases are not submitted to trial by jury :

(1) Offences which come under the special authority of the Supreme Court.

(2) Offences against the Imperial House, causing an internal disturbance, helping an enemy, disturbing international relations, and sedition.

(3) Violations of the Peace Maintenance Law.

(4) Violations of the Military Secrets Preservation Law, the Army or Navy Criminal Laws or any other offences in connection with military secrets.

(5) Violations of the Public Election Laws.

The accused can refuse to have his case tried by jury or withdraw his own demand to be tried by jury at any time previous to the statement of the case by the public procurator, under which circumstances the case cannot be referred to a jury.

The jury is composed of 12 men. At the trial, the chief judge, after having heard all the evidence for and against the accused, sums up the facts and main points of the case, and charges the jury to deliberate and render its verdict by a majority vote. The verdict must be a simple statement as to guilt or otherwise. If the court consideres the verdict improper the case may be referred to another jury.

In a case where sentence has been passed on a jury's verdict of guilt, no appeal can be made to the Court of Appeal, but a demand for revision may be presented to the Supreme Court.

Penal System

History It was in the time of the Empress Suiko, 620 A.D., that the first written Penal Code was issued in Japan. The code was very simple, but later the Chinese penal code, the "To", was introduced and the Japanese code was drafted in a more systematic manner and promulgated by the Emperor Mommu, in 702, as the "Taiho Ritsu-Ryo." Five kinds of punishment were mentioned, namely, flogging, whipping, penal servitude, exile, and death, but in most cases these could be varied to confiscation of property or payment of a fine. Grave crimes were treason, atrocities, blasphemy, undutifulness to one's parents, adultery, etc. Confession of the accused was required as a necessary procedure of a criminal suit, and naturally torture was recognized as an indispensable means of obtaining such a confession. Several hundred years after the issuance of the Taiho Ritsu-Ryo the Shogunate Governments adopted extremely terroristic penal systems with the purpose of preventing the occurrence of criminal cases. One of the most important of them was the One Hundred Criminal Regulations of the Tokugawa Shogunate. It was a secret criminal code which was not published and was accessible to the judges only, an expression of the despotism of the ruling class that had as its motto, "leave the people ignorant of the niceties of law."

With the downfall of the Tokugawa Shogunate the Great Emperor Meiji abolished the system of intimidation and reformed the old penal code. The codification of Civil Law was carried on under the advice of Monsieur Gustave Boissonade, a French scholar of jurisprudence who was invited to Japan for that purpose. A new Penal Code and Criminal Procedure Law, the characteristics of which were that, "though the lawful punishment of criminals is assured, the penalties are tempered with sympathy toward the accused and are in no ways severe," were enacted and promulgated. "No crime shall be punished unless there is a regulation in the law," (nullum crimen et nulla poena sine lege). is one of the guiding principles of the code, which was formulated on the French penal code of 1810. Within a few years it was found that the new code was out of date and various amendments were discussed from 1884 to 1907, in

which year a thorough revision was made and the present Penal Code issued. Since then the social conditions of the people have undergone rapid changes, more advanced theories regarding penalties have been gaining ground and so many defects have been noticed in the present code, that in 1926 the Extraordinary Legislative Committee passed a resolution that the Penal Code should be revised. A special investigation committee set to work and in 1931 an outline and draft of a revised penal code and prison law was drawn up. It is expected that the thorough study of the draft that is now going on will soon be completed.

Penalties Penalties are divided into six kinds, namely, the death penalty, penal servitude, imprisonment, monetary penalties, custody, and fines. Confiscation is recognized as an additional punishment. The death penalty is by hanging and is carried out in prison. Penal servitude and imprisonment are for limited terms and for life; limited terms extend from one month to 15 years. Under penal servitude labour is compulsory, but a prisoner serving a term of imprisonment is not compelled to work, though he may be allowed to do so at his own request. A monetary penalty is 20 yen and above, unless made lighter on decision. Custody is from one to under 30 days, and a fine is from 10 sen to less than 20 yen. Those who cannot pay monetary penalties and fines are kept in workouses as an alternative.

Suspension of Sentence and Provisional Release The present penal law allows probation. The execution of a penalty often leads to self-abandonment and turns comparatively harmless people, who are not yet addicted to criminal deeds, into habitual jail-birds. This is found to be especially so when the penalty is one of penal servitude for a short time, and it is, therefore, far better for people convicted of light and incidental offences to be excused from the real infliction of the penalty under special conditions and to be given proper admonitions in order to make them repentant by self-examination. Consequently, the Japanese courts are empowered, under certain conditions, to postpone the execution of sentence for from one to five years, beginning with the day of the sentence and according to the nature and condition of the case, on persons sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment for less than 2 years.

Probation is cancelled (1) when the probationer, during the time of probation, commits another offence and is sentenced to imprisonment or is given a heavier sentence, (2) when the probationer is sentenced to imprisonment or a heavier penalty is imposed because of some other crime committed before the granting of probation, and (3) when, in cases not mentioned above, the probationer is found to have had at some previous time a sentence of imprisonment or some other heavier penalty inflicted on him. Should the term of probation expire without being revoked the sentence is automatically cancelled thereby. The draft of the penal code of 1931, besides confirming the system of probation, admits the principle of postponement of passing sentence in specially pitiable cases of a non-serious nature.

Release on parole was practised as early as 1790 in the House of Correction at Ishikawajima, Yédo; the present law admits it and it is widely practised. As reformation is one of the chief aims of punishment, when convicts are evidently repentant and there is no fear of their committing further crimes, it is unnecessary to continue the punishment. Therefore, it is stated in the present Penal Code, "when the convicts who are under penal servitude or imprisonment are found to be evidently repentant, provisional release may be authorized by the administrative office after they have finished one-third of the limited term or ten years of the term for life" (Article 28).

Provisional release may be cancelled (1) when the persons on parole have committed another offence during the term of the release and have been sentenced to a monetary or heavier penalty, or (2) when they are sentenced to a monetary or heavier penalty because of some other offence committed before the provisional release, or (3) when they were sentenced to a monetary or heavier penalty because of another offence committed before the provisional release and that penalty must now be fulfilled, or (4) when they break the provisional release rules. In this case the rest of the term of sentence must be served.

Juvenile Criminals Article 27 of the Code of Criminal Procedure says, "public suit may not be instituted when the suit is found unnecessary because of the character of the criminal, his age and environment, the condition of his crime and his behaviour after the incident," and leaves the decision as to whether proceedings should be taken to the public prourator. The existing criminal system of Japan is thus inclined to some extent to subjectivism, putting emphasis on the offender himself rather than on the offence. Its evident expression is

found in dealing with young offenders. According to the provisions of the Juvenile Criminal Law, 1922, young boys or girls who are under 18 years of age are called juveniles and their offences are dealt with, not under the penalty system, but by a system of protection. Even when they are punished, the penalty is inflicted in a special way. Protective measures are (1) to give admonitions, (2) to leave them to the guidance of school principals, (3) to let them solemnly declare their sincere repentance in a written statement, (4) to place them, under certain conditions, in the care of their parents, (5) to place them under the care of temples, churches, protective bodies or other proper persons, (6) to hand them over to the care of the juvenile probation officers, (7) to send them to reformatories, (8) to send them to houses of correction, and (9) to put them under proper treatment in hospitals. These measures may be continued till the juveniles reach the age of 23 years. When juveniles are admitted to probation or provisional release they are not put under police supervision as is the case with the adults, but are left to the care of the juvenile probation officers. For the protective disposition of juvenile offenders juvenile courts have been established.

Special Measures for Juveniles Special measures for the penal punishment of juvenile offenders are :

(1) The death penalty or penal servitude for life is not inflicted upon a person who is under 16 when the crime is committed. When the crime is so grave that the death penalty or penal servitude for life should be passed, the sentence is mitigated to penal servitude or imprisonment for 10–15 years.

(2) When a juvenile criminal should be sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment for more than three years at its maximum, the minimum and the maximum limits are fixed within the scope of the penalty to be inflicted on the crime committed. And when he should be sentenced to a penalty of more than 5 years at its minimum, the term is diminished to 5 years. That is to say, in case of a juvenile convict an indeterminate sentence is admitted.

(3) Juveniles sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment are put in a special jail or in a section of the common prison secluded from adults. If they reach the age of 18 during the term of confinement they may still be kept secluded till they reach the age of 23.

(4) Juveniles sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment can obtain provisional release (a) after 7 years in case of a life-term sentence, (b) after 3 years in case of (1) above mentioned, (c) after serving one-third of the time in case of (2) above.

(5) Juveniles are not sent to work houses.

Second and Habitual Offenders

In case of those who repeat criminal deeds and commit other offences, especially in the case of professional and habitual offenders, it is necessary to put them into confinement for considerable lengths of time in order to give them time to reform their character and at the same time protect society at large from their depravations. To deal with these people Japanese criminal law provides a system of aggravating penalties for the recidivists and admits special dealing with habitual thieves as a complementary system.

Repetitious Offenders (Art. 56–59, Penal Code) When a person commits another crime and is sentenced to limited penal servitude within five years from the day of release from former penal servitude or from remission of execution of a penalty, he is classified as a second offender. Under the name of repetitious offenders come all second offenders and up. The cases of remission of penal execution are extinction of prescription, special pardon and the case stated in the Penal Code, Art. 5. Amnesty and probation not only remit penal execution, but cancel the effect of the penalty altogether, and the crimes concerned cannot be taken as the basis for forming a repetitious offence. Again, when a person commits a crime during a term of probation the offence for which the probation was admitted is not counted as the first offence. The penalty inflicted on a repetitious offender is aggravated.

Habitual Thieves Habitual offenders are most numerous in burglary and larceny cases. The habitual offenders often regard prison as their residence and repeat crimes immediately afer their release, to the great harm of the community, in order to get back "home". They have, therefore, to be separated from society by the infliction of comparatively long sentences. In many cases it has been impossible to increase the penalty, or when it has been increased it has still been too short, and as there is no provision in the existing Penal Code for unlimited imprisonment the Thief Prevention Law was enacted in 1930. According to this law, when persons commit burglary or larceny

habitually by the use of weapons, or by forming a band of more than two, or stealthily breaking into houses by night, they are punished by being sent to penal servitude for more than 2 years in the case of a thief and more than 7 years in that of a burglar. The draft of the revised penal law of 1931 adopts the system of incarceration for unlimited terms for habitual offenders (Draft, Article 91–95).

Peace Preservation

Penalties are imposed as deterrents, but are not always effective, especially in the case of insane people and habitual drunkards, as well as in that of habitual offenders. For that reason it is advisable that, in addition to meting out punishment for any wrong-doings, it should be possible to segregate such people from law-abiding society. To meet this need, most of the countries of the world have a supplementary system of Peace Preservation Laws, which restrict to a certain extent the freedom of released persons as long as their dangerous character is unimproved. In Japan the existing Penal Code makes no provision for such a system, but the draft of 1931 suggests four kinds of peace preservation regulations, namely, preventive surveillance, curative treatment, compulsory labour, and preventive detention.

Surveillance When persons who are defective in mind or body or are deaf-and-dumb are to be sentenced to imprisonment or some heavier penalty, the Court can decide to place them under surveillance. In case the sentence has already been passed for one reason or other, surveillance will follow the execution of the sentence, but in some cases it may be carried out before the commencement of execution or at any time during its course, (draft, Art. 127). Those who are put under this measure are to be kept in the surveillance house and receive treatment for their defectiveness, while being under surveillance. They may be released when further surveillance is found unnecessary by order of the administrative offices. In principle the time of surveillance is 5 years, but this may be renewed by the Court when thought necessary. When the sentence and the surveillance disposition are pronounced at the same time, the Court may choose either one of them as one of the two became unnecessary by the enforcement of the other.

Curative Treatment When drunkards or users of narcotics commit offences while in a state of intoxication or insensibility and it is found necessary to correct them of their bad habits, the Court may order them to be kept in Homes of Correction for a period of 2 years and receive proper curative treatment.

Compulsory Labour When persons who habitually commit crimes because of vagrancy or hatred of labour are to be sentenced, the Court may order compulsory labour together with the regular sentence for a period of 3 years, during which time they are to be kept in compulsory labour houses and compelled to work diligently under strict discipline in order to acquire the good habit of work. The chief official of the labour house may send them to work for the Government or to public or private factories, to farms or other places of labour, allowing them to stay outside the Compulsory Labour Houses, if deemed expedient.

Preventive Detention When the convicts who are to be released at the expiration of a term of penal servitude are found to be addicting to incendiarism or likely to commit murder or burglary, the Court may order them to undergo preventive detention, (draft, Art, 139). They are to be kept in Houses of Prevention and get the treatment necessary for leading them to full repentance. The duration of the treatment is 2 years in principle, but may be prolonged by the Court. This measure is to take effect after the expiration of the regular term of penal servitude, (Draft, Art. 140–142).

Criminal Thought Offence The Communist movement in this country has, since two or three years ago, been heading for its end and ruin on account of various factors, both internal and external, including the enforcement of a strict policy of the Government for rounding of the Communists and the enhancement of the national spirit brought about by the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident. The conditions, however, still remain such that no optimism can be warranted in regard to the future of the Communist movement.

The number of arrests made on charges of violation of the Peace Preservation Law since 1928 has exceeded 60,000 person. Of these, more than 10,000 persons have been granted a reprieve in their indictment or a stay of execution of this sentence, have served their sentence or have been released on bail. The minds of these men are of divers trends at present; some of them have recanted, others, are of a very ambiguous turn of mind, making it impossible to judge whether they are going to change their minds or not, while still

others seem to embrace rebellious ideas.

It goes without saying that those who have not yet changed their minds are liable to repeat their offence or commit similar ones. Even some of those who have already changed their minds may again commit some offence under the influence of their environment or because of social conditions unless some preventive measures are taken, in view of the fact that "thought" offences are attributable largely to social conditions. It is an urgent need, therefore, under the current situation both at home and abroad, that a prudential policy should be established for the termination of the rebellious movement by preventing repetition of similar offences in the future. The necessity is keenly felt for the establishment of adequate facilities to encourage those who have not yet changed their minds or who have changed their minds only partially to effect a complete change and at the same time enable those whose minds have been completely changed to lead a legitimate and orderly life no matter how social conditions may change in the future. It is in this necessity that the reason is found for the adoption of the protection and surveillance system.

Protection and Surveillance System The new rule which involves the creation of protection and surveillance stations and the establishment of a protection and surveillance commission is aimed at protecting persons who have once committed "thought" offences and preventing them from repeating the crime. It not only calls for placing old offenders under surveillance but aims at giving them positive guidance in order that they will not commit similar offences and will walk in the path of rectitude. This positive nature of the new system is expected to help in bringing about the defeat of Communism and elevating the Japanese spirit through encouraging those on the way of changing their minds to forge ahead, and assisting those who have already done so to earn a living. It constitutes an important link in the national "thought" defence line on the strength of its mission towards the preservation of peace and public order by preventing "thought" offences on one hand and on the other by serving to elevate and clarify the essential spirit of the nation.

Objectives of the New System The objectives of the protection and surveillance system are limited to persons who have committed offences in the light of the Peace Preservation Law. Offenders of other kinds do not come within its scope. Only those who have been granted a reprieve in indictment by the public prosecutor, or a stay of execution of their sentence by the law court, or who have been released on bail, or who have served their term, are placed under protection and surveillance. The invocation of this rule, however, must be made with the approval of the Protection and Surveillance Commission which is under the control of the Minister of Justice, and in such cases where the commission adopts a resolution against the invocation, the rule cannot be invoked.

Organs and Procedure The new system is enforced through the operation of 22 protection and surveillance stations throughout the country and a protection and surveillance commission. These stations are independent offices and are located in Tokyo, Yokohama, Mito, Mayebashi, Shizuoka, Nagano, Niigata, Osaka, Kyoto, Kobe, Takamatsu, Nagoya, Kanazawa, Hiroshima, Okayama, Fukuoka, Kumamoto, Sendai, Akita, Aomori, Sapporo and Hakodate and their staffs are composed of guiding officials, protecting officials and secretaries.

The guiding officials take charge of directing and supervising the protection and surveillance business and as such may be regarded as the central machinery of the protection and surveillance stations. The protecting officials cnoduct the enquiry and surveillance business under instructions from the station masters, who are selected from among the guiding officials. There are at present 33 whole-time protecting officials over all the country and the Minister of Justice may commission other suitable persons as part-time officials.

The protection and surveillance stations are to be notified by the authorities concerned when some "thought" offenders have been granted a reprieve in indictment, a stay of execution of their sentence, have been released on bail, or have left prison after serving their term. Upon receipt of such a notification, the station concerned must immediately institute an investigation into the career, environment, mental and physical condition, and changes in thought and other relative affairs of the person in question. In the investigation, special attention should be given to ascertaining whether the person in question has changed his mind or not and if so, the motive and extent of the change as well as the character and financial and family conditions of his guardian and whether there is any prospect of the person in question earning a living in

the future.

If the results of the investigation lead to a decision to place the person under protection and surveillance, the station concerned is to refer the matter to the protection and surveillance commission which must then pass a judgment. The station cannot place any person under protection and surveillance until it has received a notification from the commission that its decision has been approved.

Methods of Effecting the Protection and Surveillance There are three different methods for effecting the protection and surveillance. One is that the protecting officials concerned keep a personal surveillance over the person in question, another is to hand the person over to his guardian. In the third method, the person is put in the charge of some protective organization, temple, shrine, church, hospital, etc. In all the three cases, the station authorities concerned must explain to the person in question the significance of the decision to place him under protection and surveillance and caution him about his future conduct.

According to circumstances, two or even three methods may be employed simultaneously. The authorities concerned may also put restrictions on the abode, intercourse and correspondence of the protected if such a measure is deemed necessary or advisable.

The period of protection and surveillance is fixed at two years but it may be shortened or prolonged. Prolongation of the period, however, requires the approval of the protection and surveillance commission.

As already stated, the protection and surveillance system has, as its primary aim, the encouragement of "thought" offenders to change their minds and the assistance of those who have changed their minds in securing a living. It therefore is natural that adequate measures should be taken to guide such persons properly in thought and help them to enjoy life.

In view of the specific nature of "thought" offenders, the authorities follow a principle of respecting their social conscience and conception of justice while encouraging them to master the Japanese spirit. As a stable living has a close bearing upon the perpetuation of the change in mind, efforts are also made to secure suitable positions for persons under protection and surveillance and to assist them in making their own homes and appreciating the beautiful points of the Japanese family system. Facilities for attendance at school are also provided in some cases.

The adoption of the above system constitutes an epoch-making event in the history of criminal administration in this country in that it has extended the scope of state protection and assistance from juvenile offenders to some adults. It has long been a loud cry that the enterprises for aiding ex-convicts and persons under specified circumstances should not be left to the hands of charitably disposed civilian organizations and individuals alone but that the State should share the responsibility with society. The enforcement of the new rule forms an official action which recognizes the legitimacy of the contention.

It is considered a natural conclusion that this system will eventually lead to legislation recognizing that general activities in protecting and aiding discharged prisoners should be in the nature of State enterprise.

There has been another claim in this connection, that the management of this kind of public enterprise should be rationalized and expanded in scope, and that closer relations should be established between the enterprises and the law courts, public procurators, prisons, police and employment offices as well as local communities. This demand, it is to be noted, has also been partially met by the inauguration of the protection and surveillance system for "thought" offenders.

Thus, the new system is expected to help in promoting the progress of the enterprises for protecting and aiding discharged prisoners and in facilitating the fulfilment of the mission of such enterprises in preventing crime.

Criminal Compensation System

A nation has the responsibility of compensating innocent persons who have been wrongfully punished or have been kept in detention during trial. The Criminal Compensation Law was enacted in 1931. Cases to be compensated according to the Law are as follows :

(1) When a verdict of "not guilty" or an acquittal has been given by the examining judge to a person who has been kept in detention, the State makes compensation for the loss caused by the detention.

(2) In case a verdict of "guilty" is reversed by a higher court and the accused has already suffered the execution of the penalty or was kept in detention before the execution, the State makes compensation for the loss caused by the penalty or detention.

When the accused is dead, the bereaved get the compensation. The be-

reaved in the terms of the Law are meant to be the spouse, children, grandchildren, parents, grandparents and those whose names were in the same census registration at the time of the death of the accused.

As compensation for unlawful arrest or detention, a sum of less than 5 yen is paid against the warrant of arrest or for each day of detention after the arrest or for each day of detention after the execution of the warrant of detention.

As compensation for penal servitude, imprisonment, or detention, a sum of less than 5 yen is paid for each day of the whole period. The same rule applies to detention before the execution of the death penalty.

As compensation to the bereaved of a person who has mistakenly suffered the death penalty, a sum of money considered reasonable by the Court is given in addition to the compensation for detention.

As compensation for a monetary penalty or fine wrongly imposed, the amount of money corresponding to that of the monetary penalty or fine already paid is given back. In case a person was unable to pay the amount imposed and in lieu was kept in a Labour House, a sum of 5 yen for each day of detention is paid as compensation.

Claims for compensation should be made to the Court returning the verdict of "not guilty", or to the Court in which the examining judge pronounced the acquittal.

A Survey on Crimes The number of criminal code offences, first instance, was from 100,000 to 110,000 in the early part of the Taisho Era (1912–1917), but began to lessen in 1920 and stayed between the 80,000 and 90,000 mark for years. In 1933, it began to increase again and went over the 120,000 mark in 1934, the record high since 1912. The proportion to population was, on the average, 20 in every 10,000 in the early part of the Taisho Era, 16 in 1920 and 17.86 in 1934.

Comparing crimes in 1912–1915 with those in 1930–1933 the largest number pertained to gambling and lotteries, but these lessened from 10 to 7 in every 10,000 of population, those of theft from 4 to 3, of fraud from 2 to 1, and of usurpation from 1 to 0.4. On the contrary, the proportionate number of inflicting injuries increased from 1 to 1.4 and that of the unintentional inflicting of injuries from 0.1 to 0.8. Those of murder, burglary or incendiarism kept 0.1 in both periods.

In 1934 the total number of convictions in Japan proper was 120,854, of which gambling and lottery accounted for 59,145 or 48.9 per cent, theft for 21,748 or 18 per cent, inflicting injuries 10,299 or 8.5 per cent, fraud and threat 7,416 or 6.1 per cent, unintentionally inflicting injuries 6,226 or 5.2 per cent, usurpation 2,974 or 2.5 per cent, murder 1,041 or 0.86 per cent, incendiarism 938 or 0.77 per cent, and burglary 797 or 0.65 per cent.

When divided into crimes committed in city areas and those in country areas, the number of the former was 90,162 or 41.65 in every 10,000 of city population and that of the latter was 30,692 or 6.59 in every 10.000 of the country population.

Taking totals according to prefectures, Tokyo prefecture led others with 17,878, Osaka came next with 10,454, Hyogo 7,654, Aichi 5,749, Hokkaido 5,383 and Fukuoka 5,211. All other prefectures had less than 5,000 each, those which had less than 1,000 were Okinawa 472, Yamagata 634, Tottori 677, Ishikawa 680, Shimané 782, Miyazaki 790, Tokushima 820, Iwaté 863, Fukui 985 and Miyagi 996.

In proportion to every 10,000 of population in prefectures Tokyo again led with 29.11, followed by Kanagawa 27.80, Hyogo 27.35, Okayama 27.02, Osaka 26.66, Oita 25.34, Kyoto 24.77, Nara 24.77, Nara 24.22, Wakayama 22.69 Aichi 20.80, Hiroshima 20,30, and Yamagata came last with 5.65.

In proportion to every 10,000 of population in prefectures, according to the kinds of crimes, in gambling and lottery Kanagawa headed the list with 18.4 followed by Nara, Tokyo, Hyogo, Ota, Wakayama, Osaka, Kyoto, Okayama, Mié and Chiba, all exceeding 10. Kagoshima had the smallest number with 1.18. In general the districts around Tokyo and Osaka had the highest proportions while Tohoku (northeast) and Kyushu had the lowest proportions. In theft Osaka came first with 7.36, next came Tokyo with 7 followed by Kyoto, Aichi, Hyogo, Fukuoka, ending with Akita's 0.76. In this crime Tohoku districts had the least number again. In inflicting injuries Okayama was the highest with 3.87 followed by Ehimé, Hyogo, Yamanashi, etc., Nagano being the lowest with 0.57. In fraud and threat Kyoto came first with 2.33 and Okinawa was the last with 0.41. In unintentionally inflicting injuries Kanagawa came first with 1.90 followed by Tokyo, kyoto, Osaka, Hyogo and other prefectures and Yamaguchi ended the list with 0.15. In usurpation the first was Okayama with 1.45

and the last was Kagoshima with 0.2. In murder Fukuoka came first with 0.32 and Aomori, Ishikawa and Miyagi came last 0.5 each. In incendiarism Akita came first with 0.37 and Kyoto came last with 0.04. In burglary Tokyo and Kanagawa headed the list with 0.25 each and Kochi closed it with 0.01.

Statistics

The following are the statistics relevant to the judicature of the country :

I NUMBER OF COURTS (June, 1936)

	Supreme Court	Courts of Appeal	Local Courts	Branch Courts	District Courts	Branch Offices
	1	Tokyo	11	17	64	413
		Osaka	9	12	43	277
		Nagoya	6	9	30	203
		Hiroshima	6	13	36	252
		Nagasaki	8	17	53	284
		Miyagi	6	16	36	228
		Sapporo	5	3	20	96
Total	1	7	51	87	282	1,752

Number of Civil Cases handled at Courts in 1934

Courts	Total	New	Settled
District Courts	1,398,020	1,314,599	1,321,776
Local Courts	107,848	76,641	77,225
Courst of Appeal	11,624	5,315	5,951
The Supreme Court	6,443	4,842	3,542

Number of Criminal Cases handled in 1930—1934

	No. of Accused	Preliminary Examinations	Cases of First Instance	Cases of Second Instance	Cases of Third Instance
1930	427,092	6,429	106,508	7,253	2,437
1931	440,577	6,317	101,799	6,778	2,152
1932	457,285	6,676	101,402	7,374	2,257
1933	509,355	7,737	113,939	7,814	2,493
1934	545,360	7,660	123,488	7,301	2,270

Criminals Sentenced in the First Instance, Japan Proper

			Penal Servitude		Imprisonment				
	Total	Death Penalty	For Life	For Limited Terms	For Life	For Limited Terms	Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
1930	97,426	28	40	32,351	—	79	60,064	—	4,864
1931	98,431	31	59	33,396	—	117	58,746	1	6,081
1932	93,186	37	62	36,190	—	81	50,427	1	6,388
1933	107,318	26	42	39,365	—	91	59,849	—	7,945
1934	122,330	28	72	42,318	—	84	69,211	—	10,617

Classified by Crimes,

1934

			Penal Servitude		Imprison-ment				
	Total	Death Penalty	For Life	For Limited Terms	For Life	For Limited Terms	Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
Against the execution of official duties	254	—	—	153	—	2	94	—	—
Riots	49	—	—	12	—	2	35	—	—
Incendiarism	943	—	2	941	—	—	—	—	—

	Total	Death Penalty	Penal Servitude For Life	Penal Servitude For Limited Terms	Imprisonment For Life	Imprisonment For Limited Terms	Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
Fires through negligence	2,374	—	—	—	—	—	2,374	—	—
House-breaking	1,512	—	—	239	—	—	1,273	—	—
Forgery of currency	315	—	—	311	—	—	1	—	3
Forgery of documents	791	—	—	434	—	—	357	—	—
Forgery of seals	17	—	—	17	—	—	—	—	—
False accusations	205	—	—	205	—	—	—	—	—
Sexual crimes	1,115	—	—	421	—	—	582	—	112
Gambling	59,965	—	—	1,770	—	—	49,594	—	8,691
Religious crimes	60	—	—	38	—	—	17	—	5
Malversation	1,139	—	—	552	—	—	587	—	—
Murder	889	12	41	836	—	—	—	—	—
Infanticide	164	—	—	164	—	—	—	—	—
Inflicting injury	10,555	—	—	1,883	—	—	7,086	—	1,586
Inflicting injury by negligence	6,272	—	—	—	—	74	6,192	—	6
Criminal abortion	280	—	—	280	—	—	—	—	—
Kidnapping and abduction	192	—	—	192	—	—	—	—	—
Defamation	160	—	—	4	—	4	132	—	20
Theft	21,843	—	—	21,843	—	—	—	—	—
Burglary	804	16	29	759	—	—	—	—	—
Fraud and blackmail	7,487	—	—	7,457	—	—	30	—	—
Usurpation	3,011	—	—	2,527	—	—	216	—	268
Receiving stolen property	839	—	—	839	—	—	—	—	—
Destruction and concealment of another man's property	141	—	—	55	—	—	70	—	16
Others	954	—	—	381	—	2	571	—	—
Total	122,330	28	72	42,318	—	84	69,211	—	10,617

Chosen (Korea)

	Total	Death Penalty	Penal Servitude For Life	Penal Servitude For Limited Terms	Imprisonment For Life	Imprisonment For Limited Terms	Monetary Penalties	Custady	Fines
1930	18,769	15	9	11,567	—	21	6,147	2	1,008
1931	16,751	15	25	9,921	—	21	5,475	—	1,294
1932	17,068	32	20	11,197	—	9	4,550	—	1,260
1933	16,786	44	26	10,740	—	27	4,731	5	1,213
1934	17,945	21	21	11,254	—	12	5,275	—	1,362

Taiwan (Formosa)

	Total	Death Penalty	Penal Servitude For Life	Penal Servitude For Limited Terms	Imprisoment For Life	Imprisonment For Limited Terms	Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
1930	3,777	—	3	2,028	—	2	1,544	1	199
1931	5,639	4	3	2,847	—	7	2,600	—	178
1932	4,706	3	4	2,862	—	4	1,738	—	95
1933	4,234	5	4	2,490	—	6	1,672	—	57
1934	6,082	6	10	2,695	—	1	3,167	—	203

Karafuto (Saghalien)

	Total	Penal Servitude			Imprisonment				
		Death Penalty	For Life	For Limited Terms	For Life	For Limited Terms	Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
1930	679	—	1	263	—	6	397	—	12
1931	360	—	—	317	—	—	38	—	5
1932	310	—	1	289	—	2	17	—	1
1933	265	—	—	237	—	—	22	—	6
1934	312	1	2	287	—	—	18	—	4

Nanyo (South Seas)

	Total	Penal Servitnde			Imprisonment				
		Death Penalty	For Life	For Limited Terms	For Life	For Limited Terms	Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
1930	502	—	—	81	—	—	147	—	274
1931	511	—	—	77	—	—	199	—	235
1932	444	—	—	88	—	—	182	—	174
1933	523	—	—	110	—	—	209	—	204
1934	754	—	—	141	—	—	315	5	293

CRIMINAL CASES SETTLED IN ALL INSTANCES

(Crimes aganist Special Laws Included)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Total	166,027	154,394	149,831	181,792	186,668
Male	156,878	145,655	142,042	172,067	174,982
Female	8,378	8,030	7,083	9,027	11,077
Juridical persons	771	709	706	698	609
First instance					
Guilty,					
Male	146,069	136,530	130,389	159,274	164,266
Female	8,169	7,765	6,895	8,834	10,786
Juridical persons	768	708	704	696	608
Acquittals,					
Male	711	405	464	429	423
Female	51	41	19	35	30
Juridical persons	3	1	2	2	1
Second instance					
Guilty,					
Male	6,746	5,723	7,555	7,523	7,268
Female	117	157	134	126	209
Acquittals,					
Male	326	284	173	186	164
Female	7	9	3	—	17
Third (Final) instance					
Guilty,					
Male	3,011	2,696	3,452	4,631	2,835
Female	33	57	32	31	34
Acquittals,					
Male	15	17	9	25	26
Female	1	1	- -	1	1

II BOYS AND GIRLS DEALT WITH IN JUVENILE COURTS

Year	Number of Persons dealt with		Number of Persons who finished Examination: Not Put on Trial	Put under Protective Disposition	Sent to the Public Procurator	Sent to other Courts	Total
1929	Boys	12,346	7,752	4,227	2	25	12,006
	Girls	1,019	573	409	—	1	983
1930	Boys	12,835	8,328	4,123	3	17	12,471
	Girls	998	565	405	—	—	970
1931	Boys	13,141	8,572	4,218	7	22	12,819
	Girls	1,015	555	429	—	1	985
1932	Boys	13,402	8,478	4,543	1	17	13 039
	Girls	1,154	670	441	—	1	1,112
1933	Boys	16,171	10,841	4,865	—	19	15,725
	Girls	1,201	716	441	—	1	1,158

III NUMBER OF JUVENILES DEALT WITH IN THE HOUSES OF CORRECTION

Year	Persons Received	Number of Persons who left the Houses of Correction: Released	Provisional Release	Decision Cancelled or Revised	Absconded	Died	Sent to Other Houses	Misc.	Total
1929	1,224	43	76	666	66	3	—	9	863
1930	1,252	65	82	745	83	1	—	1	977
1931	1,259	71	65	774	52	1	—	3	966
1932	1,172	71	63	730	54	—	2	7	927
1933	1,061	83	22	676	13	1	—	3	798

PRISON STATISTICS

IV NUMBER OF PRISONS (Dec. 31, 1935)

Prisons	Branches	Total
52	103	155

V NUMBER OF PERSONS KEPT IN PRISON HOUSES AT THE END OF EACH YEAR

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937 (End of March)
Convicts	41,188	42,253	46,324	49,922	48,904	51,094	51,977	52,171
Accused	127	100	77	109	80	120	47	174
Criminal defendants	4,634	4,642	5,624	6,062	5,273	5,252	4,628	4,303
Detained in the House of Labour	481	505	477	530	572	490	462	541
Infants	7	7	6	4	8	14	9	6
Total	46,437	47,507	52,508	56,627	54,837	56,970	57,123	57,404
(Women in the total)	738	729	779	914	976	915	919	915
Daily average	44,529	47,866	49,570	55,155	54,352	56,167	—	—

VI NUMBER OF CONVICTS IN PRISON AT THE END OF EACH YEAR CLASSIFIED BY AGE

Age	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Under 18	735	717	858	918	817	821
Under 20	1,826	1,950	2,059	2,199	2,023	1,956
Over 20	38,627	39,586	43,407	46,805	46,064	48,317
Total	41,188	42,253	46,324	49,922	48,904	51,094

VII YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW CONVICTS

/ Year	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Criminal Code Offences						
Theft	14,807	15,498	17,771	19,259	20,646	18,848
Gambling and lotteries	1,444	1,379	1,144	1,405	1,652	1,838
Fraud and usurpation	5,175	5,441	5,990	6,792	7,372	8,097
Forgery of documents, negotiable securities and seals or stamps	495	484	500	508	451	381
Injury	1,460	1,402	1,561	1,528	1,523	1,494
Receiving stolen articles	303	350	340	516	544	418
Murder	490	558	666	684	709	642
Burglary	673	651	800	757	776	731
Incendiarism	444	613	772	818	758	701
Interference with the execution of official duties	55	97	83	94	94	48
Destruction and concealment of another man's property	14	11	9	18	18	25
Forgery of currency	26	31	50	68	46	24
Abortion	26	39	32	30	44	54
Obscenities, illicit sexual intercourse and bigamy	221	204	243	279	332	287
House-breaking	298	248	282	288	245	249
Perjury	37	38	38	46	43	38
False accusation	10	15	15	12	16	17
Others	438	437	442	442	555	573
Offences against Special Laws						
Criminal law of the army and navy	41	28	46	56	19	42
The forest law	40	37	40	37	43	30
The military service law	18	8	9	12	14	11
The mail and telegraphy law	7	7	5	2	5	—
Others	924	858	971	1,368	1,203	1,034
Police laws and prefectural laws	5,744	5,504	4,478	4,461	4,986	5,520
Total	33,190	33,938	36,287	39,480	42,094	41,093

VIII YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW CONVICTS ACCORDING TO THE TERM OF SERVITUDE

/ Year	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Penal Servitude							
Penal servitude for life	38	43	38	57	61	64	55
Over 15 years	5	20	52	38	56	45	45
Less than 15 years	55	57	58	68	53	63	38
Under 10 years	692	765	760	890	996	963	816
Under 5 years	1,693	1,764	1,723	2,046	2,309	2,300	2,154
„ 3 „	2,628	2,719	2,766	3,210	3,685	4,046	3,719
„ 2 „	5,244	5,560	5,745	6,840	7,479	8,462	7,640
„ 1 year	8,288	9,894	10,668	12,049	13,111	13,651	13,472
„ 6 months	3,686	4,390	4,464	4,638	5,033	5,306	5,282
„ 3 „	1,641	1,838	1,829	1,560	1,771	1,882	1,970
Total	23,970	27,050	28,103	31,396	34,554	36,782	35,191
Imprisonment							
For life	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Over 15 years	—	—	—	—	2	—	—
Less than 15 years	—	—	—	—	1	—	—
Under 10 years	—	—	—	—	3	—	—
Under 5 years	—	—	—	—	11	—	—
„ 3 „	1	—	—	—	1	—	3
„ 2 „	4	5	7	2	1	1	2
„ 1 year	2	11	6	3	5	4	5
„ 6 months	17	28	54	69	48	40	47
„ 3 „	110	316	249	304	368	238	313

/ Year	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Total	134	360	316	378	440	283	370
Detention	5,237	5,765	5,500	4,491	4,458	4,994	5,518
Death penalty	13	15	19	22	28	35	14
Total	29,354	33,190	33,938	36,287	39,480	42,094	41,093

IX YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW CONVICTS ACCORDING TO THE KIND OF CRIME

	1930		1931		1932	
	First Offenders	Recidivists	First Offenders	Recidivists	First Offenders	Recidivists
Theft	6,585	8,222	6,771	8,727	7,950	9,821
Burglary	455	215	436	207	541	248
Gambling and lotteries	931	513	856	523	721	423
Fraud and terrorism	2,133	1,734	2,264	1,861	2,669	1,992
Usurpation	933	375	974	342	1,001	328
Receiving stolen goods	216	87	225	125	229	111
Forgery of currency	19	7	21	10	39	11
Forgery of documents, seals or stamps	391	104	389	95	393	102
Obscenities, illicit sexual intercourse and bigamy	189	32	167	37	196	47
Injury	1,117	341	1,100	302	1,231	329
Murder	423	55	498	49	604	52
Abortion	23	3	34	5	25	7
Sedition	18	—	19	1	39	2
Incendiarism	423	21	567	46	727	45
Others	569	265	578	248	569	258
Offences against special laws	894	117	826	116	917	142
Total	15,319	12,091	15,725	12,694	17,851	13,923

	1933		1934		1935	
	First Offenders	Recidivists	First Offenders	Recidivists	First Offenders	Recidivists
Theft	8,610	10,649	8,148	12,498	7,271	11,577
Burglary	519	215	470	276	471	254
Gambling and lotteries	893	512	1,063	589	1,165	673
Fraud and terrorism	2,917	2,231	3,053	2,543	3,327	2,845
Usurpation	1,203	441	1,269	507	1,361	564
Receiving stolen goods	357	159	399	145	272	146
Forgery of currency	62	6	30	16	13	11
Forgery of documents, seals or stamps	388	120	334	117	297	84
Obscenities, illicit sexual intercourse and bigamy	252	27	293	39	333	45
Injury	1,178	350	1,156	367	1,107	387
Murder	606	73	636	68	560	74
Abortion	24	6	39	5	47	7
Sedition	43	3	9	—	1	—
Incendiarism	771	47	704	54	640	61
Others	582	272	604	291	538	325
Offences against special laws	1,332	146	895	165	636	199
Total	19,737	15,257	19,102	17,680	17,939	17,252

X YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW PRISONERS

Classes	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Convicts	33,190	33,938	36,287	39,480	42,094	41,093
Suspects	16,864	16,635	17,498	17,560	16,744	17,366

Classes	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Accused	34,413	33,737	36,533	37,125	39,078	41,226
Kept in the house of labour	7,909	9,658	11,272	10,851	10,747	10,072
Infants (a) born in prison	2	6	4	7	7	7
,, (b) taken in with mother	29	26	19	27	39	36
Total	92,407	94,000	101,613	106,519	108,709	109,800

Prison System

Historical Background

A short historical retrospect of our penal system will show that it is only in comparatively modern times that "Imprisonment" became the recognized method for the punishment of crime.

Up till recent times the idea at the root of the Japanese penal system was minatory. In other words, the so-called principle of general prevention by warning the people at large against the commission of crimes by imposing heavy punishments upon criminals was adopted. Accordingly, the punishments were principally capital and corporal and extremely cruel in character. For instance, the Criminal Code of the Yédo Period (1602–1867) recognized the exposing in public of the heads of persons executed; crucifying, burning at the stake and other similar cruel punishments were imposed. In those days the jails were used merely as places of detention for various offenders until their trial, not as places for reforming offenders. Imprisonment was a very unusual form of punishment, for prisons were unknown and imprisonment was not a legal penalty.

Exile and Banishment Punishments which brought loss of liberty for specified periods to the criminal were exile and banishment. Persons published with exile were sent to distant islands and places such as Satsuma, islands of the Goto group, Oki, Iki and Amakusa, and there they were forced to work under such miserable conditions that most of them died of starvation. Banishment was a penalty designed to expel persons convicted of crimes from certain fixed areas, and, as the result of the enforcement of this punishment in certain districts industries declined and farms and fields lay waste, giving rise to many social evils such as the increase in the number of ronin (masterless samurai), mushukumono (vagabonds) and other dangerous elements. In 1778, therefore, as a remedial measure, the Tokugawa Shogunate instituted the system of kozan-yékifu (mine labour) and, in 1790, that of ninsokuyoseba (places for the detention of convict-coolies). The system of kozan-yékifu dealt with vagabonds with no previous convictions. These were sent as coolies to pump water out of the Sado goldmine. In and after 1788, those who had been punished by flogging or branded as ex-convicts by tattoo marks and were homeless or those who, it was feared, might perpetrate crimes in the future were also sent there.

Prototype of Present Prisons The ninsoku-yoseba were to all intents and purposes the prototype of present day prisons and penal servitude. These places for the detention of convict- coolies were located at Ishikawajima and Tsukudajima in Yédo (Tokyo) and at Kamigo, Ibaraki prefecture, and there vagabonds and those who had been punished by flogging or branded as ex-convicts by tattoo marks were detailed to work as oil pressers or at other kinds of labour for a fixed wage, with the ulterior object of giving them such instruction and training as would fit them to lead the lives of respectable members of society. In and after 1820 those who were punished with banishment heavier than that from the confines of Yédo were put to forced labour for a fixed period of time in lieu of that punishment. Thus the ninsoku-yoseba, which had been instituted as workhouses for vagabonds, were turned into prisons for the reclamation of criminals through ordered life and labour. In its correctional idea ninsoku-yoseba was entirely identical with the London "Bridewell," which was established in England in 1550 "to punish, correct, and reform by labour of a diversified nature," and the Amsterdam workhouse (tuchthuis) founded at the end of the 16th century and well known for its motto, "Schrick niet ! ick wreeck geen quaet, maer dwing tot goedt, straf ist myn handt, mar lieflijck myn gemoedt." (Do not fear ! I will not take revenge upon you for your misdeed ; on the contrary, I wish to lead you to good. Although I am rigorous in handling you, my heart is filld with kindliness towards you.) In and after 1790 the prisoners detained in the ninsoku-yoseba who behaved well and showed notable signs of penitence were liberated on certain conditions and this may be taken as the

enforcement of provisional release of prisoners for the first time in Japan. When it is remembered that the system of provisional release of prisoners in Europe originated in a favoured release of prisoners from a convicts' colony in Australia in 1791, it is an interesting coincidence that the same system was inaugurated simultaneously both in the West and the East.

Improvement of 1872 In 1871, with a view to carrying out a great improvement in our prison system, the Emperor Meiji despatched the Vice-Director of Prisons, Mr. Jinsai Obara, to Hong Kong and Singapore to inspect and study the prison systems there, and, as a result, the Prison Regulations, the first written law concerning prisons in Japan, were promulgated in 1872. According to the provisions of these regulations, the reclamation and education of the inmates of prisons should be based on love and benevolence. At the beginning of the Regulations, it is stated: "Prison is a place for the incarceration of criminals for chastisement. They are placed there because of love and benevolence towards them and not because of any desire to inflict cruelty upon them; prison is intended for chastising them and not for subjecting them to hardships. Punishment is imposed on them because it is unavoidable and because it is a means of removing evil from the State. The authorities of prisons shall conscientiously observe this principle in treating prisoners." The Regulations were framed on a progressive system and on very advanced lines, but subsequently their operation was suspended for a time, and, in 1881, the Revised Prison Regulations were published. The Regulations were again revised in 1889, and with the revision of the Criminal Code in 1907 the existing Prison Law was enacted and published the following year.

Management of Prisons

Prisons are placed under the control of the Minister of Justice. Prior to 1900 they were under the control of the Minister of Home Affairs, but since that year they have come under the supervision of the Minister of Justice. With the transfer of affairs relating to prisons from the Department of Home Affairs to the Department of Justice, the Bureau of Prisons was established in the latter Department for the administration of matters concerning the execution of sentences, prisons, provisional releases of prisoners, and the identification of criminals by finger-prints. A director, several secretaries, a hygiene official of the Department, several clerks and three assistant-experts in finger-prints were appointed to conduct the business of the Bureau.

In 1935, there were 52 ordinary prisons, 3 reformatory prisons for minors, and 103 branch-prisons, and 1,215 detention rooms in police headquarters.

The kinds and regular number of prison officials in 1935 were as follows:

Governor	42
Assistant-governors	33
Doctors	135
Chaplains	141
Instructors	36
Industrial work experts	407
Pharmacists	10
Chief warders	441
(including 5 chief wardresses)	
Interpreters	3
Warders	6,473
Wardresses	127
Total	7,848

Prison superintendents are appointed from among officials ranking as governors and assistant-governors by the Minister of Justice, and branch-prison governors from among assistant governors and chief warders.

Classification

In the Japanese prison system there are four kinds of prisons: (1) prisons for those sentenced to penal servitude; (2) prisons for those sentenced to imprisonment; (3) houses of detention for persons destined to spend time in detention, and (4) prisons of confinement for (a) those sentenced to death, (b) those awaiting trial. In view of the different characters of these prisons, they should, in principle, be established independently of one another, and, in the case of their being erected in the same area, they are usually separated. At present, workhouses are not classified as prisons, but are attached to prisons for the sake of convenience.

Treatment of Prisoners

Object of Treatment As to what is the primary and fundamental purpose of punishment by imprisonment, nothing is stated in the Criminal Code or in the Prison Code now in force. Some Japanese jurists are of opinion that punishment must remain in its essence retributive and deterrent, and accordingly a prisoner must be made to expiate his offence by a dull, soulless, and monotonous servitude. But such new scholars of criminal law and penology as Dr.

Yeiichi Makino, Professor of Criminal Law, Tokyo Imperial University, Prof. Kameji Kimura and Dr. Akira Masaki, former Assistant Director, Bureau of Prisons, Department of Justice, interpret it as a form of education and emphasize its socializing effects. Be that as it may, Japanese juridical authorities have for more than ten years endeavoured to reform prisons on the latter principle. On April 4, 1924, Dr. Kisaburo Suzuki, the then Minister of Justice, declared at a meeting of officials connected with prisons and criminal affairs, "The enforcement of punishments consists in the adoption of such measures as may improve the quality of convicted persons and socialize them as good and law-abiding members of society." Further, at a meeting of the governors of prisons and reformatory prisons for minors, held on October 11, 1927, Kado Hara, the then Minister of Justice, gave the following instructions :

"The object of enforcing punishments on the inmates of prisons is to cause them to reflect on and repent their offences and to turn them into good members of society. There are many and various means of attaining this object, but they are, in the final analysis, to cultivate their character, to give them training for different occupations, and to maintain their health in good condition, while improving the circumstances which constitute the causes of their offences so as to enable them to lead a decent life. In order to realize the end aimed at, therefore, a mere confinement and watching of them is not sufficient ; on the contrary, it is necessary to know their individual characteristics and to inquire into and ascertain the motives and causes of their crimes, giving them thereby appropriate treatment."

Classification System Inasmuch as punishment by the restriction of presonal liberty is enforced today principally with a view to education, criminals are properly classified according to ages, characteristics, terms of imprisonment, numbers and kinds of offences, and are then confined in different prisons so as to facilitate the enforcement of adequate measures for their education in accordance with their categories and, further, to prevent prisons from becoming breeding-places of crime through mutual contact and contagion as the result of promiscuous confinement of all grades. When it is impossible to distribute them among independent prisons and they are confined in the same area, prisoners are usually classified strictly, and confined separately, according to their categories. There are prisons for minors at Odawara, Kawagoyé, Himéji, Okazaki, Iwakuni, Kurumé, Morioka, and Hochiojo, and in Hokkaido for the confinement of those under 18 years of age sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment, prisons for aged persons at Hamamatsu and Yonago and for women at Tochigi, Miyoshi and Miyazu. Further, there are prisons for the confinement of persons sentenced to terms of imprisonment exceeding 10 years at Kosugé, Takamatsu, Hiroshima, Okayama, Miyagi, and Abashiri ; the Abashiri agricultural prison is intended for training prisoners as agricultural labourers. At Uraga, located in an old warship anchored off the port, is a branch of the Odawara prison for minors. There juvenile offenders are given training as fishermen, and sometimes engage in coastal and deep-sea fish-vessels or steamers.

In addition to the above-mentioned classified confinement, with a view to proper individualized treatment, they are examined by doctors, alienists, psychologists and educationists to find out their psychopathic idiosyncrasies, hereditary natures, physiological peculiarities, adaptabilities to occupations, educational possibilities, etc. in different prisons previous to their confinement. Further, a "social diagnosis" is made by collecting reports on them from city, town and village offices, police stations, schools, and organizations devoted to their protection in order that they may be suitably classified for treatment.

Progressive System A treatment on the progressive system is accorded to convicts who form the bulk of the inmates of prisons. This treatment aims at leading them to repent and their treatment is graded in proportion to their aspiration and diligence, thereby gradually bringing them to the conditions of ordinary social life. The relaxation of the enforcement of penalties not merely extends the scope of the personal liberty of convicts, but serves to cultivate a sense of responsibility on their part and strengthens their will for self-reclamation. In short, its chief purpose is not to make "good convicts", but to turn them into "good citizens." The treatment in question does not apply to persons who are sentenced to imprisonment for less than 6 months, aged and decrepit persons, and those of unsound mental or physical faculties. Any prisoner committed for the first time is kept in solitary confinement for a certain period of time and a close study is made of him. On the basis of the results he is classified according to character, physical and mental con-

dition, number of convictions, age, nature of crimes, term of service, home, health and thought.

The Four Stages The stages of the progressive treatment are: (1) those under investigation; (2) those in course of correction and training; (3) those in process of improvement; and (4) those who have developed a sense of responsibility. After being subjected to a study of character, convicts are received into the first class to begin with. Those who are accorded this treatment are given fixed marks according to their terms of imprisonment and promotion to higher classes is given only when a sufficient number of marks have been earned by diligence, good conduct, and growth of the sense of responsibility and of the will for self-improvement. Those belonging to the first and second classes are kept in confinement in association, while those belonging to the third class are kept in confinement in association in the day time, but in solitary confinement at night, those belonging to the fourth class are confined in a special room.

The Treatment Governors of prisons may cause convicts in each workshop to elect some from among them to keep the workshop in good order and look after other necessary matters. The elected ones must be popular, trustworthy and belong to the third class. Prisoners belonging to the third class must jointly, once a month, carry out the work of cleaning and sweeping the prison grounds and keeping them in order. Except in cases of special need, prisoners belonging to the fourth class do not undergo physical examination or have their cells searched, and, further, are permitted to talk with one another so long as it does not interfere with the maintenance of discipline. They are also permitted to elect two representatives that they may express their desires to the authorities. These representatives are nominated by the governor of the prison concerned from among several candidates elected by prisoners belonging to the fourth class. Prisoners of the fourh class may be permitted to take walks in a place designated for that purpose in the prison grounds in hours of recess, or hold meetings, take walks in a group, or hold athletic meetings on days free from labour. They give a pledge to the governor, holding themselves responsible for the physical examination of those of their own class, for the search of their cells and keeping them in order, and the maintenance of order among themselves. In case of any one of them violating the pledge, the privileged treatment will be suspended for some or all of them. Any one of those belonging to the first class who earns more than ¥5.00 for labour may be permitted to use less than one-fifth of the monthly total in buying postage stamps and in other ways that are deemed necessary; any one of those belonging to the second class, less than one-fourth of the monthly total; any one of those belonging to the third class, less than one-third of the monthly total; and any one of those belonging to the fourth class, less than one-half of the monthly total. While those of the first class are not permitted to change the kinds of labour they engage in, those of he second class and up are permitted to do so. Those who have superior skill or high efficiency and belong to the third class are charged with the task of directing industrial work and those who are similarly qualified in the fourth class are given the task of directing and supervising it. Those of the third class who have particularly superior skill and high efficiency are permitted to work for their own profit in time other than working hours, but that time is limited to two hours per day.

Moral Education Prisoners belonging to the first and fourth classes are chiefly given individual moral and religious instruction, while those belonging to the second and third classes receive the same instruction en masse. Listening to music broadcast on the radio and listening to the playing of gramophone records is permitted to those belonging to the second and higher classes. The time for the enjoyment of this privilege is fixed at twice a month for those belonging to the second class, which may be increased to three times and four times for those belonging to the third and fourth classes respectively. The governor may permit members of the third and fourth classes to hold moral cultural meetings, the number of times being limited to once for those belonging to the third class and twice for those belonging to the fourth. Prisoners of the fourth class are permitted to read books or see pictures in the prison library on days free from labour, and may also borrow suitable newspapers and magazines from it. Those of the third and fourth classes may be permitted to play athletic games, the number of times for such amusements being limited to once a month for those of the third and twice for those of the fourth class. While those belonging to the first class

are permitted to interview or send letters only to their relatives and those who are concerned with their protection, those belonging to the second and higher classes are permitted to interview or send letters to those who do not interfere with their moral instruction, besides their relatives. The number of interviews and the number of letters that may be written increase in proportion to advances in class.

Provisions, drinks and other articles for the maintenance of the health of prisoners are uniform and do not differ according to classes. Those belonging to the fourth class are given white garments, are permitted to decorate their cells with flowers or pictures, and are lent table-ware and other sundry articles for common use.

Suspension of Progress In case any prisoner violates the prison regulations, the treatment on the progressive system may be suspended for up to a period of 3 months, but in case it is recognized that there are certain circumstances which have to be taken into consideration before the suspension or in case the prisoner shows signs of sincere penitence the enforcement of the the sentence of suspension may be postponed for a fixed period of time. If he further violates the prison regulations during that period, the sentence of suspension will be enforced, but if he passes the said period without any further violation it will not be carried out. Further, in case a prisoner shows marked signs of penitence after the sentence has been delivered, this will be taken into consideration and the sentence repealed in full or in part. In case a prisoner who has been punished with suspension of the treatment again violates the prison regulations, he may be transferred to a lower class according to the circumstances of the case. When a prisoner who has been punished with such degradation shows marked signs of penitence he will be restored to his former category without reckoning his marks.

When any person of the fourth class has served one-third of his term of imprisonment and the prison governor considers him fit for provisional release his case should be reported on to the Minister of Justice. Even one who belongs to lower classes and who has served one-third of his term and shows notable signs of penitence and is considered to be fully adapted to social life may be specifically granted provisional release, subject to the approval of the conference for provisional treatment on the progressive system.

Prison Labour

Paragraph 2 of the Japanese Criminal Code provides : " Any convict sentenced to penal servitude shall be detained in a prison and subjected to a fixed amount of labour." This " fixed amount of labour constitutes prison labour. It is not legally imposed on convicts punished with imprisonment or custody, but its imposition is permitted in case they desire it. Since the institution of the ninsoku-yoseba at Ishikawajima hard labour has been recognized as an essential part of the discipline of prisoners, and present-day criminal theory in Japan is opposed to punishment by the restriction of personal liberty without the imposition of hard labour. Accordingly, prison authorities are encouraging industrial work at their own request by prisoners punished with imprisonment or custody.

The Three Systems Industrial work in prisons is managed on three systems, viz.: the public account system, the " made-to-order " system, and the contract system. Under the public account system, a prison itself purchases materials, provides itself with the necessary machinery, implements and tools and makes prisoners manufacture or repair articles or carry on labour under the direction of prison officials, and sells the products. Under the " made-to-order " system, the chief materials are supplied by the outside buyers and prisoners either manufacture or repair articles under the direction of industrial work experts and assistant industrial work experts on the prison staff, and when the articles are either manufactured or repaired the wages of the workers and the cost of requisites in the manufacture or repair are calculated and the prices of the articles fixed by the standard of current prices. The articles are then delivered to the buyers on payment of the account. Under the contract system, applicants have to supply not only materials, machinery, implements and tools, but also experts for the direction of work, a prison only offering the labour of prisoners and receiving their wages in exchange. Under the contract system now in force in Japan, the prison authorities undertake the supply of provisions, etc. to prisoners, as well as undertaking their supervision and selection for work, and nothing like the lease system that was in vogue in South American countries at one time is recognized.

Among the above-mentioned three different systems, the public account system does not permit any third party

other than prison officials to direct prisoners in the prosecution of their work as in the case of the contract system and, moreover, enables the prison authorities to select and impose on prisoners such kinds of work as are suited for their moral instruction and vocational education. In these respects, it is considered to be the most desirable for the enforcement of penological measures and its adoption is greatly encouraged.

Training for Occupations In imposing work on prisoners, the most suitable kinds of work are given them not only by taking into consideration health, economy, terms of imprisonment, ability, occupations in free life, and future means of livelihood, but also by scientifically examining their individual adaptabilities to occupations. Industrial work in prisons is the most suitable means of giving moral instruction to prisoners; in particular, training them in certain lines of work in the course of detention is the best way to prevent them from perpetrating crimes once again. Since 1926, therefore, houses for the training of prisoners for occupations have been erected in different prisons throughout the country and there prisoners have been trained for occupations requiring special skill, such as those of carpenters, joiners, furniture-makers, tin-smiths, plasterers, timber-mill workers, painters, smiths, shoemakers, etc. The term of training is 6 months, during which fundamental theories and practice are taught.

Rewards Given as Favours Working hours are from 12 to 13 hours a day and differ according to months. It is permitted to give educational or moral instruction to prisoners or allow them to take exercise within these hours. A time of recess—15 minutes in the morning and 25 minutes in the afternoon—is given them. All the income from the work of prisoners goes into the national treasury, irrespective of whether it arises from work or from wages. A prisoner who has worked may receive a reward as a favour. This gratuity varies from ¥0.20 to ¥10.00 per month and the sums are fixed according to conduct, character, kinds of work, and the results of the work done. Any one who does particularly superior work is given an additional reward not exceeding ¥10.00. The reward for his work is, in principle, not given a prisoner until he is released from prison, but (1) in case a prisoner is entitled to ¥10.00 a month or more, and the money is needed to support his father, mother, wife, child, or to compensate the sufferer from his crime, or to purchase books or other necessary articles, one-third of the amount may be given him while in confinement, and (2) in case it is particularly necessary to do so for the sake of a prisoner, the entire reward may be handed over to him, irrespective of its amount and the way of spending it. In case a prisoner has been injured or has fallen sick while at work, and has died in consequence or has become unable to carry on any work, he may be entitled to a pecuniary reward according to the circumstances of the case. This reward is fixed within the limit of from ¥50 to ¥180 according to the details of the case.

The Hito Prisoners are given moral instruction en masse on national holidays, on the first two days of January and the 31st of December, or on Sundays. The same instruction is also given prisoners individually in case it is deemed necessary. It is chiefly given by chaplains appointed from among priests of the Shinshu sect. Adult prisoners who are uneducated and those under age receive an elementary school education. The latter are also given military training, which gives very satisfactory results in the way of moral instruction. Prisoners are permitted to read books and look at maps and pictures, unless it is injurious to the good order of the prison, but writings concerning current topics are forbidden. As, however, it is needful to keep them acquainted with changes in the condition of society, lest they should fall behind the times, a specially edited newspaper, "Hito," (Man) is issued and distributed among them.

Aid of Discharged Prisoners

In its initial stage of development, the aid of discharged prisoners was largely undertaken by the Government. As already stated, the systems of "kozan-yékifu" and of "ninsoku-yoseba" were the origin of punishment by the restriction of personal liberty and incidentally of Government provision for the protection of ex-convicts. After the Meiji Restoration, in 1881, a system called "betsubo-ryuchi" (detention of discharged prisoners in separate quarters) was instituted, under which discharged prisoners who, after the expiration of their terms of sentence, had no one to go to, were detained in special quarters in prisons to enable them to make a living and to be protected by the authorities. As, subsequently, the number of these ex-convicts increased, this system had to be abolished in 1888, but feeling that if those who had served their terms and

had no one to look to or live with were allowed to live as they were inclined after their liberation, they might, it was feared, again lead a life of crime, the Government encouraged charitably disposed persons to carry on work for their welfare. Thus the aiding of discharged prisoners by individuals and private organizations grew in scope.

The Organizations Among these organizations, one noted for its systematic constitution and management was the Shutsu-gokunin Hogo Kaisha (Ex-Convicts Protection Co.) established by Mr. Meizen Kinbara in Shizuoka prefecture. In 1907, the Government decided to make an appropriation of ¥10,000 from the national treasury every year for the encouragement of the work and later, in 1912, the sum was increased to ¥30,000. With the development of the work the number of organizations grew and was returned at 211 throughout the country at the end of 1912. In 1913, Baron Hachiroyemon Mitsui, head of the House of Mitsui, donated ¥750,000 to the work, and with this money the Hosei-Kai, a foundation, was established for the control of, and extension of help to, various organizations interested in the work throughout the country. In 1925, the Government subsidy was increased to ¥100,000, and since 1923, the Imperial House has made an annual grant to encourage the work, with the result that the work has made steady development, the organizations today number approximately 800.

The Beneficiaries The persons protected by these organizations are not limited to those who have served the terms of their sentence, but include those who have been provisionally released; those, whose prosecution is suspended; those, the enforcement of whose sentence is suspended; and those who have been released from punishment for minor offences; as well as the members of the families of those who are detained in prisons. The method of protection is roughly classified into (a) quarters and protection, (b) indirect protection, and (c) temporary protection. Those to whom the method (a) is applied are quartered in places specially selected by the above-mentioned organizations and are given board, lodging and clothes as well as employment. Those to whom the method (b) is applied are not directly protected, but visits are paid to their fixed places of residence from time to time so as to give them advice and suggestions. Those to whom the method (c) is applied are given only temporary help at the time of liberation from prisons such as providing them with clothes and other necessaries and journey money.

Today, there exists in the Department of Justice the Section for the Protection of Ex-Prisoners which undertakes the direction and supervision of the welfare work of various associations, but as it cannot be expected that a small Section can thoroughly undertake such wide-spread work, it is increasingly advocated in different quarters that a system for the promotion of the welfare of ex-convicts should be instituted and the work connected therewith conducted by the State.

Police System

Its Fundamentals

There are two aims of the national administration. One is the administration of political affairs for the direct benefit of the nation as a whole, and the other is to protect the public welfare of the individuals who compose the nation. The function of the police is to look after the latter. There is a judicial function of the police that goes side by side with the first one, but the principal significance of the establishment of the police system is in its protection of public welfare. The work it performs can be considered more in a negative aspect than a positive one for it does not promote welfare work so much as it prevents and roots out matters which are, or may be, detrimental to peaceful social life. The police are endowed with authority to enforce the law or to give orders to the people. Police authority forms a part of the sovereign power of the State.

Authority Vested in State In Japan police authority is entirely invested in the State and is not delegated to other public bodies. In European countries, there are commonly the State police and the local police, the latter being under the jurisdiction of local authorities. In Japan all the police come under the direct administration of the State and no chiefs of local governments or local governments themselves have power over them except in a very few limited subjects. The police are administered in the name of the Emperor by the Minister of Mome Affairs through the Superintendent-General of the Metropolitan Police, in Tokyo pre-

fecture, governors of other prefectures and the Hokkaido procurator. Although nominally under the Governor of Tokyo prefecture, the Superintendent-General of the Metropolitan Police Board in Tokyo takes his orders direct from the Home Minister as the Board has many political responsibilities unknown in other prefectures. The appointment is actuarly a political one, the ordinary police business being carried out by the Chief of Police. In the Hokkaido and other prefectures the highest police official is the Chief of the Police Division. Under the Chiefs of Police are the police superintendents, inspectors, assistant inspectors and policemen. A police superintendent is appointed chief of a police station or secretary of a Police Division, or in Tokyo and Osaka prefectures he may be appointed inspector over several police stations. A police inspector or an assistant police inspector may, in some cases, be appointed chief or seretary of a police station. Policemen are divided into sergeants, indoor and outdoor service men, special service men, and police-detectives.

As mentioned above, police officials carry out judicial functions, and when acting in the capacity of judicial police officials and under the dictates of the public procurators they execute warrants of arrest or detention and arrest persons in flagrant offence. They may seize private possessions or search a house by order of a Court of Justice, an examining judge or a public procurator, or help a public procurator in the investigation of criminal cases.

In Times of Peace and Crisis In times of peace the maintenance of public order rests with the police. Individual policemen wear sabres. Pistols are carried only in special cases though in the police force there are troops of armed constables, while if matters become too serious and on special occasions, the gendarmerie is called on for help. The gendarme is a kind of military policeman, but at such times as the police force is too weak to keep public order, a Governor may ask for the aid of the gendarmerie. Moreover, at a time of crisis or extraordinary social disturbance, the army takes the place of the usual police force and acts with a despotic authority without limitation of the Law. The occasions which may call forth the military power for keeping public order are as follows : (1) when the country or a district is placed under martial law in times of war, (2) when a district is put under martial law for the maintenance of public order, (3) when the governor asks for the help of the army for subduing social disturbances, and (4) when a Divisional Commander recognizes the need of military power for keeping local order in an emergency in which the request from other authorities is too late.

Police Business

Police business in Japan is many-sided, and may be classified into 4 main lines and 24 kinds :

Public Peace (a) supervision of publications. The publication of all kinds of printed matter should be reported and a copy of each must be sent to the authorities. Secret publication is strictly forbidden. A sum of money as guarantee of good faith has to be deposited by the publishers of newspapers or periodicals which deal with political problems. The name of the person responsible for any publication must be printed on the publication. Secret matters which come under the control of the public procurators, the Ministers of War and Marine, and the Minister of Foreign Affairs must not be reported in newspapers or periodicals. The Home Minister may prohibit the publication of a periodical or any other printed matter which he considers detrimental to public welfare and morals.

(b) Supervision and care of public meetings, organization of societies and mass movements. According to the Public Peace Police Law, all public meetings on political questions and some other meetings which come under control of the authorities must be reported to a police-station beforehand. A policeman may be present at such a meeting and may stop a speech or close the meeting. The organization of such associations or societies as may endanger the existing form of Government and system of private property is strictly forbidden. The said P. P. P. Law inflicts heavy penalties on those who break these regulations.

(c) Supervision of businesses or commercial shops. Most businesses are free, but in some cases some kind of police supervision is necessary in the interests of public welfare, hygiene, prevention of damage, the safety of traffic, and social economy. For instance, such shops and businesses as inns, public baths, employment exchanges for geisha and prostitutes, credit information businesses, barbers, seal or stamp engravers, old clothes dealers, peddlers and stall-holders are inspected or taken care of by the police. Pawnshops and curio or second-hand shops are under special regulations and police inspection and

supervision is thoroughly practised as many stolen articles find their way into these shops, and lead to excellent results in the arrest of thieves and burglars. Guides, scribes and employment exchanges for profit are also under special regulations and strict supervision.

(d) Religion. It is the duty of the police to prevent the desecration of shrines and breaches of the peace in temple grounds. Superstitions and superstitious actions are prohibited by the Police Penal Law.

(e) Accidents. The police take charge in cases of fire, flood, explosion, of people being injured, etc. Regulations are issued on the handling of guns and explosives; the wearing of swords or the like is strictly forbidden; the handling or selling of poison is under a special regulation. Sulphur and oil businesses are under police care also. Buildings are under police supervision for their beauty, fire-proofness, and hygiene; factories, warehouses, theatres, and public resorts receive special attention. Crematories, slaughter-houses and incinerators must not be within residential or commercial districts of cities. Regulations regarding buildings are stricter than in Western countries because of the large number of wooden houses liable to fire and the constant fear of earthquakes. Electricity and gas businesses must not endanger the lives of people. Mines are under a special police regulation as they are most liable to fatal accidents. Prevention of floods also comes into the sphere of police business.

For the prevention and extinction of fires, fire-brigades are established in cities under the control of the Chief of the Police Division in the prefecture. In Tokyo prefecture, a fire division is established in the Metropolitan Police Board and firebrigade stations are located in different parts of Tokyo. In the larger cities, Osaka, Kyoto, Yokohama, Kobé and Nagoya special fire-brigade stations are established by the State. In the smaller municipalities fireguilds are established at the expense of local self-governments. The firemen are volunteers and differ from those in the said cities who are officials of the State.

(f) Public morals. The police look after the maintenance of good public manners and morals. Japan has a licensed prostitute system and forbids private prostitution and conniving at it. Through the efforts of Christian and other religious and public bodies and the growth of other means of pleasure, prostitution is growing less, but it is a duty of the police to see that the prostitutes are treated as humanely as possible as long as their term of service exists. All pleasure resorts such as theatres, places of performances, wrestling, movies, etc. are carefully supervised and any obscene or immoral performances prohibited.

Restaurants, dining rooms, bars, cafes and other eating places are under police supervision. The laws for prohibiting liquors and smoking to minors, the prohibition of lotteries, misbehaviour in the street or outdoors, and the regulations regarding street advertisements and the erection of monuments must be enforced.

(g) The care of men who are a danger to public peace and welfare, juveniles who are addicted to bad habits, ticket-of-leave men, the insane, beggars and vagrants are supervised by the police.

(h) Actions which may harm others such as forcing an interview, extorting contributions, blackmail, causing disturbances, obstruction, etc., are forbidden by the Police Penal Law. Deceitful actions, spreading false reports, and the mishandling of dead bodies come under the care of the police. Obstructing officials in pursuit of their duty is strictly forbidden. The care of lost articles, prohibition of deceitful religious actions, the supervision of "mujin-ko" and "tanomoshi-ko" or mutual financing associations come under police power to some extent.

Public Hygiene The problem of the health and hygiene of the people is one of the greatest concerns of the Department of Home Affairs, and in many points the responsibility of looking after such cannot be confined to the police alone, though in its direct management the police have much to do.

(a) Prevention of epidemics. For the prevention of epidemics there are many laws in force, the most important of them being the Epidemic Prevention Law, the Regulation for the Medical Inspection of Aviators, the Seaport Quarantine Law, the Vaccination Law, the Tuberculosis Prevention Law, the Trachoma Prevention Law, the Leprosy Prevention Law, the Venereal Diseases Prevention Law and the Parasites Prevention Law. The water police help in the medical inspection of passengers and goods arriving in vessels from abroad. The annual compulsory cleaning of individual houses and public buildings, drains, wells, dumping grounds, etc. is supervised by the police. When an epidemic breaks out policemen are used to try and confine it to as small an area as possible.

(b) Medical. As the health and wel-

fare of the people depend on proper medical attention, doctors, dentists, midwives, nurses, masseurs and acupuncturists are under special regulations, as also are druggists and pharmacists. Poisonous chemicals are well looked after.

(c) General Health. A law is in force prohibiting the sale of unwholesome food, and utensils for eating, drinking and preparing food are under police supervision. (See Chapter XXXII.)

Traffic Police (a) Road. The police are responsible for safety on the streets. "Walk and drive on the left" is the rule of the road in Japan.

(b) Vehicles. Railroads, electric cars, automobiles, trucks, waggons, rikishas, bicycles, etc. are under police supervision.

(c) Water police. The water police look after foreign-going vessels entering and leaving open ports, navigation in closed ports, rivers and lakes, and the business of steamship companies doing a coastal trade.

(d) Ocean navigation has many international ramifications and though there are countless matters which ought to come under police supervision it is separated from common police business and put under the administration of the Department of Communications.

(e) The aviation police are put under the management of the Minister of Communications.

(f) Colonial police come under the control of the Minister of Overseas Affairs except in some cases which may come under the supervision of local governments.

Police and the People

The function of the State, as far as it concerns the economic life of the people is largely protective and administrative and certain laws and ordinances of the State have to be imposed on various businesses in order that the people shall be fully protected. The police work by orders from higher authorities at the request of the Ministers of Agriculture and Forestry, Commerce and Industry, and Finance.

(a) Banks, savings banks, mutual financing associations, negotiable security businesses, trust businesses, insurance businesses, commercial exchanges, the central wholesale markets in the six largest cities, foreign trade business in important articles, weighing and measuring machine businesses, and auditors partially are under police supervision or limitations.

(b) Agriculture is supervised by the police in such matters as the prevention of the spread of noxious insects, the control of plants imported or exported, the fertilizer industry, agricultural warehouses, the sericulture industry and the control of rice imports and exports.

(c) The hygiene and prevention of epidemics among domestic animals is looked after by the police. Many laws are enforced regarding the improvement of animals, and police power is needed for a proper practice of them, especially in connection with horse-racing.

(d) Forestry police mainly prevent damage to the forests.

(e) Fishery police protect the propagation of aquatic animals and at the same time look after the safety of the fishermen. There are many laws and regulations on fisheries, whale-fishing, fishing boats, etc.

(f) The hunting of beasts and birds is limited to those mentioned in the revised Game Laws of 1918, the seasons and districts of hunting are put under police regulation.

(g) For the protection of labourers there are numerous laws in force, for instance, the Factory Law, Laws on the limitation of age of factory or marine workers, the Labour Accident Prevention Law, the Mine Law, and the Ordinance regarding the enlistment of workers. Policemen either help factory or mine inspectors or directly handle matters mentioned in these laws. Labour movements and disputes call for the use of police power frequently.

POLICE STATISTICS

	1932	1933	1934	1935
Police offices:				
Police stations	1,209	1,199	1,200	1,201
Water-Police stations	23	24	24	24
Branch stations	4,421	4,551	4,644	4,672
Police-boxes	14,292	14,056	14,147	14,180
Police officials:				
Police superintendents	317	339	339	346
Police inspectors	1,642	1,632	1,632	1,632
Assistant police inspectors	3,568	3,604	3,627	3,661
Policemen	62,256	63,439	63,974	64,548
Total	64,267	65,462	65,997	66,578

	1932	1933	1934	1935
Fire-brigade stations	217	218	228	232
Fire-brigade officials	3,789	3,812	3,873	3,893
Firemen	12,674	12,674	12,559	12,486
Total	16,030	16,486	16,432	16,379
Fire-guilds	10,963	11,211	11,362	11,446
Volunteer firemen	1,981,592	2,035,491	2,087,907	2,105,874
Criminal cases handled by police,				
Cases reported	2,210,465	2,713,729	2,925,557	—
Persons arrested	2,161,255	2,665,497	2,893,135	—
Suicides:				
Successful, men	11,250	10,945	10,860	—
women	6,499	6,582	6,379	—
Unsuccessful, men	2,733	3,945	3,944	—
women	2,152	2,758	2,765	—
Murder, Manslaughter, etc.	1,416	1,439	1,692	—
Traffic accidents:				
Cases	71,221	68,823	69,342	66,415
Killed	2,801	2,572	3,226	3,549
Wounded	49,250	46,338	50,204	49,227
Places of Entertainment:				
Theatres, buildings	—	1,878	1,899	1,898
Performences	—	33,217	31,967	31,593
Cinemas, buildings	—	1,459	1,458	1,508
Shows	—	76,118	78,497	82,540
Variety houses	—	587	526	507
Performances	—	16,302	16,063	16,037
Miscellaneous shows	—	59	65	73
Performances	—	12,544	12,444	11,689
Shops and houses under police supervision:				
(Items less than 10,000 are omitted)				
Pawn shops	13,628	13,300	12,738	12,585
Dealers in second-hand articles	261,969	270,968	283,873	294,297
Hotels	50,186	49,552	48,851	48,676
Boarding houses	10,290	10,436	10,902	11,916
Doss-houses	14,451	14,442	13,959	13,954
Restaurants	61,261	63,084	61,349	61,107
Cafés and bars	30,598	35,200	37,056	36,202
Geisha houses	21,040	20,949	21,197	21,612
Bath-houses	21,743	22,235	21,701	21,391
Eating houses	159,393	159,340	159,823	156,211
Employment exchanges	12,403	12,879	11,736	11,175
Printing houses	13,616	13,705	14,162	14,860
Barber's shops	74,051	74,694	74,687	75,944
Women's hair-dressers	57,764	55,095	53,314	51,154
Recreation houses	21,623	20,398	20,683	22,794
Building contractors	28,969	31,125	36,179	28,823
Shipping agents	11,448	11,839	12,250	12,307
Waggon-business men	143,788	149,446	148,881	142,977
Taxicab garages	20,776	23,381	27,898	28,972
Scribes	18,079	18,640	18,977	18,440
Bicycle dealers	36,664	37,676	39,545	40,850
Rikishamen	25,133	20,468	17,346	14,926
Factories	68,435	74,701	82,412	90,065
Licensed prostitution houses	10,500	10,281	9,738	9,526
Geisha girls, etc.				
Geisha	74,999	74,200	72,538	74,855
"Saké" waitresses	85,951	85,590	85,121	82,621
Café and bar waitresses	89,549	99,312	107,478	109,335
Prostitutes	51,557	49,302	45,705	45,837

	1932	1933	1934	1935
Cinema films, inspected:				
Totol number of metres,	17,377,332	16,198,963	18,223,908	20,029,092
Japanese	14,987,834	13,722,236	15,322,117	16,651,811
American	1,956,674	2,035,822	2,278,121	2,431,976
European	432,824	440,905	623,670	945,305
Natural calamities and fires				
Flood:				
Municipalities struck	4,856	3,607	6,325	—
Flooded areas (ha.)	1,299,577	215,063	249,591	—
Buildings damaged	15,696	305	386,334	—
Boats lost	543	136	5,887	—
Persons drowned	151	18	973	—
Persons injured	476	22	5,529	—
Damages in yen	48,249,662	9,332,576	389,777,809	—
Tidal waves:				
Municipalities struck	171	489	333	—
Buildings damaged	790	19,974	6,034	—
Boats lost	358	11,266	2,107	—
Persons drowned	—	2,848	127	—
Persons injured	3	1,146	958	—
Damages in yen	295,616	19,943,549	4,580,944	—
Typhoons:				
Buildings damaged	19,255	19,867	42,763	—
Persons killed	103	67	201	—
Persons injured	170	83	786	—
Damages in yen	16,537,350	7,604,146	75,649,789	—
Fires:				
Number of fires	18,501	19,380	20,481	—
Dwellings damaged	18,007	12,488	23,717	—
Other buildings damaged	13,116	10,864	14,112	—
Damages in yen	60,539,000	34,935,000	171,922,000	—

CHAPTER XXVIII

EDUCATION

Historical Background

Chinese letters and Confucian books were first introduced to Japan in the third century, and it was then that the civilization of the country made a real start. From the nearby peninsula of Korea came sericulture, weaving, brewing, and the art of the blacksmith. It was about his time that the Imperial Prince Wakairatsuko established a Court School.

In the sixth century Buddhism came to the Island Empire to give added material progress to the Japanese civilization, and in 607 the Imperial Prince Shotoku-taishi (see Chapter III) caused the Horyuji Temple to be built at Nara and there he established a shcool in the temple. These were the earliest schools of Japan.

In the latter half of the seventh century a college in the capital and some provincial schools were established to educate officials, according to the Taiho Laws. Later, in the Heian Age, the courses of study became encyclopædic and both public and private schools were established. In the Muromachi Age school education suffered a decline and only two places of study were recorded, namely, the Kanazawa Library and Ashikaga School, although there might have been private lecture halls kept secretly by scribes and Buddhist monks.

The Tokugawa Shogunate encouraged the study of Confucianism and several schools of this moral system and Chinese philosophy were introduced, and education extended to the common people. There were established many schools; the highest one was called the Shohei Hill Academy or Shohei School, which was established by the Shogunate. The central government had many other schools, while each local clan government also had its own schools. In addition to these, private schools and "tera-koya" appeared all over the country for the education of the people in general

"Tera-Koya" Education

The "tera-koya" needs some special explanation, as it played the most important part in the education of the masses before the Meiji Era, and laid the foundation for the remarkable progress of elementary education in new Japan.

The word "tera" means Buddhist temple and "koya" children's house, so the tera-koya was a school for children established by a Buddhist temple. It was originated many years before the time of the Tokugawa Shogunate by Buddhist monks. Side by side with Governmental schools for the samurai class, tera-koya education began to spread in the Yedo age among the common folks in business and farm quarters. It gradually ceased to be entirely in the hands of the monks, and assumed a form and nature quite different from the original.

The school-house was no longer in or attached to a temple; teaching was not restricted to the monks; the teacher might be a samurai, monk, doctor or Shinto priest. "Tera-koya" became merely a general name, and the founders tera-koya schools chose any name they liked for their own. The size of the schools was diverse, the largest one accommodating as many as two or three hundred pupils. There was rarely more than one teacher, but in the larger schools there might be an assistant. The age of the pupils ranged from 6 to 15 years. It was co-education, although the sexes sat apart. The courses of study were commonly penmanship, Japanese literature, and the use of the abacus, with such optional subjects as Chinese literature, poem composition, sewing, flower-arrangement or tea ceremonies. Many textbooks on moral precepts and letter writing were published and used in these schools. These schools were usually kept up largely out of the pocket of the school master himself, for his work was entirely voluntary, inspired by pure devotion to service, for which he gained the honour and respect of the community. According to the report of the Department of Education, there were 15,862 tera-koya in Japan at the beginning of the Meiji Era, or just before the establishment of the new elementary school system.

It must be remembered also that technical schools had made considerable progress in old Japan. Medical schools

in particular were established in the Taiho Era, and medical science made steady progress toward the middle of the Yedo Age. The Tokugawa Shogunate established a medical school in 1765, and local clan lords followed this example. There were several private ones well known to the people. But these taught the Chinese method of the science, and the "materia medica" was almost entirely of herbs and animal matter. The modern or Western medical and its system and practice were introduced through Dutchmen at the end of the Yedo Era, so we may say that medical science was the earliest of all the sciences that were learned by the Japanese people from the Westerners.

Educational Administration

The present educational system of Japan dates from 1872 the 5th year of Meiji, when elementary education was made compulsory. The new system was established, in the main, after the examples of the French system, and the entire country was divided into 7 university districts, each of them consisting of 32 middle school districts and each of which was again divided into 210 primary school districts, or one primary school for 600 of population. The national educational principles are stated in the Imperial Rescript on Education issued on Oct. 30, 1890. This world-renowned rescript was published to lay down leading ideas and principles for the guidance of the Japanese, and it reads as follows :

"Know ye, Our Subjects !

Our Imperial Ancestors have founded Our Empire on a basis broad and everlasting and have deeply and firmly implanted virtue; Our subjects, ever united in loyalty and filial piety, have from generation to generation illustrated the beauty thereof. This is the glory of the fundamental character of Our Empire, and herein also lies the source of Our education. Ye, Our subjects, be filial to your parents, affectionate to your brothers and sisters ; as husbands and wives be harmonious, as friends true ; bear yourselves in modesty and moderation ; extend your benevolence to all ; pursue learning and cultivate arts, and thereby develop your intellectual faculties and perfect your moral powers ; furthermore, advance the public good and promote common interests ; always respect the Constitution and observe the laws ; should any emergency arise, offer yourselves courageously to the State ; and thus guard and maintain the prosperity of Our Imperial Throne, coeval with heaven and earth. So shall ye not only be Our good and faithful subjects, but render illustrious the best traditions of your forefathers.

The way here set forth is indeed the teaching bequeathed by Our Imperial Ancestors, to be observed alike by Their Descendants and subjects, infallible for all ages and true in all places. It is Our wish to lay it to heart in all reverence, in common with you, Our subjects, that we may all thus attain to the same virtue."

The 30th day of the 10th month of the 23rd year of Meiji.
(Imperial Sign Manual)
(Imperial Seal)

All school education in Japan is supervised by the State, being partly entrusted to local public bodies such as the prefectural councils, towns and villages.

Private individuals are also allowed to found schools and universities, although here too the Government does not give much latitude of method or scope, and the uniformity of school education in all parts of the Empire has worked well in bringing the degree of advancement in modern ways and thought to almost the same level throughout the land, and greatly strengthening the national spirit and unity of the people.

The points entrusted to local public bodies are chiefly financial matters, pertaining to the establishment and maintenance of schools, some of which are obligatory while some are left to the discretion of local bodies. The obligatory matters are the establishment by Hokkaido and the prefctures of normal schools, middle schools for boys and girls, schools for the blind and for the deaf-and-dumb, technical schools by order of the Minister of Education, and that of ordinary elmentary schools by cities, towns and villages. Municipalities may not establish higher normal schools, and Hokkaido and the prefectures alone are authorized to establish universities, higher schools and normal schools.

The main principles regarding the nature and objects of schools, their scholastic terms, curricula, organizations, entrance qualifications, qualifications for the teachers, equipment, means of meeting the expenditure, and tuition fees are prescribed by Imperial Ordinances. The establishment of schools

by public bodies or private individuals must be approved by he local supervising authorities, which also exercise control to a certain extent over their methods of education and finances.

Religion is, on principle, excluded from the educational agenda of schools. In all schools established by the Government and local public bodies, and in private schools whose curricula are regulated by laws and ordinances, it is forbidden to give religious instruction or to hold religious ceremonies either in or out of the regular curricula.

Education in the colonies comes under the control or the colonial governments, and the military schools belong to the War and the Navy Departments, while there are some technical schools which come under the supervision of oher Departments. But with these exceptions, it may be safely said that the Miniister of Education has charge of all matters relating not only to school education, but also to what may be termed social education, such as art, science, literature and religion. He is assisted by the parliamentary councillor in the conduct of political affairs and in matters which are connected with the business of the Imperial Diet. The vice-minister assists him in the business part of the Department.

Of the affairs within the jurisdiction of the Department, those that are related to education, art, science, and literature are distributed respectively among the Bureaux of Higher Education, General Education, Technical Education, Social Education, School Books, and Student Control, and those pertaining to religion are under the direction of the Bureau of Religion. Those affairs which do not properly belong to any one of these bureaux are dealt with in the Minister's Secretariat. In addition there are school superintendents, who inspect schools and directly supervise educational affairs; supervisors of social education who direct and supervise social educational affairs; superintendents of compilation who compile and examine text-books; and supervisors of school hygiene who look after the sanitary conditions of schools. Various advisory committees with prominent men in and out of office as members are instituted to help the Minister of Education in matters of wider scope.

The Minister of Education is authorized to direct and supervise the Superintendent of the Metropolitan Police and the local governors in matters under his control.

The prefectural governors direct and supervise their subordinate officials and exercis supervision over the public and private schools, kindergartens and libraries within their jurisdictions. There is a Division of Educational Affairs in each prefecture which has control of matters relating to education. School inspectors and sub-inspectors in it inspect schools and conduct educational business directly.

The mayors of cities and towns and the heads of villages deal with affairs regarding elementary schools and exercise control over them. The mayors of cities, moreover, have authority to make recommenations to prefectural governors in the appointment of the principals and teachers elementary schools. The municipalities have school boards to look after elementary schools.

School Education

As is shown in the following tables, Japan is well provided with schools, ranging from kindergartens up to universities. Almost all the elementary schools are controlled by public bodies.

Conditions are different when we come to secondary education, for which there exist a considerable number of private schools, and in the case of schools of the highest grade the private establishments quite outrange in number those under official control.

Only 18 out of the 45 existing universities were built by the Government, 2 by public bodies and the rest by private bodies.

The total number of schools in Japan proper and their enrolment in the last five years, 1931–1935, is shown below :

Year	Schools	Students
1935	46,138	14,035,823
1934	45,903	13,760,200
1933	45,793	13,408,971
1932	45,766	13,073,854
1931	45,898	12,847,730

Classified according to types, the number of schools in Japan proper in March, 1935, with the number of students enrolled, was follows :

	Schools	Students
Elementary Schools	25,771	11,232,076
Middle Schools	555	330,992
Girls' High Schools	970	388,935
Business Schools	1,069	342,914
Business Continuation Schools	15,306	1,281,814
Higher Schools	32	18,905
Universities	45	71,162
Colleges	117	70,083
Higher Trade and In-		

	Schools	Students
dustrial Colleges	56	24,112
Normal Schools	102	30,420
Higher Normal Schools	2	1,775
Higher Normal Schools for Women	2	869
Special Institutes for the Training of Teachers	1	57
Institutes for the Training of Business School Teachers	4	356
Institutes for the Training of Business Continuation School Teachers	45	1,055
Schools for the Blind Schools for the Deaf and Dumb	140	9,907
Miscellaneous Schools	1,921	230,394
Total	45,903	13,760,200
Kindergartens	1,862	143,469
Young Mens' Training Institutes	15,795	818,681

The figures for schools refer to those existing on March 31, while the figures for students refer to those on March 1.

Elementary Education

Elementary education in Japan is compulsory and has attained to its present high level of excellence through many improvements since the promulgation of the School Ordinance in 1872. In the Imperial Ordinance relating to Elementary Schools the object of elementary education is defined as follows :

" Elementary schools are designed to give children the rudiments of moral education specially adapted to make of them good members of the community, together with such general knowledge and skill as are necessary for the practical duties of life, due attention being paid to their bodily development."

According to the system of compulsory education all children from 6 to 14 years of age are called school-age children, and those who exercise parental authority over them, or their legal guardians, must send them either to the ordinary elementary schools established by the cities, towns or villages until they complete the required course of study, or to schools established by the Government, prefectures or by private individuals, recognized as equal to the ordinary ones above mentioned. The law is not enforced when a child is unfit for study owing to physical or mental deficiency or cannot be sent to school by reason of extreme poverty. There is a provision which requires the employers of school-age children to see that the work imposed does not interfere with their going to school.

The responsibility of establishing ordinary elementary schools is placed upon cities, towns and villages, and they are making efforts to maintain schools even in the dire depression of the past few years. At the same time, however, special provisions permit the State Treasury to bear part of the expense, and the diffusion of elementary school education in Japan proper is all but ideal, the number of the school-age children attending schools maintaining the rate of 99.53% for the past five years.

The full figures are as follows :

These figures represent the condition existing on March 31 of the respective years.

Year	School-age Children	Children Attending Schools	Children not Attending Schools	Percentage of Children Attending Schools
1935	11,150,824	11,103,920	46,904	99.58
1934	11,024,532	10,978,718	45,814	99.58
1933	10,754,962	10,708,930	46,032	99.57
1932	10,392,794	10,344,642	48,152	99.54
1931	10,105,941	10,056,530	49,411	99.51

Elementary schools are divided into two grades, namely, ordinary or lower and higher. The former are for the beginners and their course extends over six years. The latter are for those who have completed the lower course, and their courses are of two or three years' duration. The subjects taught are morals, Japanese language, arithmetic, Japanese history, geography, science, drawing, singing, sewing (for girls only) and gymnastics. In the higher courses, either one or more subjects out of handicraft, agriculture, industry, commerce and domestic scinece (for girls only), are added, and if local circumstances make it advisable, handicraft in ordinary elementary schools and foreign languages and other useful subjects in higher elementary schools may also be taught.

An elementary school may comprise both the ordinary and the higher elementary school courses and may equip

itself with a supplementary course of not more than two years.

Under the present system of compulsory education the father's responsibility ends when his child has graduated from the lower elementary school. But the ordinary elementary education of children is not sufficient for the existing conditions of society, and many cities, towns and villages establish higher elementary schools either independently or in connection with ordinary ones. For the same reason, many business continuation schools are established to give elementary school graduates such education as may be of use in various trades.

The following table will give a general idea of the conditions of elementary schools as they were in 1935 :

Schools	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
Ordinary Schools	—	6,998	80	7,078
Ordinary and Higher Schools	4	18,498	19	18,521
Higher Schools	—	171	1	172
Total	4	25,667	100	25,771
Classes				
Ordinary and supplementary	55	190,195	663	190,913
Higher and supplementary	7	36,238	43	36,288
Total	62	226,443	706	227,201
Teachers	89	251,617	888	252,594
Pupils	2,313	11,202,473	27,290	11,232,076
Graduates	457	2,200,127	4,400	2,204,984
Entrants	463	2,579,187	5,580	2,585,230
Daily Attendance				
Ordinary	2,018	9,308,611	24,961	9,335,590
Higher	190	1,583,129	1,455	1,584,774
Total	2,208	10,891,740	26,416	10,920,364
Percentage of Daily Attendance				
Ordinary	95.23	97.12	96.67	97.12
Higher	96.45	96.65	97.92	96.66
Average	95.34	97.05	96.72	97.05

Teachers There are more male teachers than female in the Japanese elementary schools, and they are classified according to their education and special abilities, as (1) elementary school teachers (2) lower elementary school teachers, (3) teachers on special subjects, (4) assistant teachers, and (5) substitute teachers. The teachers belonging to the first two classes are regular teachers properly qualified for the elementary education of children.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS CLASSIFIED

(March 1, 1935)

Ordinary Elementary Schools	Male	Female	Total
Regular teachers	117,787	55,794	173,581
Special teachers	3,782	6,749	531
Assistant teachers	3,629	1,884	—
Substitute teachers	10,396	9,922	25,831
Total	135,594	74,349	209,943
Higher Elementary Schools			
Regular teachers	34,873	3,007	37,880
Special teachers	1,878	1,289	3,167
Assistant teachers	66	4	1,604
Substitute teachers	1,186	348	42,651
Total	38,003	4,648	85,302
Grand total	173,597	78,997	295,245

Secondary Education

For the secondary grades there are middle schools for boys, girls' high schools business schools and business continuation schools.

Middle Schools The course of the middle school extends over five years,

and its object is to give boys such a higher general education as will fit them to be useful members of society after their graduation. The subjects taught are morals, civics, the Japanese language and Chinese classics, history, both Japanese and foreign, geography, a foreign language (either one of English, eign language (either one of English, German, French or Chinese), matheing, music, practical work (carpentermatics, science, technical studies, drawing, gardening, etc) and gymnastics.

From the fourth year upwards, the subjects are selected and arranged into two groups, the pupils making choice between the two. Under special circumstances, however, the Minister of Education may authorize a school in which either of the two groups may be dispensed with. This dual system of curriculum is of benefit on the one hand to the pupils who wish to take up employment immediately upon graduation, and on the other to those who wish to advance to higher-grade schools.

To the regular course a supplementary course of one year or less may be added, and, if local circumstances require, a preparatory course of two years may also be provided. A boy who desires to enter a middle school must complete either its preparatory course or the full course of an ordinary elementary school. Those who are twelve or more years of age and in possession of adequate scholastic attainments may be admitted upon examination. Those who have completed the fifth year (the course of the ordinary elementary school ends with the sixth year as mentioned above) of an ordinary elementary school and are physically well developed and have shown excellent scholarship are allowed to apply for the entrance examination, even though under twelve years of age; this is to give a chance to specially gifted boys.

The following are the figures for middle schools and their pupils on March 1 of each year:

Year	Schools	Pupils
1935	555	330,992
1934	554	327,261
1933	558	329,459
1932	558	336,186
1931	557	345,691

A general idea of the condition of the middle schools in 1934–35 may be obtained by the following table of figures:

	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
Schools	2	436	117	555
Classes, regular course	25	6,212	1,291	7,528
Number of boys in one class	39.08	44.16	42.86	43.92
Teachers, licensed	59	9,907	2,196	12,157
		Female 2	Female 4	Female 6
„ non-licensed	—	916	552	1,468
		Female 7	Female 5	Female 12
Total	59	10,832	2,752	13,643
Pupils, regular course	977	274,298	55,337	330,612
	Preparatory		12	12
Pupils; supplementary course	—	307	41	348
Total	977	274,621	55,394	330,992
Graduates, regular course	176	46,853	9,451	56,480
	Preparatory		12	12
„ supplementary course	—	326	52	378
Total	176	47,179	9,515	56,870
Applicants, regular course	1,279	99,708	30,121	131,108
„ supplementary course	—	2,172	92	2,264
Total	1,279	101,880	30,213	133,372
Admitted, regular course	204	63,892	14,762	78,858
Admitted, supplementary Course	—	1,378	87	1,465
Total	204	65,270	14,849	80,323
Left sceool, regular course	29	17,977	6,862	24,868

Girls' High Schools The system of high schools for girls is made flexible to suit practical requirements. A girl who has completed elementary school or has equivalent scholastic attainments and is twelve years or more of age may be admitted to a girls' high school. The course of the girls' high school extends over four or five years, and those schools whose entrance requirement is the completion of the higher elementary school or the possession of the same

or higher scholastic attainments are allowed to shorten their course to three years. There is another kind of girls' high school which is called Girls' Domestic High School, where domestic science is the main course of study, and its regular course extends over two to four years. Girls who wish to take only one part of the course are allowed to do so on application. A supplementary course of two years or less may be provided for the benefit of those who wish to continue their study after completing the regular course, and a post-graduate course or a higher course of two or three years for the purpose of giving higher education. In the cases of the higher course, higher qualifications are required of the teachers and its standard is brought up almost to that of the higher school for boys.

The subjects taught in a girls' high school are the same as those taught in the middle schools, but with the addition of domestic science and sewing, the required hours of study being from 28 to 29 a week. In the case of the Girls' Domestic High School, technical study added and the hours for domestic science and sewing are double those of the ordinary high school, the time allowed for other subjects being shortened, and foreign languages omitted altogether. Under special circumstances the foreign language, drawing and music may be omitted, and if local circumstances require, pedagogics, manual arts, technical studies and other useful subjects may be taught in addition to the normal curriculum. In cases the total weekly hours may be increased to a little over 30. The curriculum of a domestic course of three years, the entrance requirement of which is the completion of the first year of the higher elementary school, is to be suitably drawn up on the basis of that of a domestic course of two years, the entrance requirement of which is the completion of the higher elementary school, and be submitted to the Minister of Education for approval.

The progress of female education is phenomenal in modern Japan and girls, high schools have taken very marked strides in recent years both in number and quality. At the end of March, 1934, there were 975 girls' high schools in Japan proper, many of them being provided with, or contemplating the provision of, a post-graduate course or a higher course.

The number of schools and girl students on March 1 of each year was as follows :

Year	Schools	Girls
1935	970	388,935
1934	975	371,807
1933	963	361,739
1932	980	362,625
1931	975	368,999

GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOLS, 1934-1935

	Gorvernmental	Public	Private	Total
Schools:				
High School	2	567	219	788
Domestic H. S.	1	162	19	182
Total	3	729	238	970
Classes:				
Regular course	20	5,516	2,079	615
In a class, average	46.75	47.37	45.56	46.87
Post graduate	—	28	—	27
In a class, average	—	25.00	—	25.00
Domestic High School	4	580	104	688
In a class, average	46.75	38.00	36.28	37.79
Teachers, licensed:				
High School, regular course, male	16	5,266	1,763	7,045
female	32	3,835	1,937	5,804
Post graduate, male	—	54	—	54
female	—	8	—	8
Domestic High School, male	8	302	90	400
female	4	501	73	578
Teachers, unlicensed:				
High School, regular course, male	—	348	457	805
female	—	186	430	616
Post graduate, male	—	5	—	5
female	—	4	—	4
Domestic High School, male	—	92	42	134
female	—	76	23	99

	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
Total, male	24	6,067	2,352	8,443
female	36	4,610	2,463	7,109
Total	60	10,677	4,815	15,552
Pupils	1,285	288,193	99,457	388,935
Graduates	289	65,533	18,658	84,480
Applicants	1,359	118,712	57,115	177,186
Admitted	318	81,746	26,999	109,063
Left school in the school year	19	12,382	6,272	18,673

Business Schools Business schools of secondary grade are established for the purpose of giving young people the practical knowledge and skill necessary in various vocations, and much is left to the discretion of the founders as to the systems of schools in order to suit the special needs of different industries, trades and localities. The courses may extend from two to five years according to the nature of the school. A period of not longer than one year may be added to the maximum prescribed course. Further provisions are allowed to meet the needs of those who desire to take only a part of the curriculum, for those who, after completing the prescribed course, still desire to remain for further study, and for those who wish after completing the course of a middle school or girls' high school, to enter a business school with the object of receiving business education; and lastly for those who wish to receive instruction in a simple way for only a short period.

On March 1, 1935 there were 1,125 business schools. The figures for the years 1931–1935 are given gelow:

Year	Schools	Pupils
1935	1,125	367,026
1934	1,041	316,846
1933	1,024	298,893
1932	1,003	292,015
1931	975	288,681

Business schools are divided into two classes, A and B. Those schools which belong to A class admit boys and girls who have completed the course of the ordinary elementary school, while those which belong to B class admit those who have completed the course of the higher elementary school. And they are of six kinds, namely, Technical, Agricultural, Fisheries, Commercial, Navigation and Practical. Figures relating to these business schools in 1934–1935 are given below.

BUSINESS SCHOOLS (A)

	Schools	Teachers	Pupils	Graduates	Applicants	Admitted	Left School
Technical	99	2,336	37,206	7,432	30,552	10,795	1,889
Agricultural	246	2,870	51,875	14,555	24,214	19,122	2,782
Commercial	295	6,651	160,452	26,778	78,224	43,054	12,749
Navigation	10	138	2,263	564	855	598	149
Fisheries	12	154	2,119	463	861	609	132
Practical	199	2,752	45,046	16,415	24,705	20,417	2,360
Total	861	14,901	298,961	66,207	159,411	94,595	20,061

BUSINESS SCHOOLS (B)

	Schools	Teachers	Pupils	Graduates	Applicants	Admitted	Left School
Technical	28	368	5,718	1,728	7,671	2,653	575
Agricultural	94	778	8,422	5,823	7,829	7,058	1,067
Commercial	49	525	3,742	3,872	9,306	6,367	1,080
Navigation	1	10	60	43	115	100	107
Fisheries	1	—	49	8	24	24	11
Practical	35	360	5,962	3,206	4,178	3,599	408
Total	208	2,041	43,953	14,680	29,123	19,801	248

Of these schools, 14 technical, 13 agricultural, 134 commercial, and 131 practical schools were under private management.

Business Continuation Schools (See page 738). The object of these schools is to give to boys and girls engaged in vocations after graduation from the ordinary elementary school useful knowledge and skill relating to these vocations and at the same time to furnish education necessary in daily lie. Their courses are technical, agricultural, commercial, navigation fisheries and sewing; each school providing one or even all of these. The whole course is divided into two terms, the first extending over two years and the second over two or three years according to the nature of studies. The number of hours taught in a year ranges between 200 and 420 in the first term, and 160 and 420 in the second, according to studies and the grade of the class. Those who have completed the ordinary elementary school or are up to that standard may be admitted to the first term, and hose who have completed the course of the first term and the higher elementary school or are up to the same standard may be admitted to the second term.

A business continuation school may, if local circumstances require, provide itself only with the first or the second term. It may give further instruction to those who have completed the second term. Under special circumstances, a business continuation school of higher grade may be established for the purpose of giving specialized teaching.

The number of business continuation schools and that of their pupils for the years 1931–1935 were as follows:

Year	Schools	Pupils
1935	15,306	1,281,814
1934	15,140	1,271,530
1933	15,091	1,270,874
1932	15,083	1,271,971
1931	15,248	1,277,388

BUSINESS CONTINUATION SCHOOLS, 1934-1935

	Schools	Teachers	Pupils	Graduates	Entrants	Left School
Technical	103	424	15,752	6,964	13,746	4,211
Agricultural	12,391	17,405	970,706	323,353	487,690	92,143
Commercial	549	1,064	59,202	25,900	54,174	19,151
Navigation	1	2	61	23	24	—
Fisheries	279	226	18,819	5,807	8,661	1,962
Tewing	451	900	29,296	12,637	19,140	3,876
Tech. & Agri.	79	154	9,672	3,206	5,222	1,141
Tech. & Comm.	184	677	35,145	14,876	37,006	13,247
Tech. & Fisheries	1	—	33	3	2	2
Tech. & Sewing	1	11	205	102	160	2
Agri. & Comm.	602	1,345	69,712	22,271	36,967	9,136
Agri. & Fisheries	460	521	42,292	13,006	21,714	5,252
Agri. & Sewing	6	30	586	275	202	21
Comm. & Fisheries	41	81	3,642	1,194	2,627	906
Navi. & Fis heries	2	5	130	27	67	7
Tech. Agri. Comm.	73	345	12,942	4,271	8,177	2,035
Tech. Agri. Fish.	3	26	1,369	474	918	365
Tech. Comm. Fish.	6	17	1,135	300	627	106
Tech. Comm. Sewing	1	2	70	25	51	16
Agri. Comm. Fish.	59	150	8,862	2,531	4,926	1,077
Agri. Comm. Sewing	3	5	248	104	140	32
Tech. Agri. Comm. Fish.	11	39	1,935	619	973	227
Total	15,306	32,429	1,281,814	437,968	703,214	154,915

Higher Education

The institutions for higher education are higher schools, universities, colleges, and higher trade and industrial colleges.

Higher normal schools, institutions for training teachers of higher education, post-graduate or supplementary courses in secondary educational institutions and higher grade classes of the special educational institutions are mentioned under other headings, though they might be included here with the other higher educational organs.

The number of schools under this heading, higher normal schools and teachers training institutions and that of students on March 1 of each year follow:

Year	Schools	Students
1934	257	184,473
1933	261	183,792
1932	254	183,809
1931	258	183,952
1930	254	179,038

Higher Schools (Koto Gakko) The higher school is primarily an institution whose object is to complete the general education of young men. But it is as a matter of fact a preparatory school for universities or higher trade and industrial colleges in present-day Japan. No women are admitted. It is divided into two courses, the higher and the lower. The former extends over three and the latter over four years, making seven in all. A post-graduate course of one year may be taken after the higher course. Some schools have the higher course alone. On May 30, 1934, the higher schools with the higher course alone numbered 24, while those with both lower and higher courses numbered 8.

The entrance requirements for the lower course are practically the same as those for the middle schools. The higher course is divided into the literature and science courses and a candidate must be one who has completed the lower course of the same school or one who has completed the fourth year of the middle school or whose scholastic attainments are equal or superior to the same standard.

There are about the same number of preparatory courses of universities which correspond to higher schools and are directly attached to universities. The following figures for 1934-35 refer to the higher schools only.

HIGHER SCHOOLS

(1934-1935)

Schools	32
(Schools which have lower course)	(8)
Teachers	1,272
Lower Course	154
Students	16,417
Lower Course	2,488
Graduates	5,335
Lower Course	582
Applicants	30,058
Lower Course	3,838
Entrants	4,622
Lower Course	573
Left School	448
Lower Course	70

Of the 32 schools, 25 are governmental, 3 public and 4 private.

Universities A university (Daigaku), in its regular form, consists of several faculties, but a single faculty may also constitute a daigaku. Each faculty is required to have a post-graduate course, and in those universities which include several faculties a university hall may be established for keeping the various post-graduate courses in touch with one another. Under special circumstances a preparatory course may be provided.

Admission to a university is extended to the graduates from higher schools and from preparatory courses of its own, and to those who have the same scholastic attainments. When a student has studied in the university for three years or more (four years or more in the faculty of medicine) from the date of his entrance, and has passed a prescribed examination, he may assume the degree of "Gaku-shi" (lit. "learned gentleman") or Bachelor. He is also qualified to enter the post-graduate course. In many universities facilities are provided for those who wish to pursue studies only in some particular subjects according to prescribed regulations.

A university is authorized to confer a doctor's degree on persons who have pursued studies for a period of two years or more in the post-graduate course and whose theses have been approved by the faculty council. Those who have not pursued studies in the post-graduate course may also submit theses and apply for doctor's degrees. The degree is conferred when the faculty council is satisfied with the theses.

UNIVERSITIES, March, 1935

GOVERNMENTAL:	Professors	Students & Pupils	Graduates	Appplicants	Entrants	Left School
Tokyo Imperial	669	8,411	2,270	5,845	2,745	310
Kyoto Imperial	557	5,701	1,328	2,445	1,837	419
Tohoku Imperial	268	1,619	445	1,052	582	104
Kyushu Imperial	267	1,935	577	1,064	636	114
Hokkaido Imperial	298	2,344	705	4,310	775	78
Osaka Imperial	207	1,209	216	591	381	93
Niigata Medical	40	355	75	129	96	9
Okayama Medical	43	446	107	140	104	2
Chiba Medical	56	662	173	745	202	11
Kanazawa Medical	60	492	124	368	134	10

		Professors	Students & Puplis	Graduates	Applicants	Entrants	Left School
Nagasaki Medical		60	514	138	456	153	8
Kumamoto Medical		40	339	81	130	97	19
Nagoya Medical		63	355	103	124	91	6
Tokyo Commercial		186	2,065	646	3,040	733	59
Kobé Commercial		42	608	195	483	229	26
Tokyo Technical		113	555	166	373	192	21
Tokyo Literature and Science		126	333	91	189	140	15
Hiroshima Literature and Science		83	317	97	201	122	15
Total	18	3,178	28,260	7,637	21,725	9,249	1,309
PUBLIC:							
Kyoto Medical		64	661	206	1,297	190	8
Osaka Commercial		100	782	260	1,105	260	14
Total	2	164	1,443	466	2,402	450	22
PRIVATE:							
Keio-Gijuku		308	6,477	1,751	5,523	2,248	328
Waseda		379	8,109	2,772	8,603	3,237	509
Meiji		161	3,382	1,299	1,637	1,285	335
Hosei		176	2,414	820	1,465	1,156	283
Chuo		146	2,519	822	1,329	997	332
Nippon		323	4,270	1,542	2,532	1,778	537
Kokugakuin		84	559	227	333	246	33
Doshisha		91	1,412	527	708	521	166
Tokyo Jikei-kai Medical		62	1,244	331	2,437	371	28
Ryukoku		90	646	195	336	253	89
Otani		83	499	151	226	191	42
Senshu		134	1,026	192	720	563	235
Rikkyo		117	1,396	460	811	502	91
Ryumei-kan		90	998	322	816	545	195
Kansai		140	1,351	499	809	581	357
Takushoku		95	731	289	430	341	90
Risshio		105	362	100	128	120	29
Komazawa		64	458	153	106	97	44
Tokyo Agricultural		76	607	214	600	281	49
Nippon Medical		60	1,117	299	1,743	296	40
Koyasan		48	237	70	144	136	25
Taisho		120	576	158	198	186	38
Toyo		51	273	105	137	96	24
Jochi		70	185	76	75	68	27
Kansaigakuin		62	611	173	698	440	42
Total	25	3,135	41,459	13,547	32,544	16,535	3,968
Grand Total	45	6,477	71,162	21,650	56,671	26,234	5,299

The oldest of the 46 universities is Tokyo Imperial University, which was founded in 1886. Keio-Gijuku and Waseda were founded much earlier, but they were raised to the present standard in 1920 according to the ordinances enacted at that time.

Of the total number of students and pupils, that of regular university students was 47,841 and that of pupils in the preparatory course or elective courses was 23,052.

The following figures as they stood on March 1, 1934 and 1935 show the number of students in these universities classified according to faculties.

	1934	1935
Post graduate course	2,133	2,307
Law	8,404	8,208
Medical Science	7,840	7,971
Science	1,101	1,098
Agriculture	2,443	2,430
Economy	5,816	5,804
Commerce	4,971	4,580
Law and Literature	4,326	4,456
Politics and Economy	1,277	1,236
Technology	3,958	4,017
Literature	5,287	5,030
Law and Economy	637	650
Science and Technology	753	820
Literature and Science	560	624

Tokyo Imperial University

To give an idea of Japanese universities the following information on Tokyo Imperial University is given here.

The university is situated in Hongo, Tokyo, occupying about one hundred acres. It fell a victim of the quake-fire of 1923, and one-third of the total floor space of the entire buildings was thrown out of use, while the remainder had to be repaired.

Besides ¥2,000,000 appropriated by the Government for immediate emergencies, the extraordinary session of the Diet held in the summer of 1924 made a grant of over ¥40,000,000 to enable the university to complete reconstruction in about 15 years. At present the restoration of all buildings, books, equipments is nearing completion.

History In 1854 the Tokugawa Shogunate opened the Yogaku-sho or an institute for foreign learning. The name of the institution was changed several times; for instance, the Kaiseigakko in 1868, the Daigaku-nanko in 1869, the Tokyo Kaisei-gakko in 1874. Another institute was opened by the Tokugawa Shogunate in 1857, which was called the Shuto-kwan or an institute for vaccination. This in time developed into a medical school and became known in 1874 by the name of the Tokyo I-gakko or Tokyo Medical School. In April, 1877, the above two institutions were merged into one institution, known by the new name of the Tokyo Daigaku or Tokyo University. A little later the Tokyo Law School and the Technical College were united with it under the name of the Imperial University in March, 1886. The university had five faculties: law, medicine, engineering, literature, and science. The Tokyo Agricultural and Forestry School was incorporated into it in 1890, and in June, 1897, the university assumed its present name of Tokyo Imperial University.

Organization The university is a State institution and is organized in accordance with the Government's requirements for a university. It is composed of 7 faculties: law, medicine, engineering, literature, science, agriculture, and economics.

Besides the 7 faculties above mentioned there is a library in connection with university. Hospitals and Dispensaries are connected with the Faculty of Medicine. An Institute for Historical Compilation is a part of the Faculty of Literature. Connected with the Faculty of Science are the Botanical Garden and the Marine Laboratory. Forests, farms, and the Institute for the Training of Agricultural School Teachers, are connected with the Faculy of Agriculture.

The Institute for the Study of Infectious Diseases, the Institute of Aeronautics, the Tokyo Astronomical Observatory and the Earthquake Research Institute are also institutions attached to this university.

The Faculty of Law includes the 2 courses of law and politics, with 34 professorial chairs. The Faculty of Medicine includes the 2 courses of medicine and pharmacy, with 35 professorial chairs. The Faculty of Engineering includes the 10 courses of civil engineering, mechanical engineering, naval architecture and engineering, aeronautics, technology of ordnance, electical engineering, architecture, applied chemistry, technology of explosives, mining and metallurgy, with 58 professorial chairs. The Faculty of Literature includes the 19 courses of Japanese literature, Japanese history, Chinese philosophy, Chinese literature, Oriental history, Occidental history, philosophy, Indian philosophy, paychology, ethics, theology and history of religion, sociology, pedagogics, esthetics and history of fine arts, philology, Sanscrit literature, English literature, German literature, and French literature, with 41 professorial chairs. The Faculty of Science includes 10 courses of mathematics, astronomy, physics chemistry, zoology, botany, geology, mineralogy, geography, and seismology, with 41 professorial chairs. The Faculty of Agriculture includes the 6 courses of agriculture, agricultural chemistry, forestry, veterinary medicine, fishery, and agricultural economy, with 42 professorial chairs. The Faculty of Economics includes the 2 courses of political economy and commerce, with 17 professorial chairs.

Those of adequate learning, aged 19, or above, who are desirous of attending the lectures or experiments for one or more subjects prescribed in the faculty courses, may be admitted as elective pupils in the Faculties, but only when there are vacant seats.

Auditors may be admitted to the faculties on application, when the study of the students is not inconvenienced by their presence. They must conform with the conditions prescribed by the faculties, unless they are entrusted by the Japanese or foreign governments. In addition, there are practical courses of agriculture, forestry, and veterinary medicine in connection with the Faculty of Agriculture. Applicants for admission must be graduates from middle schools, or those who are recognized as having equal attainments.

Students who remain in one course for more than 6 years (in the course of medicine, 8) are struck off the school roll. The pratical courses in the Faculty of Agriculture run for 3 years.

The period for scientific research by students in the University Hall is fixed at 2 years. If their research necessitates the prolongation of this period, the President may permit it, on their application, to the extent of 5 years. They are under the control of the dean of the faculty whose curriculum they follow. As to their teacher or teachers, the faculty concerned decides.

The university officials are the president, 234 professors, 156 assistant professors, 3 secretaries, 1 administrative official, 5 officials for student affairs, 2 librarians, 284 assistants and 29 minor officials.

In May, 1934 the number of students was 8,050 in all. Post graduate students were : law 71, medical 22, technical 28, literature 374, science 97, agricultural 56, and economics 28. Undergraduate students were : law 2,358, medicine 694, technology 1,039, literature 1,284, science 351, agriculture 1,034, and economics 1,290.

Tuition is ¥120 a year for under graduates and ¥75 for post graduates.

Annual salary of the professors is from ¥1,130, to ¥4,050 besides th stipend attached to a chair from ¥500 to ¥1,600.

The Budget The budget for the fiscal year 1937–38 is as follows :

REVENUE

Ordinary	
From the Government	¥3,835,453
Miscellaneous income	4,472,965
Total	8,308,418
Extraordinary	
From the Government	631,830
From the Endowment Fund	935,655
Contributions	30,000
Total	1,597,485
Total revenue	9,905,903

EXPENDITURE

Ordinary	
Salary	¥2,218,848
School disbursements	5,647,291
Salary of foreign professors	18,756
Pension allotment	414,705
Miscellaneous	8,818
Total	8,308,418
Extraordinary	
Buildings and repairs	1,290,837
Equipment and others	306,648
Total	1,597,485
Total expenditure	9,905,903

University Library Before the 1923 quake-fire the library contained approximately 700,000 volumes of books, but most of them were destroyed by the disaster. In order to make the loss good Marquis Yorimichi Tokugawa offered the university the whole of his Nanki Library with its precious collection of about 100,000 volumes, mostly Japanese and Chinese books. Contribution of books from nations of the world of over 325,000 volumes followed. The cases of books received for the British Committee for collecting English books financed by the British Government amounted to 271 in 1932. Gifts of books from all parts of the Empire amounted to 220,000 volumes including those of the Nanki Library. The acquisition of books by purchases, including those bought with the Government Fund and the Rockefeller Fund reached over 495,000 volumes.

In December, 1924, Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr. of New York offered a fund of ¥4,000,000 for the reconstruction of the library. The plan of the new library was completed in 1925 and the building in November, 1928. The building is fire-proof and earthquake-proof, and has a floorspace of 5,100 tsubo. The largest reading room contains seats for over 1,200 persons. The number of books now exceeds 1,000,000 columes

Summary of Doctor's Degrees The following is a summary of doctor's degrees awarded during the past 46 years, or from May, 1888 to the end of 1935.

Name	Surviving March, 1932	Awarded in 1932–1933	Awarded in 1933–1934	Awarded in 1934–1935
Dr. of Laws	192	5	6	11
,, ,, Literature	188	9	13	11
,, ,, Science	394	40	29	33
,, ,, Technology	488	30	28	35
,, ,, Agriculture	244	22	25	18
,, ,, Forestry	38	1	3	1
,, ,, Medicine	5,785	783	783	806
,, ,, Pharmacology	63	5	3	4

	Surviving March, 1932	Awarded in 1932–1933	Awarded in 1933–1934	Awarded in 1934–1935
„ „ Veterinary	15	1	—	—
„ „ Economics	31	5	6	6
„ „ Commerce	9	2	3	2
„ „ Political Science	2	—	—	—
Total	7,449	903	899	927

Colleges, and Higher Trade and Industrial Colleges "College" is the usual translation of the Japanese "Semmon Gakko" or Speciality School. The required length of the course of a college is three years or more. For admission to an art or music school, the completion of the third year of the middle school or the girls' high school or the possession of equal or higher scholastic attainments is required, while for admission to all other colleges the completion of the course of the said second grade schools or similar or higher scholastic attainments is required.

In March, 1935, there were 117 colleges, 8 of them being founded and maintained by the Government, 9 by public bodies and the rest by private bodies. They may be classified as follows according to their nature :

Pharmacy	6
„ for women	5
Medical Science	5
„ „ for women	3
Dentistry	4
„ for women	2
Medical and pharmacy, for women	1
Nursing for women	1
Languages	3
Literature	6
„ for women	5
Religion	11
Christian Theology	3
Painting and other fine arts	2
„ for women	1
Music	3
Commerce	1
Commerce, Literature, Religion or Theology	8
Law, Economy, Commerce, Industry	13
Agriculture	1
Colonization	1
Mathematics and Chemistry	1
Meteorology	1
Athletics	2
Fencing and Judo	1
Literature and Domestic Science, for women	14
Literature and Science, for women	2
Domestic economy, for women	1
Sewing and Handiwork, for women	10
Total	117

The following table shows the movement of the college students, classified according to their course of study, in 1934–1935.

Course of Study	Students		Graduates		Applicants		Entrants		Left School	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Medical Science	4,185	1,954	893	393	9,831	663	931	432	68	55
Pharmacy	2,754	2,552	888	583	5,828	1,123	901	764	68	152
Dentistry	3,827	318	901	130	2,538	92	960	90	154	23
Law	11,856	81	3,213	20	7,234	45	5,474	36	2,112	8
Economy	1,670	—	271	—	1,182	—	1,006	—	311	—
Commerce	11,189	10	2,923	4	9,187	2	5,145	2	1,298	1
Literature	3,990	2,750	1,173	835	3,485	1,289	1,494	1,008	485	295
Mathematics and Chemistry	185	51	3	11	717	23	152	9	128	3
Domestic Science	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sewing	—	1,426	—	436	—	829	—	599	—	180
Handiwork	—	568	—	154	—	249	—	277	—	118
Religion	1,992	—	461	—	892	—	752	—	190	—
Fine arts	763	44	165	15	900	15	180	14	22	9
Music	108	219	24	67	126	278	44	91	4	11
Athletics	525	75	113	19	455	36	168	29	45	3
Agriculture	661	—	180	—	906	—	257	—	36	—
Colonization	162	—	26	—	157	—	109	—	29	—
Nursing	—	52	—	13	—	65	—	32	—	10
Meteorology	15	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Industry	745	—	200	—	1,221	—	285	—	64	—
Normal	4,374	384	1,032	109	3,624	166	1,843	139	674	34
Shinto	366	31	110	12	234	12	139	12	14	4
Total, 1935	49,367	13,707	12,576	3,725	48,517	6,783	19,840	4,861	5,702	1,339
Total, 1934	46,455	13,894	11,578	3,652	48,251	6,444	19,510	4,309	8,059	1,484

The number of Higher Trade and Industrial Colleges and that of their professors and students was as follows in the 1934 school year.

Kind	Colleges	Professors	Students	Graduates	Applicants	Entrants	Left School
Technical	19	857	7,584	2,342	20,327	2,643	250
Agricultural	13	503	3,941	1,315	9,413	1,559	151
Commercial	22	699	11,200	3,380	19,483	4,570	562
Navigation	2	120	1,387	274	1,737	212	32
Total, 1934	54	2,146	23,082	7,004	43,042	8,278	934

Other Education

Besides the schools stated above, there are kindergatens, schools for the blind, schools for the deaf and dumb, and miscellaneous schools.

Kindergartens Kindergartens are found chiefly in larger towns. With general social progress, however, the necessity of their improvement and diffusion being greatly felt in spite of the recent financial depression, an Imperial Ordinance for Kindergartens has lately been issued to encourage their further development. Kindergartens receive children from 3 years of age to school age or full six years of age.

The following table gives the number of kindergartens and that of children attending in the years 1931–1935 :

Year	Kindergartens	Children
1935	1,862	143,469
1934	1,786	133,735
1933	1,708	129,001
1932	1,622	126,564
1931	1,510	121,975

Education for the Blind and the Dumb It has been the educational policy of the Japanese Government since the beginning of the Meiji Era that there shall be no illitrates in the country. Therefore, even persons with physical defects are admitted to elementary, middle or girls' high schools, provided that they are fit to attend a greater part of the lessons. But boys and girls who are blind or deaf and dumb are encouraged to enter schools specially founded for them. A special ordinance relating to the schools for the blind and schools for the deaf and dumb has lately been issued for the purpose of perfecting their elementary and secondary education. The following table gives the number of them and that of their pupils in the years 1931–1935

Year	Schools	Pupils	Blind	Deaf & Dumb
1935	140	9,907	4,830	5,077
1934	138	9,500	4,709	4,791
1933	137	8,939	4,613	4,326
1932	136	8,694	4,550	4,144
1931	125	8,137	4,306	3,831

Miscellaneous Schools Under the heading of "Miscellaneous Schools," the Japanese Government includes for convenience' sake all schools which do not fully come into any definite category of schools under the provisions in the laws and ordinances.

The following table gives the number of miscellaneous schools and that of their pupils in the years 1931–1935 :

Year	Schools	Pupils
1935	1,921	230,394
1934	1,950	209,674
1933	1,917	203,123
1932	1,935	196,903
1931	1,932	217,257

Of the total given above, 157 were maintained by public bodies and 1,793 by private persons or bodies. As to their category those which might be classified as elementary schools numbered 242, middle schools 109, girls' high schools 68, business schools 514, colleges 27, the blind and the dumb schools 8, and the professional 982. Among miscellaneous schools, there are not a few which to be highly estimated as educational institutions in their ideas and new methods of education. Many of the Christian schools are included among them.

New Educational Movements The educational system of Japan is so complete, as is specially the case with primary school education, that there has been hardly any room for such free educational movements as in Europe and America. The progress in other lines of national life, however, naturally stimulated the awakening of scholars and practical educators towards the end of the Meiji Era. The develop-

ment of major cities presented a large field for the experiment of new educational work. Influenced by Western thoughts and guided by scholars who gave expositions on European and American educational thoughts so as to adapt the characteristic environments in Japan, many new schools have been established in Tokyo and Osaka. Their scope of influence as well as their number is limited, and the new movement, which is more or less radical, is going through difficult times owing to the reactionary tendency in these years : but the existence of such schools as Mrs. Masako Yosano's Bunka-gakuin, Mrs. Motoko Hani's Jiyu-gakuen, and Mr. Kuniyoshi Obara's Seijo-gakuen proves the demand for and appreciation of new education among the more advanced quarters of urban population. The new educational movement among primary school teachers must not be overlooked. Their curriculum cannot deviate very much from that fixed by the government, but their efforts for handling materials so as to adapt the local environment of the pubils and to take in the propective method are bringing about good results. The representative schools are Tajima Primary School in Kawasaki, Urashima Primary School in Yokohama, etc. Primary schools of a similar kind may be found in many places throughout the country.

Training of Teachers

The Japanese Government, alive to the necessity of having a large supply of capable teachers, has spared no efforts in the completion of organs for their training. To give an outline of the present system, Hokkaido and the prefectures are called upon to establish and maintain at least one normal school each, and an institution for the training of business continuation school teachers when circumstances make it necessary, a responsibility which is also imposed on the cities. The Government itself undertakes the training of teachers of normal schools, middle schools, girls' high schools and technical schools by establishing and maintaining higher normal schools, higher normal schools for women, special institutes for the training of teachers, etc., and the students of these schools are given scholarships, covering part of their expenses, either by the Government or by the local public bodies. Moreover such of the students of universities, colleges and the like as intend to become teachers, receive aid out of public funds or may be exempted from the payment of fees. Persons who have proved themselves deserving extended aid are chosen for studying abroad in order that they may be better qualified to teach higher arts and sciences.

The following table gives the number of schools for training teachers and that of their students in the years 1931–1935 :

Year	Schools[1]	Students
1935	156	34,583
1934	155	36,849
1933	157	41,060
1932	167	44,609
1931	175	49,226

Organs for Training Elementary School Teachers The principal organs for training elementary school teachers are the normal schools, while the training course B grade of the Tokyo Academy of Music trains music teachers for elementarly schools.

A normal school consists of the regular and the post-graduate courses, the former is divided into the first and second sections. The course of study of the first section extends over five years and it takes in the graduates of higher elementary schools of a two years' course or persons of over 14 years of age who have similar attainments. The course of study of the second section runs for two years and it takes in graduates of middle schools, girls' high schools and persons of similar scholastic attainments.

The following table gives the number of normal schools and that of their students and graduates in the years 1931–1935 :

Year	Schools	Students	Graduates
1935	102	30,420	10,735
1934	103	32,817	11,669
1933	103	36,867	12,611
1932	104	38,868	11,033
1931	105	43,852	15,524

Organs for Training Teachers for Secondary Education As organs for training the teachers of secondary education, there are the higher normal schools, higher nomal schools for women, special institutes for training teachers, the training course in drawing of the Tokyo Academy of Fine Arts and the training course, grade A of the Tokyo Academy of Music. The sys-

1 Note: There are 4 colleges and their students included in this as well as in the number of the table on colleges.

tems differ more or less with the schools or the main subjects taught, but their entrance requirements are, generally speaking, the completion of middle school, girls' high school and normal school, or the possession of the same or higher scholastic attainments, and their courses extend over four, three or two years, with additional post-graduate and special investigation courses.

The following table gives the number of the schools for the training of secondary school teachers and that of their students and graduates in the years 1931–1935 :

Year	Schools	Students	Graduates
1934	7	4,456	854
1933	10	4,421	925
1932	15	4,245	—
1931	20	4,747	—

In addition to the foregoing, teachers' certificates are issued without examination to graduates of high grade schools both in Japan and in other countries in order to meet the deficiency in the supply of secondary school teachers. The main conditions are that the schools in question must be equal to or higher than the higher normal schools of Japan in entrance requirements and in curricula. Including those who passed examination there were 7,829 persons who received such certificates in 1933–1934.

Organs for Training Business School Teachers For the purpose of training teachers of practical subjects in technical schools, institutes are attached to the Government universities and colleges. They are of a three year course, the scholastic standard corresponding to that of the colleges.

The following table gives the number of such institutes and that of their students and graduates in the years 1931–1935 :

Year	Agricultural		Technical		Commercial		Total		Graduates
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	
1935	1	116	2	144	1	96	4	356	111
1934	1	111	2	150	1	101	4	362	120
1933	1	116	2	150	1	105	4	271	113
1932	1	121	2	150	1	103	4	374	116
1931	1	117	4	151	1	97	6	365	113

As further means of providing business school teachers, certificates are issued without examination to graduates of certain specified schools. Including those who passed examination the number of persons who received such certificates in 1933–1934 was 430.

Organs for Training Teachers of Business Continuation Schools For this purpose there are institutes which Hokkaido, the prefectures and cities alone are authorized to establish. They are of one or two year courses above the secondary education. The following table shows the number of these institutes and that of their students in 1931–1935 :

Year	Institutes	Students	Graduates
1935	45	1,106	588
1934	43	1,014	529
1933	42	1,039	618
1932	44	1,122	656
1931	44	1,232	856

Training of High-grade Professors No particular schools are instituted for the training of high-grade teachers. Scholarships, however, are given to students of the post-graduate course of higher normal schools for training such professors. Further, persons of adequate career and experience are sent to foreign countries for a further prosecution of studies, their expenses being met by the Government. The following are figures concerning such persons at the end of March, each year :

Year	Students Abroad	Year	Students Abroad
1935	101	1932	191
1934	133	1931	219
1933	184	1930	361

As a further means of supplying higher grade professors, a professor's licence is granted to persons holding doctor's degrees and those who have graduated from universities and colleges. In 1934–1935 the number of persons who received Higher School Professor's licences was 1,198, of which 8 were women.

Training of Special School Teachers and Nurses of Kindergartens Teachers for the blind and the deaf and dumb are trained in the training courses in the Tokyo School for the Blind and the Tokyo School for the Deaf and

Dumb. The nurses of kindergartens are trained in the training courses provided in women's normal school, special courses in the higher normal schools for women and in the special institutions for the purpose established by private bodies. In 1934–1935 the number of kindergarten nurses' certificates given was 1,106.

Teacher's Certificate Given by Examination Persons who have similar scholastic attainments with the graduates of the schools mentioned above, may ask for an examination to get a teacher's licence. They have to undergo a strict examination by the special examination committees of the Educational Department. The number of persons who got certificates through such examinations and without examinations during 1934–1935 was 33,494. These may be classified as follows :

Teachers of	Applicants	Certificates Given
Elementary School and Kindergarten	55,432	19,936
Normal School, Middle School and Girls' School	21,178	11,767
Higher Department of Higher School	1,263	1,198
Business School	1,547	593
Total	79,420	33,494

Physical Education and School Hygiene

With a view to promoting the rational development of the young and to encourage and further the spread of gymnastics, games and athletic sports, both eastern and western, there was established in 1924 a national Institute for Research in Physical Training, where research work is now in active progress.

For school hygiene, special attention is paid to buildings and equipments, and efforts are being made to improve and strengthen the physical constitution of pupils and students by employing school physicians, dentists and nurses, by taking measures for the prevention of infectious diseases in schools, by making plans for open-air schools, vacation colonies, school feeding, school clinics and the like.

For the administrative organs responsible for the work referred to, Hokkaido and prefectures have school hygienic experts and directors of physical training, while the Department of Education has the Section of Phsyical Training, Supervisors of School Hygiene and the Institute for Research in Physical Training. In addition, there are provided in the Educational Department a School Hygiene Investigation Committee and a Physical Training Investigation Council, which investigate and make researches in important questions submitted to them by the Minister of Education.

Social Education

For the diffusion and development of social education there has been created a Bureau of Social Education in the Department of Education, and a certain number of supervisors of social education are appointed in the Department, and directors of the same in the local governments

Adult Education For the benefit of those adults who have had little or no chance to receive regulareducation, the Department has requested some of the schools under its direct control or under that of the local governments to start a series of lectures. Most of the adults who are gathered to these lectures are labourers or farmers, and fuller reference to this is made in the chapter on labour.

Libraries The spread of libraries in Japan hasbeen rather slow because of many reasons, but the place of the library in social education has been understood more and more clearly with the advancement of national and international life in recent years. The Government, therefore, established a national library at Ueno, Tokyo, and at the same time has given encouragement to local public bodies for establishing their own libraries by granting subsidies to them. It also tries to help them by holding short period courses for training capable librarians. The results of these efforts have been a notable progress in libraries, as may be observed in the following table :

Year	Public Libraries	Books	Readers	Daily Average of Readers of a Library
1935	4,794	11,376,000	24,666,000	—
1934	4,634	10,762,000	24,949,000	21
1933	4,686	10,563,000	24,766,000	20
1932	4,609	10,138,000	24,980,000	21
1931	4,609	9,636,000	23,355,000	19

In November, 1931, the Tokyo Science Museum was established by the Government. It is located in Ueno Park, Tokyo and exhibits 1,751 technical and machine models and 106,124 specimens of natural science. In 1933–1934 209,843 people visited it in 329 days.

Young People's School

On April 1, 1935, the Young People's School was established by the amalgamation of the Young Men's Training Institute and the Business Continuation School.

The purpose of the new institution is to elevate young people's attainment as citizens of Japan by training mind and body, by cultivating moral nature and by educating in knowledge and ability indispensable to their profession and practical life.

The course of study of Young People's School is graded into three, common, regular and post graduate. The common course extends over two years, the regular course five years for boys and three years for girls (four years for boys and two years for girls may be allowed according to local conditions), and the post graduate course over one year. Graduates of the lower course of elementary school may enter the common course of Young People's School; those who finished the common course may be advanced to the regular course, while the graduates of the higher course of elementary school have the same privilege; and graduates of the regular course or those who are in possession of an adequate scholastic attainment may take the post graduate course.

Subjects of study are, in the common course, morals, civics, some of subjects common to middle schools, agricultural subjects and gymnastics, with additional studies on housekeeping and sewing for girls only; in the regular course the same subjects are given in a more advanced grade; and in the post graduate course, morals, civics and certain studies selected from the subjects of the regular course. Special course may be added. Pupils are free of charge as a rule.

Young Men's and Young Women's Associations With the object of giving mental and moral culture to those young men and women who are no longer cared for in the schools, the organization of young men's and young women's associations has been encouraged so that there is at present hardly any city, town, or village where they are not established. These associations work, on the whole, according to the principle of self-government, quite different from the foregoing Training Institutes, and along the lines which they choose in view of the circumstances peculiar to themselves.

The following table shows the number of young men's and young women's associations and that of their members in the years 1930–1934:

Year	Y.M.A.	Members	Y.W.A.	Members
1935	15,469	2,456,505	13,537	1,507,778
1934	15,440	2,488,113	13,468	1,512,682
1933	15,300	2,497,166	13,378	1,522,041
1932	15,365	2,518,173	13,394	1,534,125
1931	15,202	2,495,708	13,225	1,567,123

Boy Scouts and Girl Guides The boy scout movement, which is also an important item in the social education of the young, has made much progress since the organization of the Japan Federation of Boy Scouts in 1922. The President of the Federation was the late Count Shimpei Goto, and its head office was located in the Department of Education building. The boy scouts which are affiliated with the Federation are scattered all over the Empire except 4 prefectures in Japan proper and the South Sea Mandated Islands. In 1925, the Marine Branch was established and it owns a training-ship.

The number of boy scout organizations and that of the members were approximately 1,100 and 90,000 respectively in March, 1935. The Federation is led by Count Yoshinori Futara at present.

The girl guide movement was first introduced into Japan in 1920. The earliest organizations appeared in Tokyo and Morioka, and the movement gradually spread over different parts of the country, although it has not yet achieved such progress as the boy scout movement, having only 27 guides with about 300 girls in 1931.

Educational Expenditure

Education in Japan, as previously mentioned, is principally controlled by the State, though it is partly delegated to local public bodies and partly carried on by private individuals or organizations by permission of the Government, and the expenditure incurred is met from these three different financial sources.

Part of the educational expenses of local public bodies, however, is met by the State Treasury in order that the teachers may be sufficiently paid and the burdens on the ratepayers may not be too heavy. Formerly the sum of ¥10,000,000 was yearly defrayed for this purpose, but it has been recently increased to ¥85,000,000 or more, and des-

titute municipalities receive special consideration in the apportionment of the grant.

Local governments are required to pay additional salaries at certin rates for long service to the teachers of schools for which they are directly responsible. To meet part of these expenses, the Government allocates a sum of money fixed annually in thte National Budget and divides it among Hokkaido and the prefectures in proportion to the number of teachers. In cases where a city, town or a village undertakes to pay for residences of elementary school teachers, the higher local body is required to share part of the expense.

In recent years educational undertakings have been greatly extended and the treatment of teachers considerably improved in accordance with the post-war programme of the country, nd this has caused the educational expenditure to swell in a remarkable degree. The following table shows the total governmental and public educational expenditure during the years 1930–1935 :

Year	State Treasury	Prefectures	Cities	Towns and Villages	School Associations	Total
1935	¥154,732,262	104,617,681	103,435,462	214,853,579	91,476	577,730,460
1934	152.105,765	100,103,429	102,318,577	202,816,370	87,274	557,434,115
1933	148,083,243	97,885,783	87,580,024	199,345,796	89,838	532,984,684
1932	137,239,255	106,856,178	77,676,969	197,723,655	87,829	519,583,886
1931	143.320,002	111,298,987	81,642,411	213,334,298	71,733	549,667,431
1930	144,373,838	114,502,616	96,687,293	235,899,221	79,182	591,542,150

The above table does not include the amounts expended on local educational administration.

In order to show the total expenditure, both governmental and local, the year 1934–1935 is taken and full details of the items of expenditure are shown :

GOVERNMENTAL EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE

1934–1935

Administration	¥2,438,427	Blind, Deaf and Dumb education	159,614
Elementary and Secondary education	90,638,850	Universities and libraries	31,094,196
Business education	637,937	Others	2,396,798
Social education	2,142,269	Total	129,508,091

PUBLIC EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE BORNE BY LOCAL PUBLIC BODIES

1934–1935

Kind of Education	Hokkaido & Prefectures	Cities	School Associations of Municipalities	Towns & Villages	Total
Elementary Schools	—	¥ 83,692,263	¥38,355	¥186,166,478	¥269,897,101
Normal Schools	¥ 9,747,471	—	—	—	9,747,471
Middle Schools	20,692,416	316,641	43,549	152,227	21,204,833
Girls' High Schools	14,123,448	2,267,671	—	2,041,399	18,432,518
Higher Schools	688,070	—	—	—	688,070
Universities	1,452,954	941,590	—	—	2,394,544
Colleges	512,359	137,488	—	—	649,847
Business Schools	17,014,906	8,884,499	5,576	16,120,002	42,024,983
Teachers' Training Schools	301,037	—	—	—	301,037
Blind Schools	622,800	61,367	—	12	684,179
Deaf and Dumb Schools	527,559	106,485	—	—	634,044
Miscellaneous Schools	200,260	374,570	—	33,260	608,090
Young Men's Training Institutes	—	1,301,112	496	4,326,034	5,627,642
Kindergartens	—	993,438	—	543,018	1,536,456
Libraries	612,991	651,649	—	284,426	1,549,066
Miscellaneous	38,121,410	3,706,684	3,500	5,186,723	47,018,317
Total	104,617,681	103,435,462	91,476	214,853,579	422,998,198

The total amount of educational expenditure in Japan proper borne by private bodies was ¥63,524,865 for 1934–1935 :

EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE BORNE BY PRIVATE BODIES IN 1934–1935

School	Expenditure	Revenue
Elementary Schools	¥1,255,660	¥682,607
Middle Schools	4,675,815	4,411,941
Girls' High Schools	7,282,440	6,739,452
Higher Schools	670,141	864,585
Universities	9,722,945	9,775,581
Colleges	11,352,808	11,864,860
Business Schools		
College grade		
Secondary grade	8,237,785	7,655,657
Primary grade		
Total		
Schools for the Blind	264,213	242,369
Schools for the Deaf and Dumb	77,127	60,900
Miscellaneous Schools	13,168,034	12,312,147
Kindergartens	2,237,260	1,860,121
Young Men's Institutes	332,569	25,418
Y.M.A. and Y.W.A.	3,794,073	4,202,442
Libraries	453,995	262,550
Total	63,524,865	60,960,630

Other Schools

There are schools in Japan proper which do not come under the control of the Educational Department, and they have been excluded from the foregoing sections. But to complete the chapter on education we cannot pass without some mention of them. Fuller explanations may also be found in other chapters.

Peers' Schools They belong to the Department of the Imperial Household, and the purpose of their establishment is the education of the nobility, but admission to them is by no means restricted to children of titled families. They are called the Gakushu-in and Joshi (women) Gakushu-in. The former is for boys and is composed of three departments, namely, elementary, middle school, and college. The latter is composed of two departments, namely, high school and college.

Two Special Schools The Department of Foreign Affairs has two schools; one is the To-a Dobun Sho-in (Tung Wen College) in Shanghai and the other the Russo-Japanese Association School at Harbin.

The Jingu-Kogakkan This was established by the Home Department and is a Shinto seminary.

The Fisheries Institute This is under the Department of Agriculture and Forestry.

In the territories, schools are under the control of the Territorial Governments, as a matter of course, and full descriptions of them may be found in the chapters on territories. However, a list of the various universities and colleges is here appended.

CHOSEN
- Keijo (Seoul) Imperial University
- Keijo Imperial University Preparatory School
- Keijo Law College
- Keijo Medical College
- Keijo Technical College
- Suigen Agricultural and Forestry College
- Keijo Commercial College
- Eight private colleges

TAIWAN
- Taihoku Imperial University
- Taihoku College
- Four other colleges

KWANTUNG
- Ryojun (Port Arthur) Technical University
- Preparatory College for the same
- Four private colleges

Foreign Teachers and Students

The number of foreign teachers and students at the end of March, 1935, was as follows :

Schools	Teachers			Pupils & Students		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Elementary	—	7	7	172	96	268
Normal	—	—	—	3	—	3
Higher Normal	5	—	5	103	—	103
Woman's Higher Normal	—	—	—	—	20	20
Middle Schools	34	7	41	32	—	32
Girls' High Schools	4	57	61	—	—	—
Higher Schools	78	3	81	107	—	107
Universities	124	2	126	646	23	669
Colleges	119	58	177	453	96	549
Business Colleges	62	1	63	119	1	120

Schools	Teachers Male	Female	Total	Puplis & Students Male	Female	Total
Business Schools	24	11	35	13	—	13
Blind Schools	1	—	1	—	—	—
Deaf and Dumb Schools	—	—	—	—	—	—
Miscellaneous	97	218	315	1,918	879	2,797
Total	548	364	912	3,566	1,115	4,681

The comparison for the five years, 1931–1935, is as follows :

Year	Teachers	Students
1935	912	4,681
1934	883	2,765
1933	1,059	2,232
1932	908	2,761
1931	940	4,983

World Education Conference

Worthy of special mention in regard to the educational circles in Japan during 1937 is that the seventh biennial conference of the World Federation of Education Associations was held in Tokyo. More than 1,000 delegates from 39 nations and 2,000 Japanese were present, which represented by far the greatest international gathering ever held in this country.

Among the foreign delegates were Dr. Paul Monroe, president of the World Federation of Education Associations and director of the International Institute of Columbia University ; Mr. Uel W. Lamkin, secretary-general of the W. F. E. A. and president of the Missouri State Teachers' College ; Mr. Fred Mander, vice-president of the W. F. E. A. and general secretary of the National Union of Teachers ; Mr. E. A. Hardy, treasurer of the W. F. E. A.; Mr. Francisco Benitez, derector of the W. F. E. A. and dean of the College of Education of Philippine University ; Miss Selma M. Borchardt, director of the W. F. E. A. and legislative representative of the American Federation of Teachers ; Mr. Henderson Thomas, director of the W. F. E. A. and general secretary of the Educational Institute of Scotland ; Mr. P. A. Inamdar, director of the W. F. E. A. and director of Public Instruction of Idar State in India ; Mr. D. D. MacDonald, director of the W. F. E. A. ; Mr. G. R. Parker, director of the W. F. E. A. ; Mr. H. N. Penlington, director of the W. F. E. A.; and chairman of the Elementary Education Section ; Miss C. Woodward, director of the W. F. E. A. ; Mr. P. Seshadri, director of the W. F. E. A. and principal of the Government College at Ajimer in India ; and Mr. Henry Lester Smith, director of the W. F. E. A. and dean of the School of Education of the University of Indiana.

The opening session of the conference was held on August 2. Mr. Hidejiro Nagata, vice-president of the W. F. E. A. and president of the Japanese Education Association, left his hospital bed especially for the purpose of addressing the opening general meeting of the World Education Conference which was held the same evening in the auditorium of the Tokyo Imperial University. Among other things, Mr. Nagata noted in his address the special importance of the conference meeting at a time when Japan was studying the improvement of its educational system. It is beyond doubt that the large gathering of world educators and scholars has awakened a new interest among the Japanese educators and scholars and at the same time enabled the former group to gain a deep knowledge of the characteristics of the Japanese people and features of the Japanese culture, which will go a long way toward promoting the understanding among foreign nations of Japan and things Japanese.

The World Education Conference lasted for six days and was formally closed at a general meeting of the participants held on the evening of August 7 in the auditorium of the Tokyo Imperial University. Ten-minute speeches were made on the occasion which were broadcast by JOAK in the interests of the general public. Among the speakers were Dr. Paul Monroe, President of the W. F. E. A. and chairman of the meeting ; Mr. Harry Hamphrey, of Great Britain ; Dr. E. C. Sobrepena, of the Philippines ; Mr. J. L. McCullough, of Canada ; Mr. P. A. Inamdar, director of the W. F. E. A. and delegate from India ; Dr. Joseph Gwinn, of San Jose State Teachers College in California ; Dr. Ishbel Garvice, medical officer of the Egyptian Education Ministry ; Mr. Rudolf Browner, of Australia ; and Mr. Hidejiro Nagata, president of the Japanese Education Association and vice-president of the W. F. E. A.

Proposed Conference Programme Details of the conference programme are given below for reference :

Adult Education Section

Chairman : Mr. Tamon Maeda, director of the Committee of Inquiry into the Municipal Administration of Tokyo.

Secretary : Dr. Frank W. Bouelle, former superintendent of Schools in Los Angeles, California.

Directorate Representative : Dr. Uel W. Lamkin, president of the State Teachers College in Maryville, Missouri.

First Session, August 4

"How to Organize Adult Education"

Mr. Tsunekichi Mizuno, superintendent of schools in the Japanese Education Ministry.

"How to Organize Adult Education"

Dr. James A. Moyer, of America.

"Adult Education in India"

Mr. P. A. Inamdar, director of Public Instruction in Idar State, Himatnagar, India.

Paper

Dr. Alexander Morgan, vice-chairman of the Scotish branch of the British Institute of Adult Education.

Paper

Mr. Robert E. Cavanaugh, director of the Extension Division of Indiana University.

Discussion

Second Session, August 5

"Rural Community Meeting"

Mr. Shintaro Sasai, vice-president of the Dai-Nippon Hotoku-sha, Tokyo.

"Adult Education Through Their Consultation"

Mrs. Waka Yamada, of the Tokyo Asahi Shimbun.

"Adult Education in the Philippines"

Prof. Aurelio C. Ramos, of the Philippines.

"Adult Education in Canada"

Mr. W. J. Dunlop, of Canada.

"Religious Elements in the Japanese Adult Education"

Prof. Keiki Yabuki, of Taisho University in Tokyo.

Short Papers :

1. Workers Education in Japan
(Central Association of Workers Education)
2. The Guiding Principle of Adult Education and of our National Cultural Movement
(Mr. Shigeru Matsui, managing director of the Foundational Union Federation of Cultural Corporations in Tokyo.)

Broadcasting

Chairman : Mr. Masao Seki, director of the Central Broadcasting Station in Osaka.

Secretary : Miss Mary Somerville, director of School Broadcasts, British Broadcasting Corporation, London.

Directorate Representative : Dr. Paul Monroe, president of the World Federation of Education Associations.

First Session, August 2.

"The Place of Educational Broadcasting in Modern Education"

Mr. Hanji Obi, director of the Education Department of the Broadcasting Corporation, Tokyo.

Miss Mary Somerville, secretary of the broadcasting section.

"Special Characteristics of School Broadcasting in Japan"

Mr. Misori Nishimoto, chief of education section of the Central Broadcasting Station in Osaka.

Mr. Koppen, of Germany.

"Broadcasting in the Philippines"

Prof. Gabriel Bernardo, of the Philippines.

Adult Education Broadcasting

"Educational Broadcasting in Japan"

Mr. Ryuji Nakayama, managing director of the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan, Tokyo.

"A Study in Radio Psychology"

Mr. Seishiro Aoki, assistant professor of Tokyo Imperial University.

Paper

Mr. G. W. Gibson, adult education officer of the British Broadcasting Corporation, London.

Second Session, August 3

"Radio Exercise in Japan"

Mr. Junji Shimizu, managing director of the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan, Tokyo.

"The Use of School Broadcasting Propaganda in our School"

Mr. Akira Noguchi, principal of Kinka Primary School, Tokyo.

Mr. Harry Carpenter, specialist in science, Rochester, New York.

"Broadcasting and the Curriculum"

Mr. Thomas Henderson, of the Educational Institute of Scotland.

"The Dramatized Lesson and Illustrated Talk"

Miss Mary Somerville, of the British Broadcasting Corporation.

Colleges and Universities

Chairman : Dr. Robert L. Kelly, president of the Association of American Colleges, New York City.

Secretary : Dr. Jeseph M. Gwinn, professor of education of the State Teachers College, San Jose, California.

Directorate Representative : Dr. P. Seshadri, principal of the Government College in Ajimer, India.

First Session, August 2

Topics including "Problems and Tend-

encies in Higher Education in the Far East," "Universities and Colleges of Present-day Japan," "Higher Education of Women in Japan," "University Freedom," etc. under the leadership in discussion of Dr. P. Seshadri.

Second Session, August 3

Topics including "The Functions of the University in a Twentieth Century Programme of Education," "What Are the Functions of a University," "Cultural Studies in Colleges and Universities," "The American College of Tomorrow," "The Key to Western Civilization," "The Place of Colleges and Universities in the Philippines," and "Women's and Girls' Education in the Bombay Presidency."

Commercial Education

Chairman : Dr. Teijiro Ueda, president of the Tokyo University of Commerce, Tokyo.

Vice-chairman : Dr. Tsuneo Tajiri, director of Yokohama Higher Commercial School.

Secretary : Dr. William Alonzo James, principal of Ball High School, Galveston, Texas.

Directorate Representative : Miss Selma Borchardt, chairman of the Committee on International Relations, American Federation of Teachers, Washington, D. C.

First Session, August 2

Topics including "Commercial Education and International Mutual Service," "Commercial Education in Canada and Its Relation to International Service," etc.

Second Session, August 2

"Commercial Education in Different Countries," "Practice Course on Commerce in Japanese Commercial Schools," "Speciality of the Commercial School in Japan," "Specialization in Commercial Education," "Commercial Education in Japan," etc.

Educational Legislation

Chairman : Miss Selma M. Borchardt, chairman of the International Relations Committee of the American Federation of Teachers, Washington, D. C.

Secretary : Mr. Aurelio Ramos, of the Philippine Teachers Organization, Philippine Islands.

First Session, August 5

"Trends in Educational Legislation," "Teacher Tenure," "The Danish Volkschule," "Recognition at Law of Various Abilities and Problems of Adjustments," etc.

Second Session, August 7

"Education—A Force for Social Reconstruction Outside the Class Room," "Adult Education—A Co-ordinating Force in the Promotion of Social Stability," "School Adjustment and Cultural Movements in Japan," etc.

Educational Crafts

Chairman : Mr. Honoroto Ramos, of the Philippines.

Secretary : Mr. Alfred Emms, of the Henry Lester School of Technology in Shanghai.

Directorate Representative : Mr. P. A. Inamdar, director of Public Instruction in Idar State, Himatnagar, India.

First Session, August 2

"Educational Crafts in Japan," "Hand Work as an Educational Medium," "Educational Crafts in the Philippines." Short Papers.

Second Session, August 3

"Eductional Crafts in the Girls' Higher Schools and Colleges of Japan," etc. Short papers.

Elementary Education

Chairman : Mr. H. N. Penlington

Secretary : Mr. Granville Prior

First Session, August 2

"Primary Education for Those Living in Rural and Urban Areas," "Elementary Education in the Philippines," "Art and Handicraft in Elementary Schools," etc.

Second Session, August 3

"Moral Education," "The Training of Teachers," "Character—Its Importance for Today's Civilization," "New Education in our Primary Schools," "Freedom, Unification and Authority in Education."

Third Session, August 4

"The Teaching of Calculation by the Use of Abacus," "An Authorized Textbook System," "Teaching of Language as a Problem for International Co-operation," "The Boys Clubs as a Factor in Good Citizenship."

Geography Section

Chairman : Dr. Takeo Kato, professor of Tokyo Imperial University.

Vice-Chairman : Dr. Junichi Takahashi, of Tohoku Imperial University.

Secretary : Dr. Julia M. Shipman, of Mount Holyoke College, Hadley, Mass.

Directorate Representative : Mr. Lloyd-Pierce, of England.

First Session, August 2

"Promotion of International Goodwill Through Geographical Education," "Suggested Procedures for Securing Closer Articulation of Geographic Education Throughout the World," "Comments by some Geography Teachers in the United States of America," "Recent Developments of Geographical Education in

Great Britain," "Recent Developments of Geographical Education in Japan," "Some Phases of Teaching the Geography of the United States," "Geography and Geography Education." Papers.

Second Session, August 3

"Remarks on School Atlases," "How to Realize International Exchange of Geographical Teaching Materials," "Work in Geography with Little Children," "The Changing Commercial Geography of China," "Changes of Distribution of Population in Japan Since 1970," "Study of Geographical Education in the Secondary Schools of Japan from the Viewpoint of the Pupils' Interest," etc.

Health Section

Chairman: Prof. C. E. Turner, Massachusetts Institute of Technology Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Acting Chairman: Mr. L. de Gielgud, of France.

1st Vice-Chairman: M. Georges Milsom, of France. (Not attending)

2nd Vice-Chairman: Dr. Y. Yoshida, of the Imperial Institute for Researches in Physical Education, Tokyo.

Secretary: Miss Sally Lucas Jean, of New York City. (Not attending)

Acting Secretary: Mr. Frank E. Midkiff, of Hawaii.

Vice-Chairman: Dr. Yukinobu Yoshida, of Tokyo.

First Session (Health Education)

"School Health Programmes in Denmark," "School Health Activities in Italy," "The A-I Child Health Programme in the Philippines," "School Health Activities in Palestine," "School Health Activities of the All-India Federation of Education Associations."

Second Session (Health Services)

"Health Education Activities of the Junior Red Cross," "Health Education in Tokyo Health Demonstration District," "Programmes and Progress in Health Education in India," "Education Aspects of Physical Examinations of College Students," "The Better Village Movement in the Pubjab and the Part Played by Schools," "Preparing Girls to Meet Health Problems in Rural Egypt."

Third Session (Physical Education)

"American Physical Education Association Activities," "Physical Measuring of Japanese Children and Application of the Result to Their Health Promotion," "Dental Health Education and Service for the Children of Hawaii," "Present Status of School Dental Hygiene in Japan," "Eye Health Programme for School Children."

Herman-Jordan Committee

Chairman: Dean H. Lester Smith of Indiana University.

Secretary:

First Session, August 2

"International Understanding and Goodwill Through Education," "Recent Progress in Peace Education," "The Effects of Peace Education on the Building of Character," "Women's Education as Seen Through International Understanding," "Cultural Relations of Japan and Roumania."

Second Session, August 5

"The Pacific Settlement of International Conflicts—An Orientation Course in Colleges," "Teacher Training for International Goodwill," "The Oriental Institute of the University of Hawaii and Its Place in the Cultural and Economic Developments of the Pacific," "The Van Loan-Thomas Plan."

Home and School Section

Chairman: Mrs. J. K. Pettengill, president of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan.

Directorate Representative: Dr. Uel W. Lamkin, president of the State Teachers College, Maryville, Missouri.

First Session, August 4

"A Synopsis of the Educational Philosophy Advanced By the Founder of the Parents National Education Union," "Parent Education in North America," "Japanese Home Life and Home Education," etc.

Second Session, August 5

"Home and School System of the New Italy," "Co-operation of Home and School," "The Home-School Contribution to World Fellowship," etc.

Joint Session of Pre-school and Kindergarten Section and Home and School Section

Chairman: Mrs. J. K. Pettengill, president of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan.

Special Subject (August 7)

"The Education of Mothers," "Education of Women."

Preparation of Teachers Section

Chairman: Miss A. E. Philips, of Avery Hill College, Eltham, London.

Secretary: Dean H. Lester Smith of Indiana University.

First Session, August 3

"The Preparation of Teachers—The Need for Well-ordered Experiments," "Some Experiments in Teacher Training in the United States," "Character of Japanese Teacher," "Preparation of

Teachers in Venezuela," "Teacher Training in Canada," "Training of Women Teachers in Japan."

Second Session, August 4

"Teachers of General Education During the Tokugawa Era (17–19 cent.)," "Teacher Training," etc.

Pre-School and Kindergarten Section

Chairman: Miss Frida Kruse, of MacDonald College, Quebec, Canadian Teachers Federation, Canada.

Secretary: Miss Edith U. Conard, of the Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

Directorate Representative: Dr. Uel W. Lamkin, president of the State Teachers College, Maryville, Missouri.

First Session, August 2

"Character Training in Japanese Kindergarten," "Childhood Education in Japan, Past and Present," "The Activity Movement and the Experience Curriculum," "The Arts in the Experience Curriculum," "Science in the Experience Curriculum," etc.

Second Session, August 3

Panel discussion on "The Fundamental Needs of Young Children Everywhere and How the School Can Meet Them," with Miss Alice Thorn presiding.

Rural Education Section

Chairman: Mr. W. Lloyd Pierce, of Llanfaircaereinion, Wales.

Secretary: Dr. Wm. Mck. Robinson, of the State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Michigan.

Directorate Representative: Mr. Thomas J. O'Connell, of Dublin, Ireland.

First Session, August 3

"The Twentieth Century Problems in Rural Education," "Ireland and Rural Education," "How Scotland Solves Her Rural Education Problems," "New Trends in Agricultural Education in Japan," "The Place of Rural Education in Modern Producers' and Consumers' Co-operatives."

Second Session, August 4

"The Education of Infants in Rural Area," "New Aspects of Rural Education in Japan," "A Philosophy of Rural Education," "Equalizing Educational Opportunity," "Some Significant Phases of Rural Education in Iowa," "Ichthyology in Japan," "Some Aspects of Rural Education in Canada," "Discussion of Rural Education," "Rural Education in the Philippines."

Joint Session of Rural and Health Sections (August 7)

"Training in Health and Recreatinn of Rural Inhabitants," "The Conditions of Rural Schools."

Science Section

Chairman: Dr. Keita Shibata, director of the Science Department of Tokyo Imperial University.

Secretary: Dr. Otis W. Caldwell, of the Boyce-Thomson Institute for Plant Research, Yonkers, New York.

Assistant Secretary: Mr. Harry A. Carpenter, specialist in science of the Rochester Public Schools, New York.

First Session, August 5

"Present Status of Science Teaching in Elementary and Secondary Schools of Each Country Represented at the World Education Conference" and special topics including "Model Equipment for the Teaching of Science in Elementary Schools," "Suiting Biological Instruction to Human Values, Emphasizing Vital Health Factors," "Biology as an Educational Subject," "Education for Family Living."

Second Session, August 7

Demonstration of "Motion Picture as an Aid to Science Teaching" and general and special topics including "Science Teaching in Rochester," "The Relation Between the Local Education (Heimaterziehung) and the Nature Study in the Elementary Schools in Japan," "Types of Educational Research in Science Teaching," "Experiments and Observations in Natural Science in Japanse Middle Schools," "How Science Teachers Are Trained."

Third Session, August 7

"Japanese Morning Glory and Its Importance in Genetical Studies," "Earthquake and Mitigation of Earthquake Disasters," "The Scientific Research on Volcanoes," "Summary of Science Developments in the United States," "Significance of Scientific Research to Education and to Society," etc.

Secondary Education Section

Chairman: Mr. Oren E. Long, superintendent of Public Instruction in the Territory of Hawaii.

Vice-Chairman: Mr. John C. McGlade, of San Francisco.

Secretary: Miss Elizabeth Mck. Moore, of California.

Directorate Representative: Mr. G. R. Parker

First Session, August 4

"What Should Be Emphasized in the Promotion of International Goodwill and Understanding In Secondary Education," "Special Characteristics of Education in the Girls' High Schools of Japan," "'Special Characteristics of

Education in the Middle Schools of Japan," "Secondary Education in the Philippines," etc.

Second Session, August 5

"Four Fundamentals of New Education," "Tradition and Adventure in Education," "Freedom in Education."

Teachers' Organizations

Chairman : Mr. Roy Cloud, of the California Teachers Association, San Francisco, California.

Secretary : Mr. W. Humphrey, of England.

Directorate Representative : Dr. E. A. Hardy

First Session, August 5

"The Attainment of Professional Status Through Teachers' Organizations," "Teachers' Organizations in Japan," "Teachers' Organizations in the Philippines," "Association of Women Teachers in the Elementary and Secondary Schools of Japan."

Second Session, August 7

"Pension System of Private Schools in Japan," etc.

Visual Education

Chairman : Mr. Tsunekichi Mizuno, chief of the adult education section of the social education bureau of the Japanese Education Ministry.

Directorate Representative : President H. Nagata.

Session, August 5

"Promotion of International Goodwill Through Cisual Education," "Visual Education in Canada and Its International Relationships," "Visual Education in Japan," "Visual Education in the Philippines," etc.

CHAPTER XXIX

RELIGION

General Survey

From prehistoric ages Japan has had an indigenous cult which is now known as Shinto. Buddhism and Confucianism were introduced through Korea and China later, and Christianity more recently still. Islam, however, never gained a footing on her soil, though its literature has been introduced to some slight extent.

Shintoism has had little to do with the thought and life of the people, apart from its relations with the functions of the guardian deities, national and local, and bears some resemblance to the primitive cults of Greece and Italy. It is now divided into two, namely, national Shintoism, which is represented by the shrines, and sectarian Shintoism, which developed towards the end of the Tokugawa Shogunate.

Confucianism is rather a code of moral precepts than a religion, except in that it teaches some vague ideas regarding a heavenly God. In the realm of moral culture it has exerted great influence on the minds of the Japanese people and on their principles of daily life; that influence being very noticeable in the Imperial Rescript on Education of the Emperor Meiji. Further mention of Confucianism will be omitted here because it can hardly be regarded as a religious cult.

Buddhism has had still greater influence on all phases of Japanese life. Its fatalism has had a retarding effect on the material progress of the Japanese as with other Oriental nations, but has induced a habit of dauntless composure in their behaviour, and its broad philanthropy has given rise to a spirit of mutual help among the people, subduing egoism or individualism. Its philosophical literature fed the national thought, while its fine art has left many masterpieces enriching the cultural life of the Japanese. Buddhism is still the most powerful among the religions in Japan.

Christianity has made valuable contribution toward the civilization of Japan with its world-wide nature and positive teachings on human life. The number of believers is comparatively small, but its influence on the people's thought and morals is said to be even greater than that of Buddhism. It has raised Japan's moral standards, waging war against licensed prostitution, the low position of women, drinking and smoking, and polygamy as practised in a certain section of society. It has still to amalgamate itself with the life of the people in order to exert greater influence upon them, but its future is hopeful.

Shinto Shrines

Most Shinto shrines are supervised by the Shrine Bureau of the Home Department, which consists of one chief official and 64 minor officials. The budget of the Bureau for the fiscal year 1937–38 is as follows:

Running expenses	
Isé Great Shrine	230,000
Other national shrines	1,000,000
Ceremonies and rituals	7,105
Soldiers' shrines	14,255
Total	1,251,360
Incidental expenses	
Office of Isé Great Shrine	35,184
Investigations	9,000
Reconstructions	1,041,000
Education of priests	51,436
Total	1,136,620
Sum total	2,387,980

The Isé Great Shrine is the most honoured of all as the first national shrine. The Goddess enshrined in it is Amaterasu-Omikami, which may be translated as Heaven-Shining-Great-Goddess. According to the Japanese mythology, Amaterasu-Omikami sent down her grandson to the Nippon Islands to rule the people by the 'Kingly Way,' giving him the Three Sacred Treasures, which have been handed down even to the present Emperor as the sacred symbols of the Imperial Throne (see Appendix, The Constitution of Japan; The Imperial Household Law Article X; and Chapter III). In the Great Shrine and appendant shrines more than 10 gods, who represent the Imperial ancestors or personify natural powers, are installed beside the principal Goddess.

The name of the shrine comes from its location in Isé province or more ac-

curately on the Isuzu river, city of Ujiyamada, Mié prefecture. The whole sacred area of the Great Shrine includes 13,135 acres.

About 87 priests are attending it under a chief priest. There are established a seminary for the education of priests, a police station, two museums, and a library in connection with the shrine.

The budget for the fiscal year 1937–38 is ¥265,184.

According to the report of the Shrine Bureau, the Home Department, the number of other shrines at the end of 1934 was as follows :

Governmental and national shrines	197
Prefectural and village shrines	49,505
Private shrines	61,261
Soldiers' shrines	104

The number of private shrines in Japan proper has been steadily decreasing since 1889, lessening from 136,783 in that year to 61,183 in 1935. There were many too superstitious and barbarous ones among them and the decrease indicates the healthy progress of the religious ideas of the people and the radical policy of the government.

The total area of the sacred campus of these shrines in 1933 (not including soldiers' shrines) covered 76,948,646 tsubo, 65,721,332 of it being government property.

The total number of priests in Japan proper at the end of the year 1934 was 15,628.

For the education of priests there are one seminary of college grade at Isé as mentioned above, a department in Kokugakuin (Japanese literature) College of junior college grade, a middle school grade seminary affixed to the one at Isé, and 26 smaller places for giving a course of study, the total number of students being not more than 2,100. It may be said, therefore, that the education of Shinto priests is on a much lower scale than that of Buddhist priests or Christian pastors.

Sectarian Shintoism

Shinto Sect This sect is called by the general name given to the national cult before its later branches had developed. The principal ideas of the sect are to follow the "Great Way of the Gods," and to propagate the national cult indigenous to the people of this country. Its believers and devotees consider it their most important duty to cultivate reverence for the gods, cherish the spirit of patriotism, elucidate Heavenly Reason and Humanity, pay homage to the Emperor, and observe all the Imperial ordinances.

Kurozumi Sect This was founded by Munetada Kurozumi (1780–1850), who was born at a small village of Okayama prefecture. His main idea was to inhale, while contemplating the Goddess Amaterasu-Omikami, the energy of the sun, and thereby to fill up the heart with satisfaction and complaisance. He teaches to avoid the following seven evils, which are against the will of the gods : (1) to be faithless to the country of the gods in which one was born ; (2) to get angry and to worry over things ; (3) to be arrogant and spiteful ; (4) to entertain evil desires from seeing others do evil ; (5) to neglect one's household affairs while in good health ; (6) not to have sincerity even when one is entering upon the path of sincerity ; and (7) not to accept things gratefully for which one ought to be grateful every day.

Other sects of Shinto are as follows—the teachings of all being much the same, except that some lay particular stress on the worship of one or another of the early gods :—

Shinto-shusei	Found by Kunimitsu Nittá (1829–1902) born in Chiba Prefecture.
Taisha	Preached by Sompuku Sengé (1845–1918)
Fuso	Founded by Takekuni Fujiwará (1541–1646) and preached by Han Shishino.
Taisei	Founded by Shosai Hirayama (1815–1890)
Jikko	Founded by Hanamori Shibata (1809–1890)
Shinshu	Founded by Masamochi Yoshimura (1839–1916) Okayama prefecture.
Ontaké	The chief centre of this sect is Mount Ontaké, where the spirits of certain gods are enshrined.
Misogi	The sect of Water Purification. Founded by Masakané Inouyé (1790–1849) of Mié prefecture.
Shinri	Founded by Tsunehiká Sáno (1834–1906)
Konko	Founded by a farmer, Bunjiro Kawaté (1814–1883)
Tenri	Founded by a woman, Miki Nakayama (1798–1887) of Nara prefecture. Of all these sects the Tenri-kyo has perhaps the greatest number of believers ; it lays emphasis on personal

Tenri conduct and mental discipline, in addition to patriotism and obedience to the Emperor and Imperial ordinances. It particularizes the "eight forms of dust which must be swept away"; they are grudging, evil desires, impure attachments, hatred, enmity, anger, covetousness and arrogance.

Buddhism

It was in the thirteenth year of the Emperor Kimmei (552 A.D.) that Buddhism, first founded in India, came over to Japan after passing through China and Korea. Prince Shotoku, Regent from 593 to 628 A.D. and a devout Buddhist, was largely responsible for its rapid spread throughout the country. Six schools of Buddhism, that is, Sanron, Hosso, Jojitsu, Kusha, Ritsu, and Kegon, were introduced one after another. In the reign of the Emperor Kwammu (782–805 A.D.), Tendai and Shingon flourished. New schools such as Jodo, Zen, Shin, Nichiren and others then gradually developed. Through these long periods of its history Buddhism became further divided, owing to differences in the exposition of the doctrines and in the methods of propagation, into many sub-sects. Eleven of the principal sects still in existence are Hosso, Kegon, Ritsu, Tendai, Shingon, Yuzunembutsu, Jodo, Shin, Ji, Zen, and Nichiren; and these eleven are sub-divided into fifty-eight branches. The principal teachings of the eleven Buddhist sects are as follows:

Hosso Sect This sect was introduced into Japan by Dosho (628–700), a Buddhist priest who went to China in 653 and studied its teachings under Hsuantsang. The main teachings of Hosso are that all sentient beings find Salvation in accordance with the difference in character and endowments, of which five yanas are to be distinguished, that the doctrinal system of this sect and its scriptural texts are in full correspondence with the truth, that as all things are merely manifestations of pure consciousness, there are no real ego-souls and no real objects, and that the great fruit of Bodhi and Nirvana is attainable in and through the reality of the Middle Path, which is a peculiar combination of realism and idealism.

Kegon Sect Roben (688–776) of Todaiji Temple, Nara, the first propagator of this sect in Japan, learned its doctrines from the Chinese Buddhist priest Dokei who visited Japan during the Tempyo Era (729–749). The teachings of this sect are based upon the Kegon Sutra, which says that the ultimate reason of Suchness is absolute and infinite; the Ultimate and the Manifested are mutually related and intimately intertwined; each Manifestation too is so thoroughly and interminglingly related to another Manifestation that between the two there is no wall of individual separation. The teachings of the sect are, therefore, called the Perfect Doctrine. Those who, in accordance with the doctrine, understand the mystery of the mute evolution of the spiritual cosmos, and who practise goodness and are guarded in their conduct, are sure to attain Buddhahood and to realize the Ultimate Reason. The head-temple of this Sect is Todaiji in the city of Nara.

The term "Shinnyo", or tathatva, which we have translated "Suchness" in the foregoing, is a very comprehensive word, signifying "truth", "reality," or "the first principle of emptiness". The first character, "Shin" means "that which is true without any admixture of error". The second "Nyo", is the same as is usually translated "like". The two taken together have come to mean "the Absolute Itself". There are three main interpretations of it. The doctrine of the Kegon Sect, as one of these interpretations, identifies the absolute and the relative, the noumenal and the phenomenal, asserting that each separate phenemenon, being endowed with the qualities of the Absolute, has unlimited power to produce other phenomena. The doctrine derived from the Kegon Sutra teaches that even a single particle of dust has the manifold, infinite and absolute virtues of all things in the universe, and that so, if a man observes a certain practice, he is at the same time doing all other religious practices.

Ritsu Sect The Ritsu or the Sect of Moral Discipline ("Vinaya" in Sanskrit) was first propagated in Japan by Ganjin (686–763), a Chinese Buddhist priest, who came to Japan during the Tempyo Era (729–749). It obtains its name from the Vinaya-pitaka, according to which its followers strictly regulate their daily conduct. It teaches to observe, as ordered by Buddha, all the precepts ("sila" in Sanskrit) such as the Five Precepts, the Eight Precepts, the Six Novitiate Precepts, the Ten Precepts, or the Two Hundred and Fifty Precepts. Toshodaiji in Nara prefecture is the head-temple of this Sect.

Tendai Sect The founder of this sect was Chisha Daishi (537–597) of the Sui Dynasty.

The Japanese priest Saicho (Denkyo Daishi, 766–822) went over to China in the year 782 during the Yenryaku Era, and studied the principles of Tendai there. On his return to Japan, he became the chief exponent of the sect in this country. The teachings of the Tendai Sect are comprised in two divisions, metaphysics and meditation. It critically systematizes in its metaphysical part all the teachings of Sakyamuni, drawing a clear line between what is mere expedient and what really represents the spirit of the founder of Buddhism. As the result Tendai has come to consider Saddharma-pundarika Sutra (the Lotus of the Good Law) the doctrine of Sakyamuni, in which the reason of his appearance on earth is truthfully explained. The meditation part consists in applying our minds to all that is taught in the Sutra and realizing it in our daily practical life. Ten grades are distinguished in the practice of meditation, while its main object is to put a stop to disturbing thoughts and to get enlightened on the principles of the four classes of Buddhist doctrines. The ultimate end of all this is the realization of the mysteries of the Pundarika. When we perceive that the Hidden and the Manifest are of one and the same essence and realize that state of mind which is known to the Buddhas only, we have the central teaching of Tendai, that is we have attained the final enlightenment in which the spiritual and the material are thoroughly unified.

There are three sub-sects or branches in this sect, each of them having its own head-temple. They are: (1) the Tendai Branch, whose head-temple, Yenryakuji, is in Shiga prefecture; (2) the Jimon Branch, which has its head-temple in Onjoji in Shiga prefecture; and (3) the Shinsei Branch, the head-temple of which is Saikyoji in Shiga prefecture.

Shingon Sect The first exponent of this sect in Japan was Kukai (Kobo Daishi, 773–835), who went over to China soon after Saicho, the Japanese founder of Tendai. According to this sect, there are three fundamental conceptions, which are, Substance, Appearance, and Function. The Six Universals—earth, water, fire, air, the void, and consciousness—are Substances. The four systems of Mandala, that is, Great Mandala, Samaya Mandala, Dharma Mandala, and Karma Mandala, are Appearances. The three Secrets—body, words, and mind—are Functions. The Six Universals are the elemental substances of which all things are constituted. They take Apparances, which, though innumerable, can be classified under four headings. The first is the Great Mandala representing all living beings such as Buddhas, Bodhisattvas, Gods, evil spirits or human beings. The second is the Samaya Mandala which consists in Mudras and symbolic instruments of Buddhas, Bodhisattvas, devas, and spirits. The third is the Dharma Mandala containing all the names or titles of the Buddhas and other beings. The fourth and last one is the Karma Mandala in which are represented all the Functions as well as the outward bodily attitudes assumed by Buddhas and other beings. As the six Universals are infinite and mutually intermingle and are most intimately related, so the four Mandalas are also mutually related and intermingled. That is to say, the Buddhas' four Mandalas are also our own just as they are in the Buddhas, and conversely, our own Mandalas are those of the Buddhas. When the four Mandalas or Appearances are symbolized in our bodies and our fingers are "knotted" after the regular formulas, and the mouth recites the various Mantras and Dharanis, and the mind contemplates the sameness of the mind, Buddha, and all sentient beings, then the Functions of the three Secrets are completed. Let this completion be attained, and we are Buddhas while we are in this material existence.

"Mandala" has a large number of different meanings. It is often applied to concrete objects such as an altar, a platform, a circular plate, a picture, and possibly an image; but it came to have the abstract meaning of "growth", "perfection", or "a complete collection of all virtues."

This sect is sub-divided into eight branches, which are: Koya, Omuro, Daikakuji, Daigo, Toji, Yamashina, Ono, and Senyuji.

Three hundred years after the death of Kukai, the Japanese founder of the Shingon Sect, a priest called Kakuban known as Kokyo Daishi (1094–1143), established a new school of Shingon. Under this there are two branches now, one of which is Chizan and other Buzan. The head-temple of the former is Chishaku-in, Kyoto, while that of the latter is Chokokuji (Hasedera), in Nara prefecture.

Yuzu-nembutsu Sect This was founded in 1117 by Ryonin, known as Showo Daishi (1071–1132). Its principal teachings are that as all things are essentially of one nature and intimately relat-

ed, the virtues of one person must be also those of all others, and conversely; that the merits of the Buddha's name invoked by all earnest hearts will mutually grow, establishing a spiritual communion with one another in a most thorough manner; that therefore the invoking of the Buddha's name and contemplating him, even during this short period of one's earthly life, must bear the great fruit, if it is most sincerely done, of making us all attain to Buddhahood through the perfection of infinite merits.

The head-temple of this sect is Dainembutsuji of Osaka prefecture.

Jodo Sect The founder of this sect was Genku, known as Yenko Daishi or Honen, (1133–1212), and it was established in 1174. The basis of the doctrines of the Jodo Sect is laid upon the original prayers of Amitabha Buddha. Being convinced of the general sinfulness of human nature, which makes us incapable of enduring all the painful process of self-discipline and self-perfection, Jodo teaches us to throw all our reliance upon the strength of the original prayers of Amitabha Buddha, When we thus, absolutely believing in him, invoke his name with all the sincerity of the heart, we shall be born in future in his Pure Land. The head-temple, Chion-in, is in Kyoto.

One of Genku's disciples, called Shoku (1176–1247), established a new separate school at Nishiyama, which is known as the Seizan Branch of Jodo. This branch is again subdivided into three: (1) Zenrinji, its head-temple bearing the same title, is in Kyoto prefecture; (2) Komyoji; and (3) Fukakusa, Seigwanji, Kyoto, is its head-temple.

Shin Sect Shinran (1173–1262), who is known as Kenshin Daishi, founded the Shin Sect. He was a disciple of Genku, and the main doctrines do not vary so very much from those of his master except in this: that we, the ignorant, have no real existence, and however strenuously we may exert ourselves, we have no "causal germ" in us which will develop into Buddhahood. The priests of the sect can marry and eat flesh. The original prayers of Amitabha in which the invocation of the Buddha's name is highly recommended, testify that the causal germ of Buddhahood, by virtue of the efficiency of the prayers, will be planted in us, which means that all that is necessary for us to be reborn in the Pure Land of Amitabha is now sufficient and fulfilled.

There are at present ten branches of the Shin Sect: Hongwanji, Otani, Bukkoji, Takata, Kibé, Kosho, Idzumoji, Yamamoto, Seishoji, and Sammonto.

Ji Sect This was first promulgated by Ippen (1239–1289). The principal ideas of the sect are: Life is a frail and impermanent thing, and as every moment of it flits away, every act of ours must be regarded as the last one on earth. When, perceiving the truth of this fact, we do not neglect in every thought of ours to invoke the name of the Amitabha Buddha, we shall surely reach the final blissful state of Buddhahood.

The head-temple, Shojokoji, is in Kanagawa prefecture.

Zen Sect Under this name three Sects are comprised: Rinzai, Soto, and Obaku.

The Rinzai Sect of Zen was first taught by Yeisai (1140–1215) who came back from China in 1192. Soto finds its first Japanese exponent in Dogen (known as Joyo Daishi, 1199–1253) who studied Zen in China during the Sung Dynasty and returned to Japan in 1234. Obaku was introduced to Japan by a naturalized Chinese priest Yin-gen (1592–1673) in 1653.

The Zen Sect teaches the doctrine which is known only to the Buddhas and the transmission of which takes place only from one mind to another. It transcends logic and objective understanding. We do not have to purify ourselves from sins, nor is it necessary to seek after supreme knowledge. The ultimate truth is not in more learning, thinking, or in discipline. It is above doctrines and meritorious deeds, and also above any special attainment. Zen teaches us to abide right in the truth and reality of life, every act of which will then reveal thousands of Samadhis. Whether lying or sleeping, whether drawing water or hewing wood, every movement grows full of significance. That is why Zen sums up its teachings in the following four phrases: "No reliance on word or letter; a special transmission outside of the scriptural doctrines; a direct pointing at the soul of man; and attainment to Buddhahood by seeing into one's own mind."

There are fourteen branches in the Rinzai Sect: Kenninji, Kenchoji, Tofukuji, Engakuji, Nanzenji, Daitokuji, Myoshinji, Tenryuji, Yeigenji, Shokokuji, Hokoji, Buttsuji, Kokutaiji, and Kogakuji. The Soto Sect has two head-temples, Yeiheiji, and Sojiji. Obaku is undivided, and its head-temple is Mampukuji, Uji, Kyoto prefecture.

Nichiren Sect This was founded by Nichiren (1222–1281) on the merits of the Saddharma-pundarika Sutra. The life of the Sect is in the seven syllables of "Na-mu-myo-ho-ren-gé-kyo," which is

called "Daimoku," or a kind of theme. As this is the title of the Sutra revealing the absolute oneness of all opposites, even evil-hearted ones will attain to Buddhahood if they recite it in sincerity, and along with it all the ten universes will be equally benefited.

This sect is sub-divided into nine branches: (1) Nichiren-shu (the head-temple, Kuonji, is in Yamanashi prefecture); (2) Hommon-shu, (Hommon-ji at Ikegami, Tokyo, and six other temples in Shizuoka prefecture are its head-temples); (3) Hokké-shu, (its head-temple, Honjoji, is in Niigata prefecture); (4) Kempon-hokké-shu, (Kochoji and four others in Shizuoka prefecture are its head-temples); (6) Hommyo-hokké-shu, (its head-temple is Honryuji, Kyoto); (7) Nichiren-seishu, (its head-temple is Daisekiji in Shizuoka prefecture); (8) Nichiren-shu-fujufusé-ha, (its head-temple is Myokakuji in Okayama prefecture); and (9) Nichiren-shu-fujufusé-komon-ha, (the head-temple, Honkakuji, is also in Okayama prefecture).

Christianity

Before the Restoration Christianity was first introduced into Japan by Francis Xavier, a Jesuit Father, who came to Kagoshima in 1549. This was the time when Nobunaga Oda was at the height of his power, and he gave great encouragement to the spread of the Christian religion. Hideyoshi Toyotomi, his successor, too, was kindly disposed towards it. Combined with the devout and untiring work of the missionaries, this attitude on the part of the authorities made it possible for Christianity to gain followers with wonderful rapidity. Their number is reported to have run into hundreds of thousands.

Hideyoshi, however, changed his policy later on. Christianity was interdicted, its followers were persecuted, and the missionaries had to leave the country. When the Tokugawa Shogunate was established, still stricter measures were adopted, especially after the Shimabara Rebellion in 1637. Christianity had now no hope of prospering under the rigorous Government policy of exclusion. The only port open to foreigners was Deshima, Nagasaki, where the Dutch traders were allowed to carry on their business.

The American envoy, Commodore Perry, came to Uraga in 1853, demanding a friendly commercial treaty with his country. The Shogunate Government granted this request in 1854 not only to America, but to Russia, England, France and Holland, and in the year following the three ports of Kanagawa, Nagasaki, and Hakadaté were opened to foreign trade. A party of American missionaries were the first to avail themselves of the opportunity thus offered to them. Among them were the Rev. J. Liggins, of the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States of America, and the Rev. M. C. Williams, who came to Nagasaki in 1859. These were soon followed by Dr. G. F. Verbeck, of the Presbyterian Church (1859), and J. Goble, of the American Baptist Missionary Society (1860), and others. In 1864, the Rev. J. H. Ballagh, of the Dutch Reformed Church, came from America, and in the following year came Dr. Thompson, of the American Presbyterian Church.

In 1869, the Rev. D. C. Greene made Kobé the basis of his mission work representing the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. The first woman missionary, Miss Kidder, of the Dutch Reformed Church, arrived here in the same year. In 1873, the American Methodist Episcopal Church and the Canadian Methodist Church sent their missionaries, and in 1876 the Evangelical Association of North America started its propaganda work.

The Restoration When the Tokugawa feudal system collapsed and the Imperial House was restored to power, the edicts prohibiting "Kirishitan" were withdrawn, in the sixth year of Meiji(1873), and missionaries were officially permitted to establish schools, publish religious tracts, and preach their doctrines in all the sea-ports open for foreign trade. In 1872, the Rev. Brown and Rev. Ballagh of Yokohama established, aided by their young followers, a Christian church to be known as the Yokohama Yaso Kyokai, which was the beginning of the Union Church. In the following year a sister church was organized at Tsukiji, Tokyo. This was the first Christian church in the metropolis. In 1876 Nagasaki saw another church established. Later all these churches were federated under the name of the United Church of Christ in Japan. This was the origin of the Nihon Kirisuto Kyokai. The Rev. D. C. Greene who started his mission work in Kobé established a church known as the Settsu First Christian Church. This was the first Congregational Church ever organized in Japan, and developed into the present Kobé Kumiai Kirisuto Kyokai. In the same year the Umemoto-Cho Church came into existence in Osaka, which later came to be called the Osaka Kumiai Kirisuto Kyokai. Some

time before this, thirty-five students of the Kumamoto Foreign School, who were converted to Christianity under the influence of their American teacher, Captain Janes, came up to Kyoto, and entered the Doshisha College just established by J. H. Neeshima, who had lately returned from America. After their graduation from the college they grew active as propagators of Christianity, and built up the foundations of the Nihon Kumiai Kirisuto Kyokai. In 1872, the Rev. Loomis and Rev. Ballagh conducted a Bible class for young men in the above-mentioned Church at Yokohama every Sunday afternoon. In 1873, a Congregational Missionary, Dr. Berry, set up in Kobé a Sunday-school, probably the first one conducted in the Japanese language. As to the vernacular translation of the Bible, in which Dr. Brown had been engaged for some time, the work progressed rapidly early in the Meiji Era, and the New Testament was completed in December, 1879, and the Old Testament in 1886. The chief translators were Brown, Verbeck, Greene, and Maclay, while among the native assistants were Takakichi Matsuyama, Masatsuna Okuno, Masahisa Uyemura, Kajinosuké Ibuka, Goro Takahashi, and others.

Y. M. C. A. In 1880, the Young Men's Christian Association was first organized in Tokyo, and among the leaders must be mentioned Hiromichi Kozaki, Kajinosuké Ibuka, Masahisa Uyemura, and Yoshiyasu Hiraiwa.

In 1870, Miss Kidder opened a school for girls in Yokohama. This was the first institution of the kind in Japan, and from it developed the present Ferris School for Girls. Four years later another girls' school, Kobé Jo Gakuin, was erected in Kobé by the Congregationalists.

According to the statistics of 1882, there were in that year 145 foreign missionaries, 93 organized churches, 13 of which were self-supporting, 4,367 adult members, 39 mixed schools, 15 girls' schools, 9 middle schools, 7 theological colleges, 109 Sunday-schools, 49 ordained preachers, 100 assistant preachers, 37 Bible women, and 5 hospitals.

In 1883, the Church of Christ sent missionaries to Japan, and in 1885 the Presbyterian Church of the United States of America did the same. The American Society of Friends, and the Evangelical Protestant Missionary Society of Germany and Switzerland also despatched their agents. In 1886, missionaries came from the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, and in Osaka a hall was set up for the Young Men's Christian Association. In 1887 the missionaries and representatives of the Episcopal Church of England and America had a conference, the result of which was the organization of the Holy Catholic Church of Japan. In the same year, the American Unitarian Association sent its representative, the Rev. A. M. Knapp, and following him came the Rev. Clay McCauley.

Freedom of Faith On February 11, 1889, the Constitution was promulgated, and freedom of faith was definitely guaranteed by Article XXVIII. In that year, L. D. Wishard, International College Secretary of the Young Men's Christian Association, came, and planned out a summer school for Bible study for the first time in this country. Since then every summer sees its work carried on. The United Church of Christ in Japan changed its name into the Church of Christ in Japan, compiled a fundamental law, settled on its creeds, and at last became an independent organization. Soon after, they put up a Board of Missions and made progress towards financial independence.

In 1890, the Universalist General Convention of America sent its missionaries. In 1895 officers of the Salvation Army came, and Gumpei Yamamuro joined it, and they at once started on their propaganda work. In the same year, the United Brethren in Christ started a mission.

Until 1901 the foreign missionaries, had not been allowed to hold land in Japan, which greatly inconvenienced their activities. In that year the Home Minister gave permission to the Baptist Missionary Society in Japan to organize a corporation which could hold and manage lands and buildings for missionary purposes.

In 1905 the Japanese Congregationalists planned to be financially independent of the foreign mission by the end of this year; in this they were later successful.

In 1907 representatives of the Mthodist Church of Canada, the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, and the Methodist Episcopal Church convened in Tokyo with a view to effect a confederation of the three denominations in Japan. The First General Conference of the Methodist Church of Japan thus took place, and Yoichi Honda was chosen to be its first Bishop and was duly consecrated. In the same year F. L. Brown, of the International Sunday School Association, arrived and the outcome of this visit was the organization of the Sunday School Association of Japan, marking an epoch in the history of the

Sunday School of the Christian Church. The conference of the World's Student Christian Federation was also held this year in Tokyo, in which 160 foreign visitors took part representing twenty-five nations. This was the first world's convention of any kind in Japan.

Roman and Greek Churches. The Catholic Church has been active ever since the opening of the seaports for foreign trade. Missionaries from the Societé des Missions Etrangères in Paris are working all over the country, which is now divided by them into seven districts: Tokyo, Osaka, Hakodaté, Nagasaki, Shikoku, Niigata, and Sapporo, with a Bishop resident in Tokyo. In Shikoku there is a Spanish Dominican mission, while in Hokkaido the Franciscans have found their principal fields of activity, where are two Trappist monasteries. The Jesuit missionaries reached here again in 1908, but instead of following up their predecessors' work, they have now a college established in Tokyo and concentrate their efforts on education. Besides the Jesuits, those that are chiefly engaged in educational work are the Missionnaires de Marie, Société des Soeurs de Saint Paul, Société de Sacré Coeur and others. In the prefecture of Nagasaki, Catholics, who have been at work for the last three hundred years, though secretly, are still in the ascendency.

The activities of the Greek Church centered in the person of the Russian priest Father Nicolai, who came to Japan first as priest attached to the Russian consulate in Hokkaido in 1859. He reached Japan after crossing Siberia, and after settling in Hakodaté he baptized Takuma Sawabé and two other Japanese. In 1872 he came to Tokyo where he began missionary work. In 1884 he started to build a fine large church in Tokyo, which was completed in 1891. The church was regarded at that time as the greatest and finest building of the sort throughout Japan. The internal disturbances in Russia which followed the great world war made it very difficult to maintain this beautiful edifice, until in 1919 the followers succeeded in organizing an independent church known by the name of the "Orthodox Church of Christ in Japan."

The Japanese Christian Movement for 1936 Dr. William Axling, Honorary Secretary of the National Christian Council of Japan and Honorary Secretary of Tokyo Misaki Kaikan has summarized it as follows:

In things undertaken and results realized 1936 must be characterized as an average year for the National Christian Council. It is therefore a good year on which to base an evaluation of the worthwhileness of the Council and its work.

The Movement for Nation-Wide Evangelism. In accordance with the action of the All-Japan Christian Conference held in connection with the 1935 Annual Meeting, the Council assisted in organizing the Nation-Wide Union Evangelistic Movement and sponsored its work throughout the year.

This movement adopted two major principles of policy. First, to limit its activities to areas of life and methods which lie beyond the range of individual denominations. Second, to make it a union effort in the largest possible sense through securing the active co-operation of the evengelistic departments of all the denominations and national Christian organizations and getting them to endorse the movement and financially underwrite its budget.

Most of the communions heartily responded to this request for endorsement and financial support. This movement is unique therefore in that it has the official backing of most of the denominations and is financially underwritten by them.

It also decided to put heavy emphasis on the use of Christian literature and to make the "Kingdom of God Weekly" its official organ. This weekly continues to have the largest circulation of any Christian publication in the Empire and is the Christian movement's most effective literary evangelistic medium.

The Central Committee of the movement circularized the Christian forces throughout the Empire asking them to indicate areas of life where this movement ought to undertake special evangelistic efforts and how it could best contribute to the evangelization of their immediate localities.

Based on replies received the movement determined to capitalize the present wide-spread interest in religious education and hold special meetings for educators. Meetings for the principals of private and public schools have therefore been held in Tokyo, Osaka and Nagoya and were largely attended. The movement also decided to hold training conferences for church officers and Christians and meetings for the masses.

When Dr. T. Kagawa returned from his American-European trip he was asked to make a Home-Coming Evangelistic Tour of Tokyo, Yokohama, Nagoya, Kyoto, Osaka, Kobe, Hiroshima and Sendai. On this tour he spoke 35

times. His meetings were attended by 37,305 people.

For 1937 the movement has adopted as its slogan "Volunteer Evangelistic Groups in Every Church" and will press for the organization of laymen's and laywomen's evangelistic bands in every church.

Church Union. Another task entrusted to the Council by the All-Japan Christian Conference was to use its staff and good offices in pormoting the work of the Commission on Church Union. This commission organized itself into four subcommittees, a drafting committee, a committee on creed, a committee on government and a committee on finances. The committees on creed and government were asked to make an intensive study of the questions of a creed and the form of government for a united church and to submit the results of their investigation and study to the drafting committee to aid it in working out a basis of union.

The year's study led the commission to the following tentative decisions:

That instead of pressing for organic union from the beginning church union be realized on a federated basis of organization giving the existing communions considerable autonomy for the present.

That a Central Headquarters be set up whose work it shall be to correlate the various denominations, unify their programs and gradually work toward complete union.

That all new evangelistic efforts both within and outside of Japan be cooperative in character and planned and carried forward under the auspices of this Central Headquarters.

That arrangements be made to facilitate the passing of members from one denomination to another in order to stop the tragic leakage and loss to the Christian church because of the large number of unnourished and unrelated absentee church members.

The Religious Organizations Control Bill. When the government announced its intention to introduce a bill into the coming Diet looking toward the control of religious organizations the Council set up a representative committee to study the proposed bill and press for the elimination or revision of unfavorable features.

This committee made a careful study of the government's draft and submitted to the authorities a statement pointing out danger spots in the bill and suggested a series of revisions.

The government's open-mindedness and goodwill is indicated by the fact that it invited the Chairman of the Council's Executive Committee to serve on its Commission for the Study and Revision of the Religious Organizations Control Bill. This has not only greatly facilitated the matter of getting a full hearing for the criticisms and suggestions of the Council's committee but in getting the Christian attitude and point of view fully understood by the authorities.

An Enlarged Constituency. The reorganization of the Conference of Federated Missions which resulted in the turning over of all its executive functions to the National Christian Council brings the missionary body definitely within the Council's constituency. Moreover this action makes the Council the one all inclusive clearing house for the Christian movement in the Empire.

On the Council moreover it places the responsibility and task of correlating the work of missions and missionaries so that they shall increasingly become an integral part of the indigenous Christian movement and be given a worthwhile sphere of action within the framework of the Japanese church.

An Enlarged Field. The visit of General Secretary Ebisawa to Manchoukuo in June resulted in the organization of a cooperative set-up of the Manchurian Christians and initiated closer relations between them and the Council. There are also prospects that as a result of his visit the Japanese Christian churches in Manchoukuo will unite in forming an organization which will be related in some way to the Council.

Secretary Ebisawa went to Manchoukuo at the invitation of the Manchurian Christians and the Missions connected with the Presbyterian church in that area and the initiative toward closer relation between them and the Christians in Japan was taken by them.

Rural Reconstruction. The Council's Commission on Rural Evangelism has been active in two directions. Through Rural Secretary Kuribara it has promoted the holding of Peasant Gospel Schools and Conferences on Rural Reconstruction in different parts of the Empire. Secretary Kuribara has served on the faculties of thirteen Peasant Gospel Schools, lectured in six Theological Seminaries, given addresses in four government schools, spoken before seven Cooperative Associations and visited and spoken in forty (mostly rural) churches.

This commission has also devoted itself to furthering the project of launching a Christian Rural Life Institute. The proposal being that 25,000 yen be raised,

half in Japan and half by the cooperating Mission Boards in North America, for the purchase of land and the erecting of buildings in some rural district fairly near Tokyo, for the establishment of a training school for Christian rural leaders and a demonstration center for rural reconstruction on Christian principles. A drive for funds is being made both in Japan and in North America for the realization of this project.

In the Educational Field. The Council's Education Commission in cooperation with the Executive Committee of the Christian Educational Association of Japan has held repeated meetings to consider the question as to how Christian educational institutions can best meet the present national situation and make their largest contribution to the nation's youth and the nation's life. For the same purpose two conferences attended by leading Christian educators have been held during the year.

Under the same auspices a Summer School for Christian educators was held at Gotemba in July. This was attended by representatives from practically all of the Christian schools in the Empire.

Several meetings have also been held to consider follow up work in connection with the Educational Survey made some years ago, especially as related to the long discussed question of the establishment of a Union Christian University in Japan. This matter is still in the study stage.

The commission has also cooperated in promoting the publication of the magazine entitled, "Religious Education", which is widely distributed in the Christian and government schools of the Empire.

Social Welfare Activity. The Council's Commission on Social Welfare has been furthering the campaign against licensed prostitution. It presented an appeal to the Department of Home Affairs and the Police authorities urging the early abolishment of this nefarious system. It also circularized on nation-wide scale Christian institutions and Christians urging them to actively affiliate themselves with the Purity League in its drive against this system.

Feeling the need of more educational efforts in the creation of a social conscience and the setting up of social ideals the commission has called the attention of Christian schools to the need of providing courses and departments covering this field.

The commission also devoted considerable time to the revision of the Council's Social Creed. In its revised form it sets up the following social changes as the Christian goal for our day :

Worshiping God as our father, living in fellowship with mankind as our brothers, making the Christianized social life our ideal, and through the actual realization of love and justice as revealed by Christ, we strive to be loyal and obedient citizens.

We repudiate all forms of materialistic education, all forms of materialistic thought, all forms of social reconstruction based on force and strive to further the progress of the Christian type of character education.

Moreover we pray that from our number there may go forth many who in accordance with the principles and spirit of Christ shall by their lives give themselves to the solution of social problems.

We would make Christ's life a live reality in the total social structure. Inasmuch as the source of all things comes from God and should revert to God, we believe that all earnings from them should be dedicated to God and made available and used for the prosperity and welfare of mankind.

Based on these ideals the following ten points are advocated :

1. The freedom and equality of personal rights and equal opportunity for all peoples and races.

2. The sacredness of marriage and equal responsibility for chastity on the part of both men and women.

3. The betterment of the treatment accorded women educationally, socially, politically and in industry.

4. Respect for the personality of children and the prohibition of juvenile labor.

5. Encouraging the practice of making Sunday a public rest day. (With the expectation that wages will be paid.)

6. The abolition of licensed prostitution.

7. An aggressive advocacy of temperance on a nationwide scale.

8. The enactment and enforcement of social legislation such as : a social insurance law, a national health conservation law, a minimum wage law, a law legalizing labor unions, a law protecting tenant-farmers, an old age pensions law, a housing improvement law, a law for the protection of mothers and children.

9. An ethical regulation of the economic life such as : the enocouragement of cooperatives, the extension and perfection of urban and rural social betterment facilities and an impartial system of taxation.

10. The implementation of the Paris Peace Pact. The maintenance of the International Court of Arbitration. The

promotion of world peace.

Christian Literature. The Commission on Christian Literature has promoted the establishment of a Central Christian Library. This project has been definitely launched. It is housed on the seventh floor of the beautiful Christian Literature Society building where it has attractive and commodious quarters.

In order to promote the publication of Christian literature the commission called a conference of the publishers of Christian books and publications. As a result of this conference these publishers formed an organization which would enable them to cooperate more closely in the work of providing the nation with a greater variety and better type of Christian literature.

In the Student Field. The Council has also cooperated with the Spiritual Renewal Movement in its work of sending speakers to government and private educational institutions to address the faculties and students on subjects related to the inner life. During the year 104 such meetings have been held attended by 25,000 students and members of faculties.

Other Activities. In addition to the activities outlined above there have been interviews with government officials, conferences with Christian workers, the welcoming of prominent visitors from abroad and the arrangement of their schedules, keeping up vital contacts with the International Missionary Council and with the National Christian Councils in neighboring and other lands and a multitude of other matters. All in all the National Christian Council is filling an ever enlarging niche in the work of the Christianization of Japan.

State Regulation of Religions

Supervising Office A wholesale change of the governmental system took place at the time of the Restoration, and in the third year of Meiji (1870) the Mimbusho was established to take care of various affairs of the state, such as general home affairs, communications, etc. In the fourth year, this office was abolished, and the office of religious affairs was transferred to the Finance Department. With the establishment of the Kyobusho, or Department of Religions, in 1872, the shrines and temples were placed under the care of the new office. Then the Government appointed Shinto and Buddhist priests as official religious instructors who were to preach and educate the people according to the moral principles as follows: (1) to cherish reverence for the gods and the spirit of patriotism; (2) to elucidate Heavenly Reason and the principle of humanity; and (3) to honour and pay homage to the Emperor and to observe the Imperial ordinances. Afterwards the Kyobusho was abolished too, and all the business conducted by this office up to that time was transferred to the Department of Home Affairs which was established in 1873. The official appointment of religious instructors (Kyodo-shoku) was discontinued in 1884, and the business of appointing preachers was entrusted to the head-priests (Kwancho) of the various religious sects, together with the right of selecting the resident priest (Jushoku) for the temples under their jurisdiction. Each sect was, moreover, given the power of managing its own affairs under the supervision of the Government. Religion was thus separated from politics. With the promulgation of the Constitution on the 11th of February in the 22nd year of Meiji (1889), the principle of religious freedom was firmly established. In April, 1900, the former Bureau of Shrines and Temples was divided into two sections, i.e., the Bureau of Shinto Shrines and the Bureau of Religions. All administrative policy concerning the Shinto Shrines is now in charge of the former and is entirely independent of the policy governing religions. The Bureau of Religions was transferred to the Education Department in 1913, and is under its jurisdiction at present.

Administration of Religions At present, there are three kinds of religions in Japan. These religions are dealt with by the Government each in a different way, because Japan is still without specific laws defining the political status of these religions in connection with the State, though the principle of the administrative policy can recognize no such difference, as the Constitution gurantees freedom of faith. The Government, however, finds it natural not to mete out a uniform method of supervision over all these religions; for Buddhism, which has been in very close relation to the State and society for over one thousand years, and Shinto, which is the national cult of Japan, and Christianity, which was introduced to this country only half a century ago (putting aside the fact that it was once in this country a few centuries ago) can hardly be treated in a uniform method with satisfactory results.

From a practical point of view, the religious denominations or sects which are officially recognized and come under the proper jurisdiction of the Bureau of Religions at present are Shinto

and Buddhism. A religious order is a congregation of preachers and adherents following a definite system of creeds having temples or preaching halls from which their religious movements issue. Shinto and Buddhist sects have not yet special regulations concerning cases of secession or incorporation, inasmuch as they are not allowed to make such regulations without the approval of the Education Minister. But affairs concerning the inner policy of the various sects are generally left to their own self-government, though the religious sects concerned are required by the State to compile fundamental rules defining their administrative policies approvable by the Education Minister.

Alteration of Rules The approval of the Education Minister is also required when they abolish or alter these rules. Each sect, Shinto or Buddhist, is required by the Government to select a head-priest, or Kwancho to govern and represent that sect. The appointment of a head-priest also requires official approval. In the compilation of a constitution for each sect they have to define the following particulars: (1) the fundamental law, (2) the status of the preacher and his official title, and (3) the grades of preachers and their appointment and dismissal. These particulars are to be regulated by each Shinto head-priest. Meantime, each Buddhist head-priest is to regulate the following particulars: (1) the fundamental law, (2) rules concerning the management of temples, (3) the status of the priest and preacher and their official titles, (4) the appointment and dismissal of the resident priest, or Jushoku, of a temple, and grades of preachers, and their appointment and dismissal, and (5) the preservation of old historical documents, treasures, and properties belonging to the temples.

Besides thus defining the particulars as stated above, the constitution of each sect has to regulate, through practical necessity, various affairs concerning its self-government. It must define, for instanace, the functions and powers of the head-priest and the method of election; the organization and power of the council; functions of various officers; financial affairs; organization of a temple or a preaching hall; qualifications of a resident priest; affairs relating to the personnel, such as conferring honours or giving punishments; missionary work; education; and other functional activities.

While all the Shinto and Buddhist sects are thus placed under the direct supervision of the Government as far as such fundamental affairs as are mentioned above are concerned, they are left to the care of the local governments concerning the practical functionings of their propaganda work. When the Shintoists or Buddhists want to build their temples or preaching halls, for instance, they must approach the local governments for permission. As Buddhist temples are, on account of their historical significance, regarded as legal persons, the use of the temple grounds, changes in their acreage, cutting down of the trees, and disposition of immovable property, temple treasures, historical documents, or fundamental funds, etc. all require the approval of the local governor concerned.

Special Treatment of Christianity The Government gives no official recognition as regards the Christian denominations, because they, as such, stand in no legal relationship to the Government. In the case of Christianity, therefore, the official supervision does not go further than looking after its missionary activities, selection of preachers, establishment of churches or preaching halls, etc. The Ordinance No. 41 of the Education Office issued in 1899 requires that those who wish to engage in missionary work notify the local governor of the name of their religion and methods of preaching, with their personal history. When they want to build churches or other establishments for religious purposes, they have to approach the local authorities for permission, stating details of these establishments, methods of management and maintenance, qualifications of the preacher, and the process of selecting such preacher. In other words, the Government has special provisions for the Shinto and Buddhist denominations because of their peculiar historical status, while it is contented with being a mere overseer as regards Christianity. As far as their religious functions are concerned, however, the Government makes no distinction whatever between Shinto and Buddhism and Christianity. All religious sects are left to themselves unmolested as long as they do not disturb the peace of the country or practise immorality in connection with the propagation of their doctrines and the carrying out of their respective religious rituals.

Educational Institutions There are a large number of educational institutions established by various religious sects for the purpose of bringing up properly qualified preachers. Like other professional or general educational establishments, these religious schools are under the supervision of the Education Minist-

er. Meantime, charity works such as reformatories, dispensaries and other organizations financed by the religious bodies are placed under the jurisdiction of the Home Minister similarly with activities maintained by all other bodies.

Religions Movements in 1935–37. The religions revival in 1934 (see The Japan Year Book, 1935, P. 824) gave opportunity for the rise of many new religious bodies. People unsatisfied with old sects or denominations turned to preachers who were clever enough to attract believers by new doctrines taken from existing cults. "New religions" have become the vogue in the past three years. The rapid increase of their adherents has drawn the attention of the general public and especially of the authorities concerned.

Ōhmoto-kyo (see The Japan Year Book, 1934, p. 814) was founded in 1892, a link between the old and the new. In recent years it made great advances, but in directions viewed unfavourably by the authorities. On October 8, 1935, the Kyoto police raided the headquarters of the Ōhmoto sect at Ayabé, Kyoto, on the charge that the doctrines and activities of the sect were against public peace and amounted to lèse-majesté. A little later they arrested Onisaburo (or Wanisaburo) Deguchi, head of the sect, and many of its high priests, and in May, 1936, destroyed over 100 temples and buildings at Ayabé and Kameoka, Kyoto. The 3,000,000 believers in the faith are scattered all over Japan, Manchoukuo and other parts of the world without their leaders.

The Hitonomichi (the Way of Man) sect was first organized by Tokuichi Miki at Osaka, in 1925, as a branch of the Fuso sect of Sectarian Shinto. With its teachings on personal happiness and conjugal harmony obtainable by prayer, service and "O-furikayé" or transfer of physical ailments or family troubles to priests who would vicariously bear those burdens for the devotees, Hitonomichi gathered thousands of people to its temples and gained 1,000,000 adherents within but 10 years. Its early morning prayer-meetings, in Osaka and Tokyo drew over 1,000 people each regularly and became the wonder of Japanese religious circles. But this cult, too, was suppressed by the police in September, 1935, because of its founder's misdoings and as being against public peace, and ordered by the authorities to close its temples and cease preaching.

Of the Shinri (truth) movement, led by Entai Tomomatsu, a Buddhist priest who had become popular by his lectures broadcast in 1934 through JOAK, much had been expected in educated circles; but recently it has died down, owing mainly to its leader's lack of originality.

The Seishono Iyé (House of Growth) movement of Gashun Taniguchi has a large number of adherents among the salaried men in the larger business corporations. His book "Seimei no Jisso" (True Aspect of Life) which is bound in the Bible style and is indeed called "Seiten" (Holy Book)—compared with "Seisho" (Holy Book) which is the Japanese for the Bible—is said to have sold in millions. In this book the author includes verses extracted from the Bible, Buddhist and Shinto sacred books, and Confucian writings, and asserts that God is in no other place than one's own mind, that all ailments, whether physical or spiritual, are nothing but illusions of the unsound soul which seeks salvation in the world outside, and that one must find God and salvation in one's own mind. Salaried men who live in moderate comfort are easily caught by such doctrines in Japan as well as in other countries. These teachings bear a strong resemblance to Christian Science, and emphasise self-healing of diseases by finding God in the self and recovering peace of mind therefrom. Taniguchi's books, published successively on all subjects of the cultural life of the people, have gained a large circulation in the past three years.

Religious Statistics

The following are the statistics of preaching halls, preachers and adherents of various religious sects and denominations:

SECTARIAN SHINTO

(End of 1933)

Denomination	Preaching Halls	Preachers			Adherents (in 1930)
		Men	Women	Total	
Shinto	638	3,531	706	4,237	1,206,778
Kurozumi	454	3,850	544	4,394	551,236
Shusei	261	1,771	261	2,032	411,801
Taisha	208	2,914	145	3,059	3,343,477
Fuso	507	4,131	1,347	5,478	486,906

Denomination	Preaching Halls	Preachers Men	Women	Total	Adherents (in 1930)
Jikko	259	1,960	619	2,579	403,519
Taisei	208	2,132	503	2,635	728,373
Shinshu	331	2,163	802	2,965	2,039,381
Ontaké	777	6,020	2,357	8,377	738,647
Shinri	305	1,391	289	1,680	1,412,332
Misogi	36	1,381	200	1,581	337,283
Konko	1,186	2,083	921	3,004	747,869
Tenri	9,943	38,125	24,393	62,518	4,118,238
Total	15,113	71,452	33,087	104,539	16,525,840

Note : The "kancho" or the executive head of each denomination is not included in the number of preachers.

BUDDHISM

(End of 1933)

Denomination	Temples	"Kancho"	Priests Men	Women	Total	Adherents (in 1930)
Tendai	4,425	3	9,516	1,523	11,039	2,134,369
Shingon	11,922	10	12,999	685	13,684	8,526,867
Jodo	8,254	4	7,099	850	7,949	3,997,875
Rinzai	5,979	14	4,889	257	5,146	2,367,977
Soto	14,208	1	12,305	—	12,305	6,859,324
Obaku	500	1	426	26	452	111,841
Shin	19,809	10	28,619	11	28,630	13,259,390
Nichiren	4,970	9	7,320	263	7,583	3,315,359
Ji	494	1	460	1	461	383,171
Ynzunenbutsu	357	1	277	24	301	133,493
Hosso	41	1	97	12	109	14,772
Kegon	27	1	24	—	24	22,869
Others	46	—	—	—	—	—
Total	71,032	56	84,031	3,652	87,683	41,127,307

Note : There were 35,265 minor temples in addition to the number given above.

CHRISTIANITY

(End of 1933)

Denomination	Church and Preaching Stations	Preachers Men	Women	Total	Adherents
Roman Catholic (1932)	238	—	—	274	191,008
Greek Orthodox	184	60	0	60	39,936
Presbyterian	442	476	25	501	49,717
Congregationalist	188	170	19	189	31,484
Episcopal	246	329	139	468	26,618
Baptist	80	72	15	87	7,416
Methodist	347	417	108	525	33,180
Salvation Army (1934)	303 (corps)	—	—	561	15,100
Holiness	456	270	147	417	19,357
16 other denominations	304	329	67	396	25,628

Note : For the latest statistics see the article "The Japanese Christian Movement for 1935."

CHAPTER XXX

SOCIAL PROBLEMS AND SOCIAL WORKS

Social Problems

These may in the main be snmmarized under 5 headings :

(1) Poverty and Its Relief. In Japan the gap between rich and poor may not be quite so great as in some Western countries, but nevertheless it exists, and tends in some ways to become greater with the industrialization of the country. Poor-relief is one of the greatest problems of the authorities, for it must include the city slums, the beggars, and the increasing number of peasant paupers. In May, 1935, the number of the poor listed as coming under the poor relief protection law was 1,989,203, or 2.8 per cent of the total population in Japan proper.

(2) Condition of Labourers. This, with the attendant matters of pay and hours, especially in relation to international labour conferences and agreements, calls for careful Government handling : the protection of child and woman labour particularly so.

(3) Position of Women. The protection of women and the elevation of their social and legal status is in some ways especially an Oriental problem. Socially their position has been much raised of late years, till now it approximates nearly to that of men ; but the old discriminative laws enacted in the Meiji Era still handicap women in many respects. In regard to the age-old question of licensed prostitution the Government is planning the entire abolition of the system within a year or so, but statistics show, unfortunately a slight retrogression, for the number of women involved has slightly increased, owing perhaps to the recent financial depression.

(4) Public Health. In a country which carries such a dense population this is a matter of vital importance. Medical science in Japan is second to none in the world with regard to its recent progress and present position, her doctors and surgeons having made contributions of inestimable value to mankind, and in some cases paid for them with their lives. But difficulties attend its application. The cost of treatment and of drugs and chemicals is high, and suggestions have been made for the nationalization of all medical business in order to help the poor.

(5) Thought Guidance. The guidance of the people's thought through the eddying turmoil of modern ideas and theories, from Marxism to Fascism with all intermediate shades, and the handling of practical matters connected therewith, are of the very gravest concern to this country, and are engaging the deepest attention of the authorities. The final settlement of these matters must be largely dependent on that of the preceding problems, though some consider that more radical and direct action is necessary for its attainment than merely so-called social work. But inasmuch as most of these movements, radical or reactionary, include schemes for the sudden overthrow of the existing social system, neither the Government nor the people at large can regard them with unconcern.

The fourth problem, relating to Public Health, is specially treated in Chapter XXXII, while further reference is made to the others in the chapter on Labour.

Social Work

Before Meiji Era Prince Shotoku, Regent, established, in 593, Hidenin (a house for the poor), Sheyakuin (a medicine house for the poor) and Ryobyoin (a house for the sick). In 730 the Empress Komyo founded Hidenin and Sheyakuin at Nara. She herself washed the bodies of the poor and nursed the lepers.

Among other benevolent work which he did at places where he stayed during an evangelistic journey through the country Gyoki, a Buddhist monk who lived at the time of the Emperor Shomu (724–749), established 9 public lodging houses and a public bath-house at Arima hotspring near Kobé.

Hokin-in, a Buddhist nun and sister of Wake-no Kiyomaro, a famous loyalist, made an appeal for, saved, and took under her care 375 rebels who were sentenced to death in 764. When a little later, at the end of the 8th century, famine struck Kyoto and children were abandoned on the streets she gathered 83 under her motherly care. This was the beginning of orphanges in Japan. Her example was followed by the Empress Masako, consort of the Emperor

Junna (823–833), who took care of many orphans and abandoned children in Kyoto, and who in 876 established a leper asylum in the precincts of Daikakuji temple, Kyoto.

In 1180 Jugen, a monk, built 15 public bath-houses for the poor. Kosho, another Buddhist monk, worked for prisoners, taught beggars and outcasts to refrain from drinking, and instructed prostitutes in the doctrines of Buddhism.

The monk Ninsho of Seidaiji temple, Nara, followed the example of Prince Shotoku and repaired houses for poor patients and lepers. For lepers he built an asylum which is still standing at Kitayama, Nara, and is under Government protection as a specimen of social work of early times. Later he became the superior of Gokurakuji temple at Kamakura and established, in 1287, an asylum for the poor. In the following 20 years the asylum accommodated over 57,250 patients, of whom over 46,800 were cured. At the foot of Kamakura hill he also built a house for sick horses.

Public baths for the poor were prevalent in the Kamakura Age (1192–1337). It was during this period that nunneries were first opened for the protection of women who were maltreated by their husbands, something in the manner of the 6 cities for refuge mentioned in the old Testament, Numbers, chap. 35. Two of these have remained to the present day: one, Tokeiji at Kamakura which was rebuilt in 1285 by Sadatoki Hojo for his mother; the other, Mantokuji in the country of Nitta, Gumma prefecture, which in the year 1591 was to accommodate a daughter of the Tokugawa. These nunneries were highly admired because of the nuns who came from warrior aristocrats and could stand against local authorities in protecting the weaker sex who took refuge in the nunneries. They became know as Enkiridera or divorce temples.

In 1670 Tsunanori Mayeda (1643–1742), the lord of Kaga, present Kanazawa prefecture, established public lodging houses for beggars and poor patients on a hillside south of his castle in Kanazawa. There were 45 houses, each measuring 12 by 120 feet. When opened 1,753 beggars and outcasts were taken in. Poor travellers were given expenses at leaving and unemployed artisans were cared for till they found suitable posts, while others were taught small trades. One of the latter was skilled in sword making and swords signed by the swordsmith "Hinin Kiyomitsu" or beggar Kiyomitsu are highly admired as masterpieces.

The blind were early protected by the Imperial House and in the Nara Age the Kugas took charge of them by Imperial order. Music was taught them to enable them to earn a living, there thus arose many first class blind musicians of the "biwa" or the "koto". In the Yedo Age the blind received relief money or were trained in acupuncture and massage. In 1722 the Tokugawa Shogunate built an asylum at Koishikawa, Yedo (Tokyo) for patients of the poorest class. The capacity at first was 40 beds, but later it was increased to 150.

Kanonko, a Buddhist corporation, was established in 1830 by Sukenari Naha of Akita. Later 72 donors came to his help and the aged, invalids, the sick, the deformed and the mentally deficient were cared for. In 1930 the corporation had a fund amounting to ¥51,887 and 2,760 koku of rice.

The above are a few examples selected from among numerous recorded instances of social work in old Japan. It must also be noted that relief work either by the government or individuals necessarily followed natural calamities in all ages on a considerable scale.

Meiji Era The Nagoya earthquake in 1891, the North-Eastern tidal wave damages and the famine in 1896, had quickened the development of orphanage work, and at the time of the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese wars relief work for soldiers, child protection, and free medical treatment were also being taken up but mostly by philanthropic individuals so they hardly differed from the old-fashioned benevolent and rescue work. The World War served as a great stimulus for the development of modern social work, for the economic, social and moral changes suddenly brought about at that time and after the great conflict raised various kinds of social problems and at the same time accelerated progress in all kinds of social work, such as relief of the poor, free medical treatment, provision of houses, employment exchanges, child protection, settlement work and the like. The great earthquake of 1923 was an epoch-making event from the standpoint of the development of such work.

From the beginning of the twentieth century the Japanese Government has passed many laws on social work, the most important of them being:—the Military Relief Act of 1917, the Tuberculosis Prevention Act of 1919, the Employment Exchange Act and the Housing Association Act of 1921, the Health Insurance Act of 1922, and the Insanitary Houses Improvement Act and the public Pawnshops Act of 1927.

Social Bureau In regard to the ad-

ministrative organization of social work, before the World War there were only a few officials engaged in reform and relief work, and these were tucked away in one corner of the Department of Home Affairs. But in August, 1917, a relief section was established in its Local Government Bureau. In 1919, this section was called the Section of Social Affairs and in 1920, it became the new Bureau of Social Affairs and a central organization for social work; in 1922, the present independent Social Bureau came into existence and the administration of all social work throughout the country was brought under its control. The present social work in Japan is summarized in March, 1932 as follows: the existing number of social work institutions and organizations, both public and private, was 6,278, with an annual expenditure of ¥41,769,538 and the total amount of their property was estimated at ¥215,025,943.

The present tendency of Japanese social work is paving the way for the transformation of social work into a definite governmental social policy. While the old benevolent work has developed into the present social work, the fundamental idea and methods have undergone a great change. The present social work is carried on not necessarily with the idea of benevolence but rather on the principles of social solidarity and mutual help. From the standpoint of public welfare and mutual responsibility, modern social work has as its aim the solution of social problems and positive social reconstruction to accomplish the social welfare policy in co-operation with legislation on labour and social insurance.

Imperial Participation The Imperial House has been one of the leading factors in the promotion of Social work in Japan. Not to speak of the Imperial gifts in olden times, the Imperial donation of ¥1,500,000 in 1907 was the commencement of modern social work in Japan on a considerable scale because it called forth contributions from the people amounting to ¥24,350,000, and a society was organized for medical treatment for the poor. The annual Imperial donation for representative social work all over Japan was begun in 1921. The Imperial House has always taken the initiative in giving large amounts of money for social work of different kinds with a full understanding of the aim of modern social work.

Administration and Expenses

Social Work Administration The matter of paramount interest at the beginning of 1937, was the improvement of the administrative system of labour exchanges, the institution of the Mother and Child Protection Law, and the revision of the Military Relief Law, the Relief Law, and the Ainu Protection Law, which were passed during the 70th session of the Diet.

In order to investigate all phases of social work the Social Work Investigation Commission increased the number of its members in July, 1936, and the above social laws were drawn up according to the advice of the Commission.

Legalization of Homen Iin (Block Committee) System The Homen Iin or Block Committee system is to appoint, by prefectural governors or other responsible bodies, honorary committees of those private persons who are interested in social work and are able to get in easy touch with the people who need relief, so that proper relief is given the poor and the maximum results obtained. The system originated with the establishment of an advisory committee to the Saiseikai association in Okayama prefecture in 1917. Since then, partly because of the recent trend in social affairs and partly by the recognition of the good results brought about by the activities of the Committees, the system has spread to not only all prefectures in Japan proper, but also to Taiwan and Chosen. The promulgation of the revised Relief Law in 1931 required greater activity of the committees.

At the beginning of 1936 the number of the Block Committees reached 40,700 in Japan proper and some 1,300 in the Colonies. The managing bodies of this system are the prefectural authorities, though there are a certain number of city, town or other private organizations. At the end of 1934 the system was established in 8,236 cities, towns and villages, while there were 3,297 without it.

The number of matters handled by the Block Committees increases every year, it reaching in 1935 as many as 6,000,000. The number of poor families registered on the cards of the Block Committees all over Japan proper reached 490,000 with over 1,990,000 people at the end of 1934, the percentage to the total population of the country being about 5% in urban and 2.5% in rural districts.

Inasmuch as the Block Committees exercise a function which bears upon the fruits of the social policy and enterprises of the country, the necessity of legalizing the system has been pointed

out not only by the committees themselves but also by others. Reasons for legalizing the system are: first, by giving it legal status the Government may utilize the system for carrying out smoothly various kinds of administrative work and may increase efficiency in the administration of social work; in the second place, the function of the committee is not only to give material aid to the needy but also to improve their moral character. Their guiding principles, therefore, should be clearly set out in law; and in the third place, the work of the committees has in the past been carried out independently in the various districts so that the management and results have differed widely and national unification and proper control have become necessary. The Imperial Ordinance for Block Committees (Imperial Ordinance No. 3,980 of 1936) was promulgated on November 14, 1936 and was enforced as from January 15, 1937. The principal points to be noticed in the Ordinance are that guiding principles and the duties of the committees are clearly stated; that except in Tokyo and Yokohama the work is to be under prefectural management; that the selection of the committees has been made very strict; that the Block Work Commission has been established and that heads of cities, towns and villages are to be present at the meetings of the commission to make the relations between the committees and city, town and village authorities closer.

CONDITIONS OF THE WORK OF THE BLOCK COMMITTEE

(March, 1935)

Number of committees.

Prefectural	City	Town and village	Private bodies	Total
45	6	26	3	80

Number of blocks.

Total number of cities, towns and villages in the country	Those having the system	Those not having the system
11,382	8,085	3,297

Number of committeemen.

In towns and villages	In cities	Total
29,502	9,752	39,254

Number of families and their members in cities, towns and villages where the system is established and the number of poor families and their members which are registered.

Kinds		Total number of families	Registered Serious cases	Registered Ordinary cases	Registered Total
Families	Cities	4,571,777	114,916	155,582	270,498
	Towns and villages	6,665,963	55,696	169,369	225,065
House members	Cities	21,975,800	459,470	640,906	1,100,376
	Towns and villages	35,396,049	183,331	706,367	889,698

Revision of the Ainu Protection Law As regards the protection of the aborigines or Ainu of Hokkaido the Ainu Protection Law was enacted in 1889. But since the Ainu have advanced in many ways, and conditions in Hokkaido have changed with the progress of development work in the island, it became necessary to revise the law to conform with the changes in the life of the Ainu and their environments. The revised Ainu Protection Law which was passed in the 70th session of the Diet recognizes the use of land to some extent, as a means of extending relief.

For Koreans The number of Koreans in Japan proper which was 118,000 at the end of 1924, increased to more than 608,000 at the end of 1935. Their language, manners, and mode of living, differ so widely from those of the Japanese that they were liable to cause much trouble, and it was decided to educate, lead and encourage them to raise their standard of living. For that purpose a sum of money was budgeted and proper facilities given.

Expenses The expense for social work are derived from three sources, State, local and private. These expenses have increased on account of the rapid development of the work, especially since the rice riots in 1918 and the Great Earthquake of 1923. The estimated expenses of social work borne by the National Treasury for 1937-38 reach ¥18,172,156.

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE OF THE SOCIAL BUREAU

(In yen)

	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38
Ordinary				
The Bureau	408,088	418,035	418,035	534,662
The Imperial Office of the International Labour Office	125,517	142,530	142,530	117,996
National Correction Institute	45,648	45,648	45,648	45,648
Wounded Soldiers' Institute	113,824	123,733	123,733	113,159
Labour exchange offices	186,953	186,953	186,953	—
Ainu protection	37,858	37,858	37,853	37,858
Military relief	1,594,001	2,074,902	2,074,902	3,846,339
Subsidy for local correction institutes	152,735	144,440	144,440	147,152
Subsidy for labour exchanges	308,740	284,395	284,395	327,779
Subsidy for charity relief	2,834,776	2,834,776	2,834,776	4,124,316
Subsidy for prevention of child maltreatment	50,000	50,000	50,000	30,000
Subsidy for Health Insurance Associations	—	—	—	166,666
Subsidy for Mother and Child Protection	—	—	—	648,175
National expense for Health Insurance	3,072,824	2,796,434	2,796,434	3,816,880
Sick and funeral aid	16	—	—	—
Total	8,930,980	9,139,704	9,139,704	13,956,630
Extraordinary				
Encouragement of public pawnshops	389,013	50,000	50,000	90,000
Subsidy for the improvement of slums	200,000	150,000	150,000	2,036,866
Unemployment relief	4,593,185	3,443,604	—	1,100,000
Medical relief	—	—	1,932,994	838,660
Investigation work, improvements committees, etc. (special supplement)	2,181,331	1,932,994	22,201	—
Total	7,363,529	5,576,598	5,598,799	4,215,526
Grand total	16,294,509	14,716,302	14,738,503	18,172,156

Child Protection

Child protection in Japan is divided into the following nine main classes :— (1) Care for women in pregnancy or confinement, (2) care for infants, (3) for weakly children, (4) for children of the very poor, (5) for the education of children, (6) for child-workers, (7) for maltreated children, (8) for children to be reformed, (9) for abnormal children and (10) for mother and child.

Women in Pregnancy or Confinement The infant mortality rate of Japan was lower until 1900 than in Western countries, but since then it has gradually risen, till it reached the deplorable figure of 189 deaths for every 1,000 births in 1918. Though there has been a decrease since then, in 1933 the rate was still as high as 12.1 per cent. As for the stillbirth rate, though there was some tendency towards a decrease, it was 5.2 for every 100 births in 1934, the total number of still-births reaching 113,043, that is, 1.66 for every 1,000 of the population. The greatest emphasis in child protection is laid on the protection and aid of expectant mothers, or the protection of children before and at the time of birth. For this kind of work there are at present such organizations as maternity hospitals, visiting midwives and confinement advisory institutes, besides legislation for maternity protection. In 1934 there were 48 maternity hospitals throughout the country, while visiting midwives' organizations numbered 493. Legislation for maternity protection is included in the Factory Law, the Mining Law and the Health Insurance Law. The first two laws provide that owners of industrial and mining plants shall not require expectant mothers to work if they apply for leave of absence ; after child-birth the mother shall not be required to resume work for 6 weeks, though if she requests work after 4 weeks and a doctor certifies her as fit, she may be allowed to resume it.

According to the Health Insurance Law, persons insured are to receive 20 yen for the expenses of confinement and also a daily amount corresponding to 60 per cent of each day's wage throughout the non-productive period for 28 days before and 42 days after childbirth.

Infant Protection The institutions now existing are divided into the following four kinds :—(a) hospitals for the unweaned pauper infants, (b) day-nurseries, (c) institutions for providing milk or other nutritious food for sickly and undersized children, and (d) infant health consultation institutes.

(a) Infant hospitals. There were 20 infant hospitals in the country in March, 1934. Of these 5 were established by public authorities and the rest were managed by private bodies or individuals.

(b) Day-nurseries. The demand for this work has become greater year by year, owing to the recent development of industry and the influx of population into cities. The oldest institute for this work was the one established by Mr. Shobi Akazawa in the city of Niigata, June, 1890. In March, 1934 there were 697 in the country, of which 135 were public establishments.

(c) Institutions for providing nutritious food. The work for providing milk was first undertaken by the Hygiene Bureau of the Home Office with the help of the city of Tokyo as an emergency measure immediately after the Earthquake of 1923, for infants whose parents were quartered in parks or other places of the city. There were 6 such organizations.

(d) Infant health clinics. The first independent organization for this kind of work was the Osaka Children's Clinic established in 1919. In March, 1934 there were 144 such advisory institutes.

Child-Protection As for the legislation for the protection of poor children, it is provided for in the part concerning children in the Regulations for Relief of the Poor promulgated on April 2, 1929. According to the national survey made by the Bureau of Social Affairs 1926, the number of widows and their children and children of widowers or whose parents were destitute of daily necessities was 133,588.

(a) Orphan Asylums. As was the case in Western countries, the orphanage may be said to have been one of the earliest institutions that led the Japanese toward social relief work in general. The work has made remarkable progress and is supported by the public with better understanding and large contributions. In March, 1934, there were 129 orphan asylums in the country of which only 5 were founded by public bodies. The total expenses of these asylums in 1933–34 were ¥850,941 for 7,596 children, chiefly met by incomes from the funds, incomes from business, subscriptions and public or private donations.

(b) Protection of weakly children. Physically weak children are cared for in recreation houses located near the sea or in the woods. The first example of this kind of work was that of the Tokyo Child-Nursing Institute which took a certain number of weakly children to the seashore of Boshu in 1900. Later, in June, 1926, the Child Protection Society, a corporation established in the compounds of the Bureau of Social Affairs, took up the work and has since provided a model example. As for the medical treatment of weakly children, the Children's Charity Hospital and the Children's Department of the Osaka Branch Hospital of the Japan Red Cross Society have been producing good results.

(c) Protection of Children of School Age. The elementary school attendance in Japan surpasses most of the nations of the world in its high rate. But there are a certain number of children who are kept from school partly through the operation of Article 33 of the Regulations for Elementary Schools, which recognizes as right in certain cases the non-attendance of children of school age, and partly because of poverty of the family. In March, 1933, the number of such children was 31,271. Encouragement of school attendance of these children, in some way or other, is made by the Government and various private bodies. Every year the Education Department gives Common Education Encouragement Grants to prefectures for the purpose of encouraging children to attend school. Owing to this help, the rate of school attendance of children in general has increased in a notable degree, and the percentage of daily attendance was 99.58 in the school year 1934–35.

The number of schools for giving poor children compulsory education and the number of those which have evening classes for the same purpose was 37 with 6,759 pupils. Besides these schools there were 16 nurse-maids' schools with 504 pupils, at the end of March, 1934.

The heavy depression in farm and fishing villages deprived many elementary school children of their lunch and the Government bore the expenses for their lunch for three years, from April, 1932 to March, 1935. The disbursement

of the National Treasury for the purpose was ¥668,101 for 1932–33 ¥1,069,536 for 1933–34 and ¥1,481,873 for 1934–35. The number of children benefited was 425,628 in 13,865 schools during the year 1932–33, and 512,632 in 13,614 schools during the following year.

(d) Protection of Child Workers. The International Labour Conference paid great attention to this problem of protection of child workers, and its first conference, in 1919, adopted an agreement relating to the minimum age of child workers employed in industries and to child night work; at the second Conference, in 1920, an agreement relating to the minimum age of child workers at sea, was reached; and at the third Conference, in 1921, an agreement relating to child workers in agriculture was arrived at. In Japan, there had been some laws in force already, but the International Labour Conference, and recent labour conditions necessitated the revision of these laws and regulations. The legislative measures now in force for protection of child workers are the Revised Factory Law of 1923, the Minimum Age of Industrial Workers Law of 1923, the Regulations for Relief of Miners of 1926, and the Minimum Age of Seamen and Certificate of Health Law of 1923. In the Revised Factory Law Article III provides that children under 16 years of age and women shall not be employed more than 11 hours a day (exception being 15 hours for certain kinds of occupations.) Article IV prohibits their night work, and Article VII states that they shall not be employed in dangerous work. In the Minimum Age of Industrial Workers Law Article II provides that children less than 14 years of age shall not be employed in industrial work, but those children over 12 years of age who have finished the ordinary elementary school course shall be exempted from this rule. In the Regulations for Relief of Minors Article VI provides that children under 16 years of age and women shall not be employed more than 11 hours a day, and Articles XII and XIII that children under 16 years of age shall not be employed in dangerous work. In the Minimum Age of Seamen and Certificate of Health Law Article II provides that children less than 14 years of age shall not be employed, and Article III that in case of children under 18 years of age being employed a doctor's certificate of health must be obtained. Just before the enforcement of these laws, that is, at the end of 1925, there were 474 children over 10 and under 12 years of age and 6,709 children who were over 12 and under 14 years old who had not yet finished their compulsory education but were employed in industries. However, the Minimum Age of Industrial Workers Law enforced on July 1, 1926, has since prohibited their employment.

(e) Reformatory Work. In March, 1900, the Reformatory Law was enacted and the establishment of prefectural reformatories was encouraged by the Government. According to this law, however, their establishment was voluntary. In 1908, the law was revised and Prefectural authorities were compelled to found reformatories. Within two years of the enactment of the Law 30 reformatories were founded, both public and private. In August, 1917, an ordinance in regard to the founding of a national reformatory, which had been pending for many years, was promulgated, and in March, 1919, a State Reformatory, named the Musashino-Gakuin, was founded in a suburban village of Tokyo. The bills for juvenile courts and houses of correction, passed by the Diet in April, 1921, as the Juvenile Law and the House of Correction Law were revised and promulgated in May, 1933, as the Juvenile Protection Law, effective from October 1, 1934.

In October, 1935 there were 53 reformatories, the capacity being for 2,688 children. The estimated expenses amounted to ¥677,312 for 1934–35. In addition to these reformatories, there are 31 Correction Societies which are taking care of boys and girls who are not under the direct care of the reformatories.

(f) Protection of Abnormal Children. Blind and deaf-mute children are taken care of in blind schools and deaf-mute schools. The number of organizations for protecting feeble-minded and other mentally defective children was 8 in all, of which only one, that is, the Imamiya-Gakuen established by the City of Osaka, is a public one, the aggregate number of inmates was 249, in March, 1934. It is estimated that there are over 5,000 such children left entirely to the ineffective care of their parents.

(g) Prevention of Maltreatment. The Law for the Prevention of Child Maltreatment, which was promulgated with Law No. 40 in April, 1933, lays down the power of prefectural governors to give adequate warning against maltreatment of children by the people who have power over them, makes provisions for putting such children under the care of suitable persons when necessary; and prohibits having such children engage in such performances as acrobatics and circuses or in infamous houses. It was put in force on October

1, 1933 and in the half year from October 1, 1933 to March 31, 1934, the number of children protected by the Law was 593; of the total 179 were because of maltreatment by parents or relatives, while 414 were forced to overwork in petty shows or as street singers, geisha girls, etc.

The number of children protected by the Law in 1934–1935 was as follows:

Kind of Protection	Boys	Girls	Total	Maltreated by Parents and the Like	Maltreated by Others
Advice	68	76	144	79	65
Left with parents or others on condition	9	16	25	21	4
Protected by severing from the maltreating persons	70	64	134	119	15
Total	147	156	303	219	84
Prohibition of the use of such children			352 cases	16 indicted	

Mother and Child Protection With the institution of this new law the State has taken the responsibility of assisting unsupported mothers, who are unable to educate their children on account of poverty. According to investigations made by the Social Bureau in May, 1935, there were 95,000 such mothers and children in Japan proper. Hitherto the protection of helpless mothers and children has been carried out by many public and private benevolent bodies, and under the general Relief Law. The conditions of the relief of mothers and children under the general Relief Law, in 1932–34 were as illustrated by the following table, not including other homes or dormitories for the same purpose which totalled 42 in all Japan.

RELIEF OF MOTHERS AND CHILDREN, 1932–34

(Amount in yen)

Year Fiscal	Children under 13 years old		Nursing Mothers		Total	
	Number	Relief Money	Number	Relief Money	Number	Relief Money
1932	63,140	1,301,395	1,352	35,571	64,492	1,337,096
1933	84,566	1,984,723	1,758	58,098	86,324	2,042,821
1934	91,946	2,052,264	999	19,445	92,945	2,071,709

In order to make the relief of these mothers and children more complete the new Mother and Child Protection Law was passed at the 70th session of the Diet. Article 1 of the Mother and Child Protection Law states that those mothers or grandmothers who have children under 13 years of age and have to keep living on their own sole responsibility and cannot live or bring up children because of poverty are protected in accordance with the provisions of the law.

Economic Protection

Supply and Improvement of Houses (a) Building and Management of Houses by Public Bodies. In the year 1918, to meet the pressing need of supplying economical and at the same time sanitary houses a note was issued to encourage public bodies to build and supply houses, the building cost of which might be loaned from the Funds of the Deposits Bureau of the Finance Department. This loan together with a loan from the Reserve of the Post Office Life Insurance greatly facilitated the building work. Several other means were adopted to facilitate the work, namely, the sale of building materials produced from the Government forests at low cost, reduction in or exemption from freight charge for transportation of building materials, application of the Land Expropriation Law, if necessary, in case of buying land for the building of houses of public bodies, and freedom from the Registration and Construction Taxes.

The Government issued the Housing Association Law in April, 1921, and it was put into force the same year. Associations are to be legal persons possessing several privileges in respect of taxation, acquisition of land, etc., working funds being loaned to the associations from the Funds of the Deposits

Bureau of the Finance Department through the prefectural offices. The Dojun-kai, a building corporation, established immediately after the great earthquake of 1923 with a fund of ¥10,000,000, a part of the contributions for the reconstruction of Tokyo and Yokohama, has supplied many dwellings and apartments for the people in these two cities, independent of the government measure.

The sum of low interest-rate money advanced by the Government since 1921 amounts to more than ¥135,000,000. Demands for dwelling-houses gradually decreased after 1929, and the sum advanced for the purpose has decreased accordingly. The number of dwelling-houses built under the law up to 1935 reached 83,000 (of which 6,000 were built through the Wooden Stores Construction Fund.) At the end of 1936 the number of the Building Societies was 2,813 with a membership of more than 31,620, and total sum defrayed for buildings reached ¥69,300,000.

In addition to the supply of dwelling-houses in general the Government subsidized the reconstruction of a great many houses damaged by the Great Earthquake and Fire in 1923, the earthquakes in Hyogo prefecture in 1925 and in 1927, in Izu peninsula in 1930, by the tidal waves in the north-eastern districts in 1933 and by the typhoon in the Kansai districts in 1934.

(b) Enforcement of the Insanitary Dwelling Site Improvement Law. Supply or dewelings is one aspect of this question and their improvement is another. The first step taken by the Government in the latter was to improve and remake the sites in cities where poorly built houses were crowded together. A nation-wide investigation made in June, 1925, showed that there were 217 such quarters with over 72,600 families and over 309,9000 inhabitants. The land level was generally low, the quarters naturally damp, and an intricate network of unpleasant marrow roads, together with a congestion of small but not at all compact houses lacking in proper light and ventilation, made the place an unplanned hodge-podge. For the start of their programme, the Government, taking up a plan to remake such quarters existing in the so-called six largest cities (Tokyo, Osaka, Nagoya, Kyoto, Kobé and Yokohama) and in the rural districts contiguous to them, enacted in March, 1927, the Insanitary Dwelling Site Improvement Law which was enforeced in the same year. Subsidies granted to local governments from the national treasury for this purpose amounted to ¥3,200,000 in 1927–1935. The work is to be continued till 1943 with a subsidy amounting to ¥1,707,685.

Public Lodgings Single working men, unemployed persons and the like, as a rule, sleep at imperfectly-equipped doss-houses or cheap lodgings, or live with others. In 1925, there were 8,873 doss-houses with 92,861 monthly sojourners who had families, 200,518 single persons and 208,775 one-night lodgers, amounting to 502,154 persons in all. This situation was not at all desirable viewed from any angle, and the preparation of sheap yet healthy public lodging- houses seemed an urgent need for the welfare of labourers and the like. The number of such lodgings in March, 1934, was 154, with 3,476,659 one-might lodgers in 1933–34. Of the total number of lodgings 67 are free, the rest charging 10, 15 or 20 sen a night.

Public Markets The public markets are retail markets managed by public bodies or public welfare organizations having as their aim a cheap supply of food-stuffs and other daily necessaries. According to the investigation made in November, 1921, by the Bureau of Social Affairs, the average cost of food-stuffs of the poor families in the city of Tokyo was 54.7% of their total living expenses. In August, 1918 a rice riot, which was started by the poor housewives at a small village of Toyama prefecture, spread over the country like a prairie fire. The situation awakened Imperial solicitude, and ¥3,000,000 was granted for relief from the Privy Purse. The Government also provided ¥10,000,000, and the amount of contributions by wealthy men and benevolent persons reached ¥25,000,000. This money was used in giving rice to the poor in the country and in opening establishments where rice was sold at lower prices. In December of the same year. The Government issued a note encouraging the establishment of public markets, and made available loans at a low rate of interest for the necessary expenses in establishing such markets. In March, 1934, there were 277 such markets opened in all prefectures but 6, and sales for the fiscal year amounted to ¥52,939,432.

Lunch Rooms The object the people's lunch rooms, whether attached to a public lodging-house or independent, is to provide labourers, small-salaried men and the like with simple, wholesome and sanitary meals at cheap rates. In March, 1934, there were 68 of these people's lunch rooms, most of them managed by public bodies and located in cities and towns, with 882,191 meals taken in a month. Each meal cost from 12 to 20 sen.

Public Baths Japanese people greatly enjoy their baths, but only a small proportion of them can do so in private. The majority have to utilize public baths. Moreover, it is not very infrequently the case that people take fewer baths than they require as the bath-charges are not low enough, herein lies the need of sanitary, well-equipped, cheap or free public baths. The number of public baths in March, 1934, was 166, partronized by 1,925,620 bathers a month.

Public Pawnshops The pawnshop and the money-lender are utilized by the people of small means as a simple and popular means of monetary circulation. The Public Pawnshop Law, promulgated in 1927, regulated managing bodies subsidies of 50 per cent of equipment expenses from the national treasury, loans, compulation of interest and term of pledge. The present financial depression throughout the urban and rural districts has caused unprecedented tightness of money among the salarymen, labourers and farmers of smaller means, and the need for public pawnshops has become more acute. The estimated amount of subsidies for the public pawnshops for 1937–38 is ¥90,000.

The number of public pawnshops which was only 71 at the time of the enactment of the Public Pawnshop Law, has increased every year since and reached 1,091, at the end of April, 1936. Since the economic crisis of 1932, money has become tight in the rural districts, so that the Government has been making special efforts to establish pawnshops in those districts.

However, when the above mentioned number of public pawnshops is compared with that of private pawnshops which numbered 12,700 at the end of 1934, it is still larging far behind. In view of this the Government is determined to make further efforts for their establishment.

In examining the number of people who are benefiting from the use of pawnshops, classified according to the kinds of occupation, we find labourers are greatest, followed by small retailers, small-scale manufacturers, farmers, salarymen and fishermen in the order named. It will be specially noted that the member of fishermen and farmers has increased conspicuously since 1932.

PAWNERS AT THE PUBLIC PAWNSHOPS

	Pawnshops	Pawners							
		Labourers	Day-labourers	Small Industrialists	Small Merchants	Farmers	Fishermen	Others	Total
1931–32	314	393,762	112,888	129,556	229,502	77,590	44,976	176,101	1,164,375
1932–33	510	465,012	139,498	151,957	293,249	96,091	48,486	237,707	1,432,000
1933–34	765	567,355	154,810	200,600	394,526	142,487	86,964	311,070	1,857,812
1934–35	999	709,782	182,742	258,423	500,101	207,571	118,473	404,270	2,381,362
1935–36	1,079	876,900	210,000	294,500	608,500	254,500	146,800	487,400	2,878,600

STANDING LOANS OF THE PUBLIC PAWNSHOPS

	Pawnshops	Number of Loans	Amount of Loans (In yen)	Average Amount per Loan (In yen)	Standing Amount of Loans at the End of the Fiscal year (In yen)
1930–31	261	1,228,672	6,479,853	5.27	3,809,972
1931–32	314	1,433,020	7,242,398	5.05	3,675,878
1932–33	510	1,731,476	8,475,092	4.89	4,031,242
1933–34	765	2,254,220	11,796,763	5.23	5,248,027
1934–35	999	2,900,872	15,690,231	5.41	8,213,794
1935–36	1,079	3,497,000	19,189,000	5.49	—

Protection of Unemployed

Employment Exchanges There have been from olden times private employment exchanges called "Keian" or "Kuchiireya" conducted by individuals. But there were no free exchanges until 1901, when in Hongo Ward of the city of Tokyo there was established a free lodging-house for low class labourers and the unemployed, and along with this charitable work the first private free employment exchange was founded for the lodgers in 1906. The earliest public employment exchanges were established in Tokyo in 1911. At the close of the Great War the Home Office felt the urgent necessity of extending and developing the employment exchanges in order to meet the needs of the time. In 1920, the Office put into circulation a low interest loan for the establishment

of employment exchanges to cope with the demands caused by an extreme business depression. And in June of the same year, the Home Office, in order to systematize the work of employment exchanges, took charge of all the affairs relating to them, and in order to extend, unite and develop them, allowed the Kyocho-kai to start a central managing office of all the employment exchanges in the country.

(a) Employment Exchange Law. Complying with the general demand, the Employment Exchange Law was issued in 1921. According to this Act, employment exchanges are, in principle, public organizations. They are voluntarily established and conducted by the heads of cities or towns, but in some instances the Home Minister gives orders for the establishment in places where he thinks the conditions demand it. The National Government subsidizes them to the extent of one-half of the expenses for buildings and equipment at the beginning, and one-sixth or less of other expenses. One Central and several Local Employment Exchange Bureaux have been founded for the those exchanges in the country, and the work is under the supervision of the Home Minister and the Directors of these Bureaux. A standing committee is established to direct the management of the exchanges. There may also be established private free employment exchanges with the permission of the administrative authorities, and the aid afforded by all these employment exchanges must be free of charge.

After the enforcement of this Law, in November, 1922, the convention relating to unemployment, adopted by the First International Labour Conference at Washington, was ratified and published for the encouragement of this kind of work. In addition to the provision above mentioned, the Regulations for Enforcement of the Employment Exchange Law were revised, 1924, in order to systematize the connections among employment exchanges, and there were also newly-introduced regulations for the establishment of seasonal-employment exchanges, and of employment exchange committees in cities and towns for the promotion of this work. It is true that there are still a great many employment exchanges run for profit, but owing to the increase and improvement of public employment exchanges they are gradually decreasing. And to conform with a resolution adopted at the Washington Conference of 1919, the National Government enforced from the 1st of January, 1927, Regulations for the Control of Employment Exchanges for Profit.

In 1936 an improvement was made in the administrative organization concerning employment exchange and a subsidy was granted, as a piece of relief work, for the establishment of facilities for training the unemployed.

In view of the results obtained so far since the enactment of the laws in connection with employment exchanges the Revised Employment Exchange Law was presented to and passed at the 69th Session of the Diet in 1936, and put in force as from September of the same year.

Important points of the revision are as follows: (1) According to the old system co-ordination, control and supervision of the work was in the hands of the central and local employment exchange bureaux, seven in all, but this has now been transferred to the Home Minister and prefectural governors. Under the old system the director of the Employment Exchange Bureau had the supervising power on employment exchange business alone, but did not possess the authority in general over cities, towns and villages which are the principal managing bodies of labour exchanges, so his activity was very limited. On the other hand emergency work for the relief of the unemployed, industrial training or handicraft directing work, supervision of employment agencies run for profit, supervision of recruiting labourers, and emigration which are directly connected with employment exchange work, were under the supervision of the prefectural governors, it was therefore thought advisable to transfer the supervision of employment exchanges to the prefectural governors, and thereby develop the work of employment exchanges in co-ordination with the affiliated works just mentioned.

(2) In the past, the principal managing bodies have been, as a rule, cities, towns and villages. But the new Act has made it possible for prefectures to act in that capacity, thus doing away with any financial difficulty and making the selection of suitable locations for the employment exchange offices easier and better for further promotion of the work in all parts of the country.

(3) The revised Act makes those who intend to employ labourers en masse notify prefectural governors as to the items necessary for employment. This has been an entirely new addition, and is intended to enable prefectural governors to have ready knowledge as to the demands on labour. This provision applies to an employer who intends

to employ more than 30 labourers at one time and makes him advise prefectural governors as to the sex, kinds of industry and the number of labourers required.

It is proposed, however, that since the employment exchanges are nation-wide they should come under the direct control of the State, and in the 69th session of the Diet the House of Peers passed the Revised Employment Exchange Law with an additional clause of request for the State control of the work. The question remains for future study.

Conditions of the Work The number of employment exchanges which was 135 in 1923 when the Employment Exchange Bureau was established had increased to 693 at the end of 1936, of which exchanges specially for day-labourers numbered 62, for female labourers 8, for boys and girls 2, for the intelligentsia 1, and for Koreans 4.

The employment exchanges which succeeded in finding jobs for more than 310,000 people, excluding day-labourers, in 1923 were able to increase the number to 840,000 in 1935, and 540,000 in the first 8 months of 1936.

Day-labourers got 1,090,000 working days in 1923, through employment exchanges, this was increased to 16,770,000 working days in 1933. In 1934 and 1935 the number decreased but they were still considerable. The business conditions of employment exchanges are as shown in the following table :

EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGE

	1923	1926	1929	1933	1935	1936 (1st 8 months)
General						
Situations vacant.	817,427	729,720	720,521	1,451,998	1,917,983	1,377,521
Situations sought.	720,438	780,615	882,491	1,528,291	1,679,568	1,208,431
Situations filled.	312,550	222,563	263,669	663,315	741,642	543,794
Day-labourers						
Men wanted	1,158,134	2,522,177	3,015,195	16,897,143	12,988,711	9,592,309
Jobs wanted	1,318,648	2,793,384	3,473,237	20,124,272	14,463,730	10,501,605
Day's work secured.	1,091,047	2,477,746	3,010,280	16,779,159	12,867,295	9,415,448

For ex-soldiers the exchanges got 7,600 positions in 1935, an increase of 3,000 as compared with the number in 1934. In the introduction of juvenile workers, about 48,000 boys and girls who graduated from primary schools in March of 1936 were successfully placed by May of the same year, showing an increase of about 5,000 over the preceding year, and of young people under 18 years of age 158,000 were placed in 1936.

As to the conditions of employment agencies which are run for profit, the number of which reached 10,000 in 1923 when the Employment Exchange Bureau was established, was reduced to 3,300 with the enforcement in 1927 of the regulations on the supervision of the employment agency business, and at the end of September, 1936, the number had been further reduced to 2,086. The number of persons who avail themselves of these agencies is about 1,000,000 per year and the number of those who succeed in securing positions is about 500,000, but this number also is declining. According to the figures obtained during the last three years, the number of persons who called on these private agencies in 1933 was 770,000, in 1934 720,000 and in 1935 740,000. The decline is specially marked in the case of female workers.

Labourers from the country Farmers in rural districts emigrate to cities in the intervals of farming, mostly in winter time when the farms are snow-bound. According to the investigations conducted by the Central Employment Exchange Bureau, there are about 1,000,-000 such emigrants every year throughout the country, of which about 150,000 or so get jobs through the good offices of employment exchanges. The way of finding work for these emigrants and their protection has been a question for many years, and the State has taken measures to supervise the private employment agencies, while the public employment exchanges do all in their power to find them employment and give them protection. Moreover, the establishment of associations for the protection of these emigrants are encouraged, and travelling expenses are advanced for penniless ones. For the young boys and girls of the 6 north-eastern prefectures who are sent to cities and factories to help their families special officials are appointed in villages to guide their employment and protect them from falling into bad hands.

Study of Adaptability of Labour for Employment At present only 8 categories of adaptability for employment are standardized in Japan while at least 90 analyses are needed to meet the requirements of the times. Experts on the examination of adaptability are appointed in the Social Bureau, Ministry of Home Affairs, to accomplish such analyses and train employment exchange officials in their task.

Conditions of Unemployment In order to know of unemployment conditions the Social Bureau has collected prefectural reports on unemployment as on the 1st of every month since 1929. According to these reports, the number unemployed in January 1930 was 346,000, after that it increased month by month without a break up to September, 1932, when it reached 506,000. Since the end of 1932, owing to relief work and the turn for the better in the munition and export goods industries, the number has gradually decreased. It was 463,000 in December, 1932, 365,000 in September, 1934, 346,000 in September, 1935, and 330,000 in September, 1936. The decrease in salaried class and day-labourers is slight as compared with ordinary labourers in mills and mines.

Comparing the number of people dismissed with those taken on in factories and mines employing more than 50 persons the number of newly employed labourers has exceeded the number of dismissals since the latter half of 1932. The number of labourers was 1,610,000 in factories, 262,000 in mines, and 161,000 in Government mills at the end of July, 1936, which, as compared with the figures of the same month of the preceding year, showed an increase of 125,000, 31,000 and 3,000 respectively.

Emergency Enterprises for the Unemployed. Among the measures taken for the relief of unemployment, the civil engineering work begun in 1925 was the most important. Among others, the establishment of Business Training Institutes for the unemployed began in 1936.

The civil engineering work was first undertaken by public bodies affiliated with the 6 largest cities in the country, the bodies and scope of the work have since gradually widened. The Government has, also, since 1932, directly been undertaking civil engineering work, reclamation work, the adjustment of farm-lands, munition industries, etc., and has been encouraging large cities where unemployed labourers swarm, to increase enterprises for their relief by granting subsidies or advancing money at low rates of interest. Since 1929 the relief of the low-salaried class has been carried out in the 6 largest cities, and prefectures in which they are located, by giving them work on statistics, investigations, or adjustment of written matters or documents, one half of the expenses has been borne by the State. In the next table a summary of the relief work conducted in the last three years is given :

Unemployment Relief Enterprises in 1933-1936
(Subsidized ones only)

Fiscal Year	Kinds of Enterprises	Expenses in Yen	Wages in Yen	Aggregate number of work days
1933-34	Enterprises for ordinary labourers	34,882,642	12,053,138	9,157,047
	For low salaried class	1,803,635	1,662,208	1,369,509
	Total	36,686,277	13,715,346	10,526,556
1934-35	Enterprises for ordinary labourers	22,890,537	6,750,623	5,157,600
	For low salaried class	1,537,267	1,417,195	1,150,352
	Total	24,427,804	8,167,818	6,307,952
1935-36	Enterprises for ordinary labourers	15,378,527	4,710,145	3,472,024
	For low salaried class	1,499,193	1,385,942	1,130,929
	Total	16,877,720	6,096,087	4,602,953

As to the encouragement of the business training of the unempleyed which was started in 1936 the Government bears one half of the expenses required for the institutes.

BUSINESS TRAINING INSTITUTES FOR THE UNEMPLOYED

Manager	Mode of Management	Number of Institutes	Capacity	Estimated expenses	Subsidy req'ed	Instructors	Length of Term
Tokyo city	Direct management	1	60	11,560	5,780	3	18 weeks
Kyoto city	,,	1	30	4,571	2,285	2	6 months
Osaka prefecture	,,	2	60	6,000	3,000	4	6 months
	Entrusted to others	2	60	2,000	—	—	—
Osaka city	Direct management	1	60	4,879	2,439	2	6 months
Kobe city	,,	2	60	5,282	2,641	4	6 months
Kanagawa prefecture	,,	1	30	3,600	1,800	2	6 months
Yokohama city	,,	1	30	8,437	4,218	2	5 and a half months
Nagoya city	,,	1	40	3,000	1,600	2	5 months
Fukuoka prefecture	,,	1	40	2,687	1,343	2	5 months
Total	Direct management	11	420	50,216	25,106	23	
	Entrusted to others	2	60	2,000			
	Total	13	480	52,216	25,106	23	

Poor Relief

General Poor Relief The Regulations for Relief of the Poor were promulgated as early as 1874. The revised Relief Law was promulgated on April 2, 1924 and was put in force on January 1, 1932. The regulations maintain the old spirit of mutual help among relatives and neighbours and, at the same time, emphasize social solidarism and public responsibility of relieving impoverished people. Those who are relieved by the law are old poor people above 65, helpless juveniles under 13, pregnant poor women, helpless invalids and cripples, those who are handicapped by sickness, wounds or mental disorders, and poor mothers who are nursing infants under one year of age.

The period of relief should generally be for as long as it is required, but sometimes, especially when the case is taken up by a Block Committee, it is fixed, for example, at three or four weeks. The method of relief is of two kinds, indoor and outdoor, and as for the former, such large cities as Tokyo or Yokohama have their own homes or other relief institutions, otherwise the smaller municipalities entrust the relief of the poor to those orphanages, asylums or charity hospitals which are managed by private persons or organizations.

The results of the operation of this Act since 1932 are given in the following table :

RESULTS OF RELIEF WORK

(Units 1,000 people and ¥1,000)

Kinds of relief	1932	1933	1934	1935	Average
Living cost:					
(1) Number of the relieved	39.7	176.8	185.9	149.9	167.5
(2) Expenses defrayed	3,169.6	4,548.1	5,055.9	2,547.9	4,257.8
Medical treatment:					
(1) Number of persons	15.1	33.1	34.7	19.9	27.6
(2) Expenses defrayed	420.2	608.4	738.6	343.9	589.1
Maternity cases:					
(1) Number of women	2.3	3.2	2.4	0.8	2.6
(2) Expenses defrayed	13.4	14.8	11.1	3.5	13.1

Kinds of relief	1932	1933	1934	1935	Average
Help for working:					
(1) Number of Persons	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.4
(2) Expenses defrayed	4.7	5.0	4.7	1.8	4.8
Total					
(1) Persons	157.6	213.5	223.5	170.8	198.2
(2) Expenses defrayed	3,607.9	5,176.2	5,810.3	2,897.0	4,864.8

Note : For 1935, figures for 6 months only between April and September, are given.

The economic difficulties which many towns and villages have been experiencing in recent years have weakened their financial strength and increased the number of persons who need relief. Accordingly the burden which was imposed on towns and villages in the ratio of 2-1-1 on city, town and village, became too heavy for them, and was an obstacle to the efficient operation of the law. The ratio has therefore been changed to 7-3-2, by the revised Relief Law.

Special Poor Relief Special poor relief, as against general poor relief, includes (1) Proper attention for those found sick, dying or dead by the roadside, (2) Relief of sufferers from natural calamities, and (3) Relief of impoverished soldiers and their bereaved families.

Regulations now in force, issued in 1899, aim at relieving those people who are found sick on the road, the disposal of dead bodies, and care of the children who are with them. The heads of the cities or towns where they are found must apply to the prefectures concerned for authority to take charge of them in case there are no relations on whom they can depend. The expenses for their relief, if not met by those who are relieved themselves or their supporters, must be defrayed by the prefectures concerned, and they may be handed over to public or private institutions for further help. There is no limit of time fixed for their relief.

Calamity Relief Japan suffers particularly from natural calamities owing to its climate and volcanic activities, losses from fires and floods alone amount to nearly ¥70,000,000 every year. To relieve the sufferers from these calamities, the Natural Calamities Relief Fund Law and Sea Disaster Relief Fund Law were passed in 1899.

Previous to this date the Central Government in co-operation with the prefectural authorities had been working under the Biko Chochiku Law of 1880, according to which ¥1,200,000 had been paid out of the National Treasury each year, and further appropriations made from public saving funds. Consequently, the total of the funds both of the Central Government and Prefectures had been enormous.

At the end of April, 1935, the total amount of the funds was ¥91,496,777, a decrease when compared with the preceding year. The reason was the unusual disbursements for relief in 1934–35 amounting to ¥3,671,388. Besides the special donation from the Imperial House which amounted to over ¥53,000 for sufferers in prefectures, the public contributed ¥7,640,075 through the Social Bureau in that year.

In April, 1936, the total of the Natural Calamities Relief Fund amounted to ¥89,500,000, and, if Okinawa prefecture and Hokkaido were excepted, the average fund for each prefecture reached ¥1,980,000. Though particular items for which the fund is expended differ and change according to the nature of calamities, the largest amount of the fund is expended on food, shelters, and for business funds.

With the sad experience at the time of the Great Earthquake of 1923 fresh in the public memory, Osaka and Kyoto introduced the Great Calamities' Relief Regulations soon after that terrible event, according to which the Prefectural Offices, the Municipal Offices, the Army Division, and the Gendarmerie Corps are to co-operate in cases of great emergency.

The annual number of marine disasters off the coasts of Japan is over 1,000, and the average number of persons killed, injured or missing in these disasters reaches 600 or 700 a year. For the relief of these persons, the Sea Disaster Relief Law was issued in 1899, by the terms of which the heads of municipalities are invested with certain powers to give relief at the expense of the captain or owner of the ship concerned, but in case the money is not refunded by the captain or owner, or the relief proves insufficient, the expense incurred is paid by the National Government.

The Revision of the Military Relief Act The Military Relief Act has been in force since January of 1918, a part of it being revised in March, 1931. It aims to give relief at State expense to

those non-commissioned officers and men who are injured or suffer illness in war or during their term of service, and are, on that account, dismissed from the services, or to their families or the bereaved; to the families of soldiers and sailors who are called up for service; and to the bereaved of those soldiers and sailors who die of injuries or during their service if they find it difficult to get a living.

The relief, given under this Act, has greatly increased in recent years owing to the economic depression, the effects of the Manchurian Campaign and because of a better understanding of the purpose of the Law. In 1934–35 the number of people who received relief reached 105,772 persons or 31,996 families, the amount expended being more than ¥2,800,000. In 1935–36 the original estimate for relief was ¥2,074,000, but ¥867,000 was added later.

The purpose of the revision of the Act was to extend its sphere, and to ameliorate the conditions or qualifications, under which relief is given, so that the young men who serve in the army or navy may discharge their duties without worry about their families.

MILITARY RELIEF 1930-1935

	Number of Persons Relieved	Amount (In yen)
1930–31	51,856	1,586,695
1931–32	71,643	1,731,614
1932–33	99,023	2,427,496
1933–34	98,905	2,702,935
1934–35	105,772	2,809,248

Private Military Relief The organizations for private military relief work numbered 31 at the end of March 1929, the Japan Red Cross Society and the Imperial Military Aid Society being the most prominent. The organizations are mainly engaged in the giving of relief, generally temporary, to those who are outside the application of the Military Relief Law.

Health Protection

From very long ago, the Imperial Household has paid attention to the care of the sick. Hospitals for the Poor were established in 593, by Prince Shotoku. The present Saisei-Kai, a foundational juridical person, established by the wish of the Emperor Meiji to give medical treatment to the poor, continues the work of these ancient hospitals.

Free Medical Treatment There are many organizations which give free medical treatment, hospitals, medical consultation offices, visiting treatment societies, visiting nursing societies, etc. The Government decided to extend the work to farm-villages and fishing communities with ¥6,000,000, a part of which was donated by the Imperial House. There are 142 hospitals and 313 smaller branch hospitals or medical clinics, according to the statistics of 1932. In 1933–34 persons treated by the hospitals alone numbered 895,526.

Cost-Price Treatment The Emperor Meiji pointed out, in his edict, that Japan, in general with the rest of the world, was suffering great hardships and that it was most regrettable to see faithful but poor subjects suffering from illness unable to get medical treatment, and that there was acute need to give suitable relief to them; and, as elsewhere mentioned, he donated a large sum of money for this purpose.

The thing most dreaded by the labouring classes is sickness or injury. Once smitten by sickness or rendered idle by injury a workman is thrown out of work, no matter how much he may desire it, and has no means of getting medical treatment; his days of unemployment may be prolonged, and finally he may be stripped of all his possessions and his family may starve.

The Cost-Price Medical Treatment Association, a corporate juridical person, was organized on the 5th September, 1911 by the effort of Mr. Suzuki and Dr. Kato.

The Association has its headquarters in Tokyo and four branch offices in Tokyo, Yokohama, and Osaka and there are now 41 cost-price medical treatment offices established by public bodies in different parts of Japan, and 112 hospitals in which the working-class patients are treated at cost-price.

The Do-ai (or mutual love) Hospitals in Tokyo and Yokohama, the Imperial Charity Association, the Red Cross Hospital, the Jikei (or benevolence) Association Hospital have recently begun cheap medical treatment. The Do-ai Hospitals in Tokyo and Yokohama were established with the money given by the American people at the time of the Great Earthquake, 1923, as a memorial of their kind assistance in that period of trial. Mr. Suzuki, who has played a brilliant part in the promotion of this kind of social work, is now insisting upon the national management of all medical business for the thorough protection of the life of the people in view of the unreasonable high cost of medical treatment by common practitioners and consequent loss of life and impoverishment.

Sanatoria, Asylums and Special Hospitals There is to be found a regulation concerning mental disease in the Taiho Laws issued in 701. But the number of sufferers increased in direct proportion to the advancement of civilization. Statistics record the fact that at the end of 1912 there were 32,964 insane persons, by the end of 1922 the figure had risen to 50,891, and in 1933 it stood at 76,039, an increase of 2,499 as compared with the preceding year the ratio being 11.31 in every 10,000 of the population, an increase of 0.22 as compared with the preceding year.

(a) Laws and regulations concerning insane persons. The Law for the Custody of Insane Persons was enacted in 1900, with the object of protecting the public from harm at their hands. It provides for the appointment of a responsible person to take an insane person under his custody, and if necessary, by the approval of the prefectural governor, to confine the said insane person. The expenses, according to this law, shall be borne by the estate of the insane persons or by responsible persons, as the case may be, and in case any insane person protected by the order of the head of a municipality is unable to reimburse the money advanced by the municipality, the prefecture shall bear the expenses.

The Insane Asylums Law, which may be taken as a sub-division of the previous one, gives power to the competent Minister to order and bring prefectures, if necessary, under obligation to establish insane asylums or hospitals (Art. 1), and makes provisions concerning the State subsidy.

(b) Present condition of insane asylums and hospitals. At the end of 1933 there were 8 public hospitals for the insane and 112 private asylums, with combined capacity for 15,996 patients. At the end of 1933 there were 5,070 inpatients in these hospitals and asylums.

(c) Tuberculosis. It is almost impossible to get the exact number of cases of tuberculosis in this country, but the ratio of patients per 1,000 of the examined in accordance with the provisions of the Law for the Prevention of Tuberculosis was 0.26, a decrease of 0.05 as compared with the previous year. In 1932, 87,427 died from pulmonary tuberculosis, that is 74.4 in every 1,000 deaths, the highest ratio for five years. The Government issued regulations in 1914 for the establishment of tuberculosis sanatoria in cities of more than 30,000 population, and regulated the State subsidy thereto. The present Tuberculosis Prevention Law was enacted in 1919.

(d) Leprosy. For the prevention of leprosy, the Leprosy Prevention Law was issued in 1908. By this law, aid for indigent lepers out of public funds, the order of the competent Minister for the establishment of leper-asylums by united prefectures, or the use of private ones in lieu of public ones and other such matters are provided for. The whole country, in conformity with this law, was divided into five Divisions. Besides 9 public leper-asylums, there are 8 private ones. The Koyama Fukusei In, established by the Roman Catholic Church in Shizuoka prefecture, the Ihai En in Tokyo prefecture, the famous Kumamoto Kaishun Byoin founded by an English lady, Miss Riddell, and the Tairo In in Kumamoto prefecture have done valuable work for many years, being managed by Christian missionaries. (See Chapter XXXII on these subjects.)

STATISTICAL TABLE OF SOCIAL WORK IN JAPAN

(Fiscal Year 1933-34)

Name	Organization of Institution	Property and Funds	Expenditure
Organs	1,560	¥80,521,038	¥5,386,152
Unifying organizations	56	5,013,853	1,290,223
Investigation organs	34	850	1,204
Educational organs	3	—	—
Supplementary organs	18	71,934,143	2,310,765
Block committees	80	—	865,104
Backing organs of the block committees	1,369	3,572,192	918,856
Child protection	1,729	14,689,664	4,213,225
Protection of pregnant women			
(Midwives)	493	19,110	143,299
(Hospitals)	48	1,377,340	527,538
Protection of suckling infants	20	323,219	72,982

Name	Organization or Institution	Property and Funds	Expenditure
Day-nurseries	697	3,188,642	925,867
Feeding infants	129	5,598,273	850,941
Child consultation	144	129,261	142,200
Protection of cripples	1	21,708	2,806
Protection of weak children	8	1,987,896	312,405
Protection of sick children	18	33,670	27,146
Protection of maltreated children	4	26,451	21,594
Protection of poor children	37	574,077	111,193
Schools for nursemaids	16	31,021	7,643
Education of working children	9	85,576	11,847
Reformatory education	61	—	820,593
Reformatory protection	31	88,718	60,237
Temporary protection of children	1	113,493	22,310
Protection of abnormal children	8	1,029,072	129,692
Stammer correction	4	62,137	22,932
Economic protection	2,368	—	—
Housing work	642	—	—
Common inns	154	—	—
Public markets	277	—	—
Cheap dining rooms	68	—	—
Public baths	166	—	—
Public pawnshops	1,061	—	—
Relief and prevention of unemployment	661	1,957,054	3,077,377
Giving work	72	1,887,054	1,262,354
Employment exchanges	587	—	1,799,577
Vocational guidance	2	70,000	15,446
Poor relief	573	34,541,477	3,746,820
Relief at home	165	3,864,620	349,502
Relief in institutions	129	11,337,489	1,497,902
Protection of cripples and invalids	29	1,539,104	223,816
Protection of the bereaved families of soldiers	250	17,800,264	1,675,600
Medical treatment	645	32,634,567	11,569,401
Charity hospitals	151	22,203,020	6,188,448
Consultation rooms	343	3,500,318	1,664,418
Given private treatment	61	302,351	76,545
Insane hospitals	44	1,188,579	970,531
Tuberculosis sanatoria	29	4,030,434	1,710,841
Leper homes	17	1,409,865	958,618
Miscellaneous	592	106,589,633	24,573,819
Settlement work	169	6,283,515	1,207,761
Consultation bureaux	153	65,818	23,477
Protection of women	26	668,309	182,566
Mother and child protection	15	69,334	23,822
Father and child protection	2	—	1,769
Visiting sick people	12	52,076	39,646
Hygienic education	89	2,334,988	1,092,967
Funeral aid	5	94,235	35,705
Other work	121	97,021,358	21,966,106
Grand Total	8,128	270,933,433	52,566,794

STATISTICAL TABLE OF SOCIAL WORK IN JARAN

(Continued)

Name	Results (Cases etc.)		Workers
Organs	(Cases)	5,284,170	37,074
	(Students)	94	—
Unifying organizations		—	399
Investigation organs		—	36
Educational organs	(Students)	94	45

Name	Results (Cases, etc.)		Workers
Supplementary organs		—	145
Block committees	(Cases)	5,284,170	36,449
Backing organs of the block committees		—	—
Child protection		165,044	5,504
	(Cases)	1,228,673	—
Protection of pregnant women		6,044	471
(Midwives)		28,867	—
	(Cases)	50,695	439
(Hospitals)		12,720	91
Protection of suckling infants		59,475	2,191
Day-nurseries		819,408	—
Feeding infants		7,596	828
Child consultation	(Cases)	174,748	309
Protection of cripples		14	6
Protection of weak children		598	133
	(Cases)	201,819	—
Protection of sick children		12,780	50
Protection of maltreated children		67	21
	(Cases)	3,831	—
Protection of poor children		6,759	231
Schools for nursemaids		504	49
Education of working children		577	61
Reformatory education		2,842	550
Reformatory protection		—	—
Temporary protection of children		529	10
Protection of abnormal children		249	44
Stammer correction		3,595	20
Economic protection	(Houses)	33,500	—
	(Tsubo)	14,062,955	—
	(Sales)	¥52,939,432	—
	(Loans)	¥15,536,332	—
Housing work	(Houses)	33,500	—
Common inns	(Tsubo)	3,476,659	—
Public markets	(Sales)	¥52,939,432	—
Cheap dining rooms	(Tsubo)	10,586,296	—
Public baths		23,107,445	—
Public pawnshops	(Loans)	¥15,536,332	—
Relief and prevention of unemployment		685,946	2,678
	(Cases)	14,371,329	—
Giving work		13,332	303
Employment exchanges	(Hired)	672,460	2,363
	(Cases)	14,371,329	—
Vocational guidance		154	12
Poor relief		281,525	1,289
	(Cases)	101,095	—
Relief at home		15,237	231
	(Cases)	49,978	—
Relief in institutions		8,570	790
	(Tsubo)	1,500	—
Protection of cripples and invalids		2,343	139
Protection of the bereaved families of soldiers		255,375	129
	(Cases)	48,584	—
Medical treatment		1,838,384	13,022
Charity hospitals		1,038,521	6,713
Consultation rooms		757,763	1,153
Given private treatments		20,801	451
Insane hospitals		8,125	805
Tuberculosis sanatoria		8,369	708
Leper homes		4,805	192
Miscellaneous	(Offices)	4,673	2,938
	(Cases)	71,785	—

Name	Results (Cases, etc.)		Workers
Settlement work		—	—
Consultation bureaux		43,443	190
Protection of women	(Rooms)	3,434	102
		23,042	—
Mother and child protection		1,130	35
Father and child protection		109	6
Visiting sick people		—	38
Hygienic education		—	35
Funeral aid	(Cases)	5,281	15
Other work		—	2,517
Grand Total		2,975,572	62,505
	(Cases)	44,164,497	—
	(Houses)	33,500	—
	(Sales)	¥52,939,432	—
	(Loans)	¥15,536,332	¥

CHAPTER XXXI

LABOUR AND LABOUR MOVEMENTS

Labour

Vocational Classification

Statistics classifying the population in Japan proper according to the kinds of work actually engaged in and the number of employees in each occupation can be obtained from the Report of the National Census of 1930 as follows :

CLASSIFICATION OF PEOPLE IN JAPAN PROPER ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS

(The 1930 Census)

	Total	Male	Female	Total	Employee	Female
Total Population	64,450,005	32,390,155	32,059,850			
Unoccupied	34,830,365	13,359,918	21,470,447			
Occupied	29,619,640	19,030,237	10,589,403	20,037,851	10,676,109	9,397,742
Farming	14,140,107	7,743,065	6,397,042	9,133,417	3,173,283	5,960,334
Marine	546,624	501,078	45,546	314,378	271,258	43,120
Mining	251,220	210,174	41,046	241,430	200,496	40,934
Industry	5,699,581	4,269,151	1,430,430	4,037,681	2,808,985	1,228,696
Commerce	4,478,098	3,013,903	1,464,195	2,282,556	1,299,831	982,725
Transport	1,107,574	1,028,595	78,979	925,268	848,020	77,248
Public service	2,044,151	1,691,803	352,348	1,821,237	1,532,051	289,186
Domestic	781,319	84,203	697,116	781,319	84,203	697,116
Miscellaneous	570,966	488,265	82,701	536,365	457,982	78,383

According to investigations made by the Labour Section of the Social Bureau the classifications of labourers according to kinds of occupation at the end of 1935 was as follows :

Factory workers	2,791,902
Mine workers	274,804
Transport and communication	544,475
Day-labourers and others	2,295,408
Total	5,906,589
Male	4,146,960
Female	1,759,629

Labour Conditions

Factories and Labourers The number of factories where more than 5 operatives are employed in Japan porper at the end of 1935 was 85,174, an increase of 4,863 or 6.1 per cent as compared with the previous year.

The number of labourers employed in the 85,174 factories above mentioned at the end of 1935 was 2,369,277 (1,287,575 men, 1,081,702 women), gaining 205,824 or 9.5 per cent over the previous year. Classification of the same according to kinds of industry follows :

NUMBER OF FACTORY LABOURERS BY INDUSTRIES

Sex Distribution

	Number	%	Male	Female
Industry:				
Textile	1,006,703	42.5	193,866(19.3%)	812,837(80.7%)
Metal	217,612	9.2	201,595(92.6%)	16,017 (7.4%)
Machinery, tools, etc.	367,263	15.5	335,061(91.2%)	32,202 (8.8%)
Ceramic	92,698	3.9	73,741(79.5%)	18,957(20.5%)
Chemical	228,638	9.6	148,803(65.1%)	79,835(34.9%)
Lumber and wood-working	85,107	3.6	77,247(90.8%)	7,860 (9.2%)

	Number	%	Male	Female
Printing and binding	60,569	2.6	53,404(88.2%)	7,165(11.8%)
Foodstuff	158,125	6.7	126,454(80.0%)	31,671(20.0%)
Gas and electric	8,390	0.3	8,350(99.5%)	40 (0.5%)
Miscellaneous	144,172	6.1	69,054(47.9%)	75,118(52.1%)
Total	2,369,277	100	1,287,575(54.3%)	1,081,702(45.7%)

Age Distribution

Industry:	Under 16	16-49	Over 50
Textile	180,770(18.0%)	816,933(81.1%)	9,000 (0.9%)
Metal	6,115 (2.8%)	206,064(94.7%)	5,433 (2.5%)
Machinery, tools, etc.	17,995 (4.9%)	341,877(93.1%)	7,391 (2.0%)
Ceramic	3,831 (4.1%)	84,924(91.6%)	3,942 (4.3%)
Chemical	13,411 (5.8%)	210,267(92.0%)	4,960 (2.2%)
Lumber and wood-working	2,463 (2.9%)	79,561(93.5%)	3,083 (3.6%)
Printing and binding	2,838 (4.7%)	56,510(93.3%)	1,221 (2.0%)
Foodstuff	3,540 (2.2%)	150,616(95.3%)	3,969 (2.5%)
Gas and electric	16 (0.2%)	8,033(95.7%)	341 (4.1%)
Miscellaneous	10,223 (7.1%)	130,575(90.6%)	3,374 (2.3%)
Total	241,202(10.2%)	2,085,360(88.0%)	42,715 (1.8%)

COMPARISON OF INDEX NUMBERS OF LABOURERS IN 1935 and 1936

(Compiled by the Bank of Japan)

(Base, 1926=100)

	Average		Male		Female	
	1935	1936	1035	1936	1935	1936
Jan.	95.8	100.8	103.9	112.2	88.0	89.6
Feb.	96.5	101.4	104.6	113.0	88.7	90.1
March	97.5	102.5	105.6	114.3	89.6	90.9
April	100.7	105.7	107.4	115.9	94.1	95.7
May	101.2	106.2	108.2	116.7	94.3	95.9
June	101.0	106.1	108.7	117.3	93.6	95.2
July	100.9	106.1	109.3	117.9	92.7	94.5
Aug.	100.6	106.2	109.8	118.9	91.6	93.8
Sept.	101.0	107.1	110.6	120.3	91.6	94.2
Oct.	100.9	107.5	111.1	121.5	91.0	93.7
Nov.	101.1	108.1	111.6	122.6	90.9	93.8
Dec.	101.1	108.5	112.0	123.4	90.4	93.8
Year	99.9	105.5	108.6	117.8	91.4	93.4

Unemployment The first thorough investigation on unemployment in Japan was made at the national census of October 1, 1935; the number of jobless labourers and salaried-men at that time was 322,527. Annual estimates had been made by the Social Bureau since 1929, based on the reports sent in by local governments at the beginning of every month. The number had increased from 268,000 in September, 1929 to 505,000 in September, 1932. But the tendency turned at the end of 1932 as the result of the Government's emergency measures and an increased demand for labour in the heavy industries and an increase in the number of men called up for the services; the number of unemployed fell to 346,000 in September, 1935. The rate of decrease of unemployment is greatest for factory and mine labourers as is shown below:

UNEMPLOYMENT BY KINDS OF LABOUR

(Compiled by the Social Bureau)

(In 1,000)

	Total			Salaried Men		
	Investigation made on	Unemployment	Rate	Investigation made on	Unemployment	Rate
Oct. 1925	2,355	105	4.48	615	19	3.15
Dec. 1930	6,890	362	5.25	1,624	63	3.91
Dec. 1931	7,047	470	6.68	1,664	77	4.65
Dec. 1932	7,263	463	6.38	1,692	83	4.94
Dec. 1933	7,410	378	5.11	1,720	69	4.01
Dec. 1934	7,517	360	4.80	1,738	67	3.88
Dec. 1935	7,778	351	4.52	1,787	68	3.82

LABOURERS

	Day-labourers			Others		
	Investigation made on	Unemployment	Rate	Investigation made on	Unemployment	Rate
Oct. 1925	206	39	19.36	1,533	46	3.02
Dec. 1930	1,615	146	9.07	3,650	151	4.16
Dec. 1931	1,665	188	11.34	3,717	204	5.50
Dec. 1932	1,781	193	10.88	3,788	185	4.91
Dec. 1933	1,789	183	10.24	3,899	126	3.25
Dec. 1934	1,785	176	9.89	3,992	116	2.92
Dec. 1935	1,816	169	9.34	4,174	113	2.72

In factories and mines in 1930 and 1931 dismissals were greater than engagements, but since then the movement has reversed. Details follow :

MOVEMENT OF EMPLOYMENT AT FACTORIES AND MINES WHERE MORE THAN 50 OPERATIVES ARE EMPLOYED

	At the Factories			At the Mines		
	Dismissed	Engaged	Total Number of Employed (October)	Dismissed	Engaged	Total Number Employe (October)
1930	569,433	515,159	1,139,887	163,611	112,930	216,189
1931	656,114	555,055	1,100,730	103,015	69,954	180,427
1932	483,853	540,543	1,071,372	87,173	75,460	170,518
1933	524,937	634,254	1,195,129	114,670	147,059	205,841
1934	568,535	680,876	1,366,630	141,597	153,413	221,664
1935	663,806	793,790	1,492,939	150,178	174,606	237,695

Wages According to investigations made by the Department of Commerce and Industry, the average wage of factory labourers per hour was 12 sen, in 1935, same as in the previous year. The lowest 8 sen, was to be found among textile industry labourers, for a large number of women and juvenile workers are to be found in this industry. Details follow :

	Aggregate Labour Hours	Total Amount of Wages (In yen)	Per Hour Wage (In yen)
Industry:			
Textile	3,011,818,972	229,637,894	8
Metal	663,912,446	134,186,855	20
Machinery, tools, etc.	1,164,983,762	222,341,849	19
Ceramic	264,370,491	37,779,412	14
Chemical	660,087,453	90,645,914	14
Lumber and wood-working	242,070,219	31,091,432	13
Printing and binding	191,085,190	31,777,850	17
Foodstuff	346,340,078	44,583,320	13
Gas and electric	32,431,596	7,416,063	23
Miscellaneous	416,813,422	41,703,706	10
Total and average	6,999,418,629	871,164,295	12

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF LABOURERS

(In 13 largest cities)

(Compiled by the Department of Commerce and Industry)

(In Yen)

Kind of Employment	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Textile industry:						
Silk-reeler (Female)	0.75	0.67	0.67	0.62	0.64	0.65

Kind of Employment	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Cotton-spinner (Female)	0.89	0.79	0.75	0.67	0.68	0.68
Silk-thrower (Female)	0.78	0.76	0.77	0.63	0.64	0.63
Cotton-weaver (Machine) (Female)	0.76	0.70	0.67	0.65	0.73	0.68
Silk-weaver (Hand) (Female)	0.81	0.78	0.80	0.24	1.37	1.32
Hosiery-knitter (Male)	1.49	1.45	1.45	1.59	1.59	1.41
„ „ (Female)	0.76	0.72	0.72	0.66	0.67	0.66
Metal, machine and tool industry:						
Lath-man	2.04	2.13	2.25	2.56	2.58	2.52
Finisher	2.14	2.14	2.28	2.46	2.51	2.49
Founder	2.01	2.08	2.18	2.71	2.72	2.64
Blacksmith	2.04	2.08	2.23	2.45	2.44	2.41
Wooden-pattern maker	2.17	2.16	2 30	2.57	2.61	2.54
Ceramic industry:						
Potter	1.81	1.70	1.74	1.39	1.36	1.45
Glass-maker	1.80	1.73	1.70	1.68	1.67	1.70
Cement-maker	2.07	2.10	2.12	2.05	2.04	2.03
Brick-maker (Shape)	1.14	1.09	1.15	1.27	1.25	1.25
Tile-maker (Shape)	1.40	1.29	1.33	1.50	1.54	1.51
Chemical industry:						
Medicine-worker	1.87	1.91	1.77	2.11	2.17	2.11
Match-maker (Male)	1.26	1.17	1.07	1.04	1.11	1.18
„ „ (Female)	0.59	0.54	0.49	0.50	0.52	0.53
Oil-presser	1.58	1.61	1.63	1.94	1.97	1.92
Japanese-paper maker	1.46	1.45	1.40	1.48	1.46	1.44
Foreign-style paper maker	1.72	1.68	1.68	1.71	1.75	1.75
Leather-maker	1.97	1.92	2.00	2.38	2.35	2.49
Foodstuff industry:						
Flour-miller	1.62	1.62	1.64	1.88	1.92	1.90
Saké-brewery worker	1.78	1.64	1.79	1.51	1.53	1.58
Soy-brewery worker	1.58	1.54	1.53	1.47	1.45	1.42
Sugar-refinery worker	2.08	2.07	2.06	2.34	2.35	2.50
Confectioner	1.41	1.40	1.44	1.46	1.47	1.45
Canner	1.64	1.53	1.54	1.22	1.21	1.25
Clothing industry:						
Tailor (for European clothes)	2.03	2.00	1.89	1.83	1.79	1.77
Shoe-maker	1.85	1.74	1.76	1.77	1.81	1.82
Wooden-clog maker	1.40	1.38	1.41	1.33	1.35	1.40
Engineering and constructional work:						
Carpenter	2.14	1.98	1.88	1.92	1.93	1.99
Plasterer	2.32	2.19	2.13	2.13	2.16	2.22
Stone-mason	2.50	2.36	2.26	2.33	2.40	2.46
Brick-layer	2.56	2.38	2.31	2.31	2.40	2.43
Roofing-tile layer	2.49	2.38	2.31	2.40	2.41	2.50
Painter	2.28	2.14	2.12	2.10	2.12	2.14
Wood and bamboo work:						
Sawyer (Machine)	1.82	1.72	1.65	1.55	1.56	1.56
Joiner	1.92	1.80	1.80	1.72	1.76	1.80
Lacquerer	1.70	1.63	1.61	1.62	1.62	1.60
Floor-mat maker	2.03	1.95	1.90	1.79	1.84	1.89
Printing and book-binding:						
Compositor	2.27	2.17	2.14	2.17	2.21	2.20
Book-binder	1.75	1.69	1.70	1.61	1.72	1.75
Stevedores and daily labourers:						
Stevedore	2.02	1.89	1.90	2.59	2.66	2.57
Day labourer (Male)	1.40	1.30	1.28	1.31	1.33	1.33
„ „ (Female)	0.75	0.73	0.74	0.78	0.78	0.77
Average				1.74	1.75	1.75

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF WORKERS EMPLOYED IN FARMING AND SERICULTURE

(In Yen)

Wages of Workers Employed in Farming

	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
General index numbers	93	94	92	87	95	58	52	54	54	58
Workers by the year										
Male										
Actual	0.74	0.71	0.66	0.66	0.57	0.47	0.42	0.44	0.44	0.48
Index numbers	96	92	86	86	74	61	54	57	57	60
Female										
Actual	0.53	0.51	0.46	0.48	0.41	0.33	0.29	0.32	0.30	0.32
Index numbers	93	89	81	84	72	58	51	56	52	56
Workers by the season										
Male										
Actual	1.45	1.42	1.43	1.45	1.25	0.95	0.85	0.89	0.88	0.95
Index numbers	90	88	88	90	77	59	52	55	54	59
Female										
Actual	1.17	1.12	1.13	1.08	0.96	0.72	0.66	0.69	0.69	0.78
Index numbers	91	88	88	84	75	56	51	53	53	58
Workers by the day										
Male										
Actual	1.42	1.53	1.44	1.35	1.14	0.86	0.77	0.79	0.79	0.85
Index numbers	93	101	95	89	75	57	51	52	52	57
Female										
Actual	1.10	1.24	1.28	1.03	0.87	0.64	0.55	0.57	0.61	0.65
Index numbers	96	108	111	90	76	56	48	50	53	56

N. B. Wages per day are calculated by averaging wages, and amounts paid in kind are estimated in equivalent money values. The average is the simple arithmetical average. Base: 1921-23=100

Wages of Workers Employed in Sericulture

	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
General index numbers	120	97	96	98	74	61	56	59	59	65
Workers by the year										
Male										
Actual	1.29	1.07	0.99	0.94	0.73	0.59	0.53	0.58	0.57	0.61
Index numbers	139	115	106	101	78	63	57	62	61	65
Female										
Actual	0.86	0.69	0.73	0.72	0.51	0.38	0.37	0.41	0.41	0.44
Index numbers	121	97	103	101	72	54	52	58	58	62
Workers by the season										
Male										
Actual	16.7	1.34	1.26	1.32	1.05	0.89	0.81	0.86	0.84	0.95
Index numbers	118	95	89	94	74	63	57	61	58	69
Female										
Actual	1.24	0.99	0.93	1.01	0.84	0.67	0.62	0.65	0.66	0.74
Index numbers	128	94	89	96	80	64	59	62	63	71
Workers by the day										
Male										
Actual	1.80	1.46	1.50	1.52	1.09	0.93	0.86	0.89	0.88	0.95
Index numbers	112	91	93	94	68	58	53	55	54	60
Female										
Actual	1.37	1.07	1.17	1.21	0.85	0.73	0.67	0.69	0.70	0.75
Index numbers	114	89	98	101	71	61	56	58	59	64

N. B. Base: 1921-1923=100.

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF MINERS

(In Yen)

		1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Mineral mines							
Underground workers	Male	2.10	2.04	1.85	1.72	1.77	1.80
	Female	0.86	0.84	0.76	0.73	0.73	—
Pit-head workers	Male	1.90	1.79	1.62	1.55	1.64	1.61
	Female	0.72	0.70	0.65	0.61	0.63	0.65
Average		1.86	1.78	1.63	1.54	1.62	1.63
Coal mines							
Underground workers	Male	2.05	1.90	1.63	1.53	1.65	1.80
	Female	1.66	1.48	1.12	0.95	0.96	1.06
Pit-head workers	Male	1.52	1.44	1.36	1.31	1.38	1.45
	Female	0.75	0.73	0.67	0.63	0.65	0.68
Average		1.79	1.68	1.48	1.40	1.51	1.63
Oil-fields							
In the field	Male	1.81	1.74	1.67	1.64	1.67	1.68
	Female	0.83	0.83	0.82	0.82	0.83	0.83
Average		1.76	1.69	1.62	1.60	1.63	1.63
Other mines							
Underground workers	Male	2.21	2.11	1.82	1.72	1.68	1.81
	Female	1.04	1.25	0.91	0.80	0.69	—
Pit-head workers	Male	1.91	1.81	1.63	1.61	1.61	1.62
	Female	0.90	0.85	0.70	0.65	0.63	0.64
Average		1.90	1.82	1.62	1.57	1.56	1.61
General Average		1.81	1.70	1.52	1.45	1.54	1.63
Male		1.91	1.80	1.60	1.52	1.61	1.70
Female		1.17	1.03	0.78	0.69	0.68	0.71

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF EMPLOYEES ON FISHING BOATS AND VESSELS

(In Yen)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
General average					
Actual	1.89	1.78	1.38	1.26	1.23
Index numbers	81	77	59	53	52
Engineer	2.21	1.92	1.56	1.44	1.30
Captain	2.46	2.66	1.46	1.33	1.35
Coxswain	1.91	1.90	1.70	1.63	1.57
Oiler	1.74	1.41	1.22	1.07	0.98
Sailor	1.52	1.42	1.10	0.87	0.78
Fisherman	1.50	1.34	1.20	1.08	1.01

N. B. Base: 1926–1928=100.

Labour Conditions

Owing to industrial prosperity, the number of labourers has increased greatly in recent years. According to investigations made by the Social Bureau the number employed was 2,971,878 at the end of June 1936, which, as compared with 2,791,902 at the end of December, 1935, showed an increase of 180,000. The Bank of Japan index number of labourers in mills under private management was 107.1 in September of 1936 (base : 1926). The rate of increase was highest in 1934 with 11 per cent and since then it has shown a downward tendency, being 9.4 per cent in 1935 and 6 per cent in 1936.

The change in the index number of labourers in recent years is as shown below. The boom in the munition industries has caused a great increase in the number of labourers employed. The increase is much smaller in the case of female labourers than in that of male labourers. This is explained by the fact that the industries which are showing activity are those which require male labour.

INDEX NUMBER OF FACTORY LABOURERS

(1926=100)

Year and months	Average	Increase or decrease %	Male	Increase or decrease %	Female	Increase or decrease %
1932	74.7	(+) 0.4	79.0	(−) 2.5	70.6	(+) 3.8
1933	81.9	(+) 9.6	87.0	(+) 10.1	76.8	(+) 8.8
1934	91.3	(+) 11.5	98.4	(+) 13.1	84.3	(+) 9.8
1935	99.9	(+) 9.4	108.6	(+) 10.4	91.4	(+) 8.4
Jan. '36	100.8	(+) 5.2	112.2	(+) 8.0	89.6	(+) 1.8
Feb. „	101.4	(+) 5.1	113.0	(+) 8.0	90.1	(+) 1.6
Mar. „	102.5	(+) 5.1	114.3	(+) 8.2	90.9	(+) 1.5
Apr. „	105.7	(+) 5.0	115.9	(+) 7.9	95.7	(+) 1.7
May. „	106.2	(+) 4.9	116.7	(+) 7.9	95.9	(+) 1.7
June „	106.1	(+) 5.0	117.3	(+) 7.9	95.2	(+) 2.7
July ..	106.1	(+) 5.2	117.9	(+) 7.9	94.5	(+) 1.9
Aug. „	106.2	(+) 5.6	118.9	(+) 8.3	93.8	(+) 2.4
Sept. „	107.1	(+) 6.0	120.3	(+) 8.3	94.2	(+) 2.8
Oct. „	107.5	—	121.5	—	93.7	—
Nov. „	108.1	—	122.6	—	93.8	—
Dec. „	108.5	—	123.4	—	93.8	—

Classified according to the kinds of industries the index number is shown in the following table. From the index number of September, 1936, we find almost all industries, except the cotton spinning and silk reeling industries, show increase over the previous year, the increase being specially marked in shipbuilding, machinery and instrument making, and other metal industries, and in the artificial fertilizer, knitting, and pharmaceutical industries. The heavy industries are busy because of defence re-armament; the the artificial fertilizer and pharmaceutical industries are new and rising industries; and the knitting goods industry is active owing to the increase in exports.

The sudden expansion of industries caused by inflation resulted in a scarcity of skilled labour and the recruiting of much unskilled labour, but as a precaution against reaction, which might set in at any moment, a large number of labourers are hired only temporarily.

The scarcity of skilled labour is a great problem to industry and great efforts are being made to overcome it in co-operation with the Department of Education, but skilled men cannot be trained in a day. The increase in the number of temporarily-hired labourers has been a matter of discussion since 1935, and the authorities have been making endeavours to either improve or abandon the system. But there is still much room for further study. According to investgations made at the end of 1934 by the Social Bureau the temporarily-hired labourers represented 16.7 per cent in factories which employ more than 100 labourers. In factories where more than 50 labourers are employed they represented 12 per cent in Tokyo prefecture in February, 1934, and in Osaka prefecture in January, 1935, 24 per cent of the workers in factories where more than 5 persons are employed.

INDEX NUMBER OF FACTORY LABOURERS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIES

(1926=100)

Industries	1933	1934	1935	Jan. 1936	Feb. 1936	Mar. 1936	Apr. 1936
Silk reeling	61.8	60.2	60.3	41.1	48.7	57.7	61.2
Cotton spinning	64.5	69.4	74.1	70.9	71.1	71.3	75.6
Textiles	72.0	75.9	79.5	77.2	77.6	78.2	81.9
Dyeing	90.5	104.7	115.8	116.9	118.6	119.7	121.4
Knitting	81.2	89.0	93.6	94.2	95.6	98.8	104.7
Machinery	133.6	168.8	197.6	206.5	208.0	210.6	216.2
Shipbuilding	80.5	101.9	117.5	124.6	127.2	131.8	136.3

Industries	1933	1934	1935	Jan. 1936	Feb. 1936	Mar. 1936	Apr. 1936
Vehicles	85.2	104.6	119.4	123.2	123.5	123.7	124.3
Instruments	107.4	128.6	150.7	156.7	159.7	162.6	167.0
Metal wares	100.5	117.2	133.0	139.0	139.3	142.2	143.7
Ceramics	72.4	80.7	85.9	88.0	88.7	89.9	90.5
Paper mak'g	95.0	80.4	84.5	87.1	87.4	87.8	88.3
Pharmaceutical	105.5	124.2	134.5	140.7	142.6	143.6	144.6
Rubber goods	146.7	148.5	147.7	147.0	148.9	150.6	151.4
Artificial fertilizers	76.2	83.4	96.9	104.7	104.6	107.0	109.4
Foodstuffs	81.5	84.5	90.1	91.8	91.8	91.8	92.2
Printing and book-binding	93.3	95.4	97.6	99.1	99.4	99.4	100.8
Lumber and furniture	74.6	75.9	79.8	81.3	82.2	83.2	84.1

Industries	May 1936	June 1936	July 1936	Aug. 1936	Sept. 1936	Oct. 1936	Nov. 1936	Dec. 1936
Silk reeling	58.4	57.1	59.9	59.6	59.4	59.1	58.7	46.4
Cotton spinning	75.6	74.6	73.4	72.5	72.7	72.1	72.3	72.6
Textiles	82.0	81.6	81.0	80.2	80.4	79.7	79.5	79.4
Dyeing	122.2	123.1	124.5	125.6	126.4	125.9	125.8	124.6
Knitting	106.1	106.3	106.3	106.8	107.1	106.4	106.5	105.9
Machinery	218.7	220.6	223.1	225.7	228.7	232.1	235.3	238.1
Shipbuilding	139.9	141.9	142.9	145.2	148.6	155.2	159.6	162.6
Vehicles	124.3	124.2	124.9	125.4	126.9	127.1	128.0	127.4
Instruments	169.3	171.4	172.5	175.4	179.2	181.0	181.9	182.0
Metal wares	144.9	145.5	146.2	147.4	148.6	149.8	151.4	152.3
Ceramics	91.0	91.2	91.1	91.5	91.8	92.0	92.1	92.2
Paper mak'g	88.7	88.8	89.4	90.8	89.3	90.0	90.7	91.1
Pharmaceutical	146.4	147.5	147.5	148.6	150.1	150.8	151.9	153.1
Rubber goods	149.8	149.9	150.6	151.9	153.5	154.2	153.2	151.4
Artificial fertilizers	110.9	111.4	115.6	116.5	118.7	120.0	120.4	120.3
Foodstuffs	91.3	91.1	92.4	92.3	93.6	94.8	95.4	95.6
Printing and book-binding	100.7	100.5	100.3	100.9	101.9	102.0	102.6	102.0
Lumber and furniture	84.0	83.9	83.1	82.4	82.0	81.5	81.5	81.7

According to investigations made by the Social Bureau the estimated number of unemployed in August, 1936 was 333,634, or 4.24 per cent, the figures falling still lower by the end of the year.

THE RATE OF UNEMPLOYED FOR THE LAST 4 YEARS (IN %)

Months	1936	1935	1934	1933	Months	1936	1935	1934	1933
January	4.64	4.87	5.16	6.17	July	4.29	4.60	4.97	5.81
February	4.61	4.96	5.24	6.06	August	4.24	4.55	4.91	5.65
March	4.58	4.84	5.17	5.84	September	4.18	4.52	4.87	5.45
April	4.40	4.72	5.14	5.70	October	4.07	4.52	4.86	5.36
May	4.51	4.74	5.13	5.91	November	4.07	4.46	4.79	5.19
June	4.42	4.59	5.06	5.89	December	4.08	4.52	4.89	5.11

The downward tendency of wage rates which had persisted for some years was checked about the middle of 1935 and remained steady until March 1936, when it again took a downward course, reaching the bottom in June and picking up again slightly in August. When classified by industries a sharp decline was witnessed in the heavy industries where the increase of the number of labourers was most remarkable. This may be explained by the fact that a large number of temporarily-hired low-paid labourers is included, the index number as a whole consequently becoming lower. Industrial prosperity seems to be benefiting only a very restricted number of skilled labourers so far as the labouring class is concerned.

INDEX NUMBER OF WAGE RATES, COMPILED BY BANK OF JAPAN

(Base 1926=100)

Months	1936	1935	1934	1933	1932	Months	1936	1935	1934	1933	1932
January	81.0	82.2	84.1	86.5	89.5	July	80.4	81.0	82.8	85.0	88.0
February	81.1	82.0	83.7	86.3	89.3	August	80.6	81.0	82.7	84.9	87.8
March	80.8	81.8	83.5	86.0	89.1	September	80.6	81.0	82.6	84.7	87.5
April	80.7	81.4	83.0	85.5	88.6	October	80.6	81.0	82.6	84.5	87.3
May	80.6	81.2	82.8	85.2	88.3	November	80.6	80.9	82.3	84.0	86.8
June	80.4	81.0	82.7	85.1	88.2	December	80.9	81.0	82.2	83.9	86.6

INDEX NUMBER OF WAGE RATES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIES

(Base 1926=100)

Industries	1933	1934	1935	Jan. 1936	Feb. 1936	Mar. 1936	Apr. 1936
Silk reeling	61.3	60.4	61.6	63.0	62.8	61.6	61.3
Cotton spinning	70.1	68.2	67.1	67.6	67.8	67.4	66.4
Textiles	71.6	72.1	73.4	73.4	73.8	74.0	73.6
Dyeing	85.6	83.6	82.8	82.9	82.8	82.9	82.4
Knitting	75.3	73.2	74.3	74.1	74.1	73.9	73.9
Machinery	85.7	81.1	78.0	77.7	77.3	77.1	76.2
Shipbuilding	92.0	89.7	88.6	89.0	88.5	88.6	87.9
Vehicles	86.3	80.8	77.1	76.0	76.8	76.3	75.7
Instruments	85.3	81.5	78.9	78.5	78.7	78.2	78.0
Metal wares	88.1	86.6	83.3	83.9	83.0	82.7	82.1
Ceramics	86.0	84.4	83.5	82.9	84.0	84.0	84.0
Paper making	91.3	88.6	87.3	86.6	86.4	86.5	87.0
Pharmaceutical	93.2	89.7	86.9	87.1	86.9	86.5	87.4
Rubber goods	84.3	82.4	81.3	80.5	79.7	79.8	79.9
Artificial fertilizers	99.0	98.8	97.9	98.3	98.5	98.5	98.1
Foodstuffs	93.6	91.3	89.2	89.1	89.3	89.6	89.6
Printing and book-binding	83.0	81.1	78.8	78.1	78.4	78.0	77.4
Lumber and furniture	78.1	76.7	77.0	76.0	76.4	76.2	76.0

Indutsries	May 1936	June 1936	July 1936	Aug. 1936	Sept. 1936	Oct. 1936	Nov. 1936	Dec. 1936
Silk reeling	61.2	61.1	61.2	61.6	61.4	61.4	61.8	62.3
Cotton spinning	66.3	66.8	67.1	67.2	67.6	67.5	67.8	68.5
Textiles	73.4	73.8	74.0	74.1	74.2	74.4	75.3	75.8
Dyeing	82.6	82.5	82.5	82.4	83.0	83.1	83.0	83.2
Knitting	73.3	72.9	72.7	72.2	72.9	72.7	72.7	73.1
Machinery	75.9	75.6	75.5	75.6	75.6	75.5	75.7	75.4
Shipbuilding	87.2	86.3	85.8	85.7	86.2	86.1	85.9	86.1
Vehicles	76.3	75.4	75.6	76.9	76.4	76.3	76.5	76.6
Instruments	77.7	77.1	76.8	76.3	75.6	76.2	76.1	76.5
Metal wares	81.9	81.7	81.9	82.1	82.1	81.8	81.8	82.1
Ceramics	84.0	83.8	83.9	84.0	83.5	83.7	83.4	83.6
Paper making	86.7	86.6	86.6	86.6	86.6	87.0	86.8	87.6
Pharmaceutical	87.2	86.9	86.8	87.0	87.1	86.7	87.1	87.8
Rubber goods	79.9	78.9	78.4	78.4	78.3	78.0	77.6	78.3
Artificial fertilizers	97.9	98.3	97.5	97.6	97.0	96.6	96.1	96.2
Foodstuffs	89.7	89.7	89.4	89.3	89.3	88.6	88.6	88.6
Printing and book-binding	77.7	77.3	77.8	77.8	77.4	77.2	77.2	77.1
Lumber and furniture	76.0	65.3	75.4	75.6	75.8	75.8	75.7	76.0

In spite of wage rates taking a downward course actual earnings kept, after 1931, an upward tendency, the peak being reached in December, 1936. Actual

earnings increased in but few industries, the rate of increase was, also, not large. On the other hand, in several industries earnings decreased considerably, especially in the munition industries, instrument making, metal ware and vehicle manufacturing industries. Perhaps this may be explained by the fact that the expansion of factories has somehow reached the limit, that the income of labourers from extra hour-work has reached its maximum point, and that the number of temporarily hired labourers with low wages has increased to the extent that it has come to affect the earnings of regular labourers.

INDEX NUMBER OF ACTUAL EARNINGS

(Base, 1926=100)

Months	1936	1935	1934	1933
January	91.3	91.0	87.8	89.5
February	92.3	92.3	92.9	91.0
March	93.5	93.4	94.0	91.6
April	90.7	90.2	90.7	88.5
May	91.0	89.7	90.7	88.1
June	90.6	89.7	90.5	88.4
July	90.2	89.6	89.5	87.4
August	90.0	89.4	89.7	87.0
September	90.8	89.8	90.0	88.6
October	92.2	91.5	91.1	89.2
November	93.0	92.2	92.4	89.5
December	96.2	94.3	95.0	91.6

THE INDEX NUMBER OF ACTUAL EARNINGS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIES

(Base 1926=100)

Industries	1933	1934	1935	Jan. 1936	Feb. 1936	Mar. 1936	Apr. 1936
Silk reeling	61.7	61.3	63.3	66.3	65.9	63.7	62.5
Cotton spinning	62.5	61.2	60.5	61.1	61.3	61.5	60.5
Textiles	66.5	66.4	65.8	64.8	65.3	65.9	65.2
Dyeing	83.3	81.4	78.5	76.5	78.2	77.6	75.7
Knitting	70.2	67.7	66.5	65.0	67.3	69.2	65.9
Machinery	100.6	96.6	93.2	88.8	91.3	93.1	90.3
Shipbuilding	97.1	98.4	98.7	95.6	99.2	100.4	99.5
Vehicles	89.5	89.5	82.0	78.5	80.3	83.2	78.9
Instruments	89.3	85.3	82.7	78.4	82.0	83.7	81.6
Metal wares	96.3	98.0	98.1	97.0	97.0	96.1	96.2
Ceramics	83.6	81.6	82.1	83.0	81.5	81.6	81.5
Papermaking	92.4	91.8	90.1	91.1	88.8	88.5	89.8
Pharmaceutical	82.7	78.1	78.6	81.2	78.9	79.7	80.1
Rubber goods	86.3	86.2	86.8	86.3	88.6	85.8	84.7
Artificial fertilizers	95.4	94.6	96.1	98.9	96.7	97.0	95.0
Foodstuffs	92.5	94.4	91.6	96.7	91.5	90.5	90.5
Printing and bookbinding	90.3	90.3	87.7	87.0	89.4	88.1	86.8
Lumber and furniture	73.2	73.0	73.3	70.5	70.9	71.9	72.6

Industries	May 1936	June 1936	July 1936	Aug. 1936	Sept. 1936	Oct. 1936	Nov. 1936	Dec. 1936
Silk reeling	62.7	63.1	64.1	63.0	63.8	64.4	64.8	66.2
Cotton spinning	60.0	60.0	59.7	59.9	60.4	60.9	61.8	62.2
Textiles	64.7	65.3	64.7	65.2	65.2	65.6	66.4	67.2
Dyeing	76.2	75.0	75.2	75.2	76.2	74.5	76.1	77.6
Knitting	64.4	64.4	63.4	64.4	64.9	64.3	64.1	66.5
Machinery	90.1	90.4	89.6	88.5	89.6	90.2	92.7	97.6
Shipbuilding	98.4	97.5	94.3	95.3	97.3	98.2	100.3	104.5
Vehicles	78.1	77.5	77.4	77.7	79.8	80.6	81.1	86.3
Instruments	80.3	80.1	79.4	98.3	78.2	79.7	80.8	84.7
Metal wares	94.6	94.3	92.7	92.9	92.8	94.1	97.0	98.5
Ceramics	81.9	82.0	81.2	81.2	80.7	81.2	82.2	83.7
Papermaking	89.2	89.4	89.9	89.5	88.9	89.2	89.3	90.7
Pharmaceutical	81.4	81.4	78.2	77.6	75.2	74.7	77.6	77.8
Rubber goods	86.4	83.8	83.1	82.4	82.4	85.9	88.1	88.1
Artificial fertilizers	95.8	95.3	94.9	94.2	93.7	93.2	94.3	93.6
Foodstuffs	91.4	91.1	90.9	92.1	90.5	91.4	91.2	92.2
Printing and bookbinding	82.6	83.2	82.6	83.4	84.9	85.4	87.2	90.8
Lumber and furniture	73.2	73.1	72.6	73.2	73.8	75.1	75.8	77.2

Labourer's Earnings and Commodity Prices. By dividing actual earnings by the Bank of Japan index number of retail prices and converting the answer to the base of 1926=100, the "Oriental Economist" made the first of the following tables the real value of wages.

The second table, compiled by the Asahi Shimbun, is also interesting as an index of living costs, as it shows a rise of 20 between the average for 1932 and the figures for October, 1936.

THE INDEX NUMBER OF THE REAL VALUE OF WAGES

(Base, 1926=100)

	Retail prices	Real value of Wages	Increase or decrease as compared with the previous year in %		Retail prices	Real Value of wages	Increase or decrease as compared with the previous year in %
1931	68.8	133.1	(+) 5.1	Mar. 1936	70.0	116.3	(−) 6.2
1932	68.7	128.2	(−) 3.7	Apr. „	80.6	112.5	(−) 6.3
1933	73.2	121.8	(−) 5.0	May „	80.5	113.0	(−) 5.4
1934	74.7	122.1	(+) 0.2	June „	79.3	114.2	(−) 5.1
1935	76.2	119.5	(−) 2.1	July „	79.2	113.9	(−) 4.5
Jan., 1936	78.8	115.9	(−) 3.4	Aug. „	79.9	112.6	(−) 3.9
Feb. „	79.9	115.5	(−) 5.0	Sept. „	80.3	113.1	(−) 2.2

INDEX NUMBER OF LIVING COSTS

(Base, 1926=100)

	Average	Food	Residence	Light and fuel	Clothing	Culture
1932	164	138	241	160	121	179
1933	168	142	236	171	139	180
1934	174	152	234	181	147	180
1935	181	166	233	178	146	182
Jan., 1936	183	171	233	181	148	183
Feb., „	184	172	233	185	148	183
Mar., „	185	173	233	185	149	183
Apr., „	185	175	233	184	149	183
May, „	185	174	233	181	149	183
June, „	185	174	233	179	150	183
July, „	186	175	233	179	150	183
Aug., „	186	177	233	180	149	183
Sept., „	186	176	233	181	152	184
Oct., „	184	170	233	183	155	184

Working hours exclusive of extra work are shown below, the figures being obtained by multiplying the actual hours worked in a day by the number of working days in a month, the investigations being made by the Bank of Japan. January is a short month because of the New Year Holidays, which last 3 days.

WORKING HOURS

(Exclusive of extra working hours)

	1936			1935		
	Hours	No. of days	Total hours in a month	Hours	No. of days	Total hours in a month
	h m		h m	h m		h m
January	9.42	24.3	235.43	9.45	24.8	241.48
February	9.48	26.6	260.41	9.50	26.0	255.40
March	9.52	27.0	260.38	9.53	26.8	267.42
April	9.52	27.4	270.21	9.53	27.5	271.57
May	9.52	27.2	268.22	9.53	27.3	269.44

	1936			1935		
	Hours	No. of days	Total hours in a month	Hours	No. of days	Total hours in a month
	h m		h m	h m		h m
June	9.52	27.3	269.22	9.52	27.2	268.22
July	9.49	27.2	267.01	9.50	27.3	268.27
August	9.49	27.5	269.58	9.48	27.2	266.34
September	9.52	27.5	271.20	9.51	27.6	271.52
October	—	—	—	9.51	27.5	270.53
November	—	—	—	9.52	27.6	272.19
December	—	—	—	9.56	27.5	271.30

	1934			1933		
	Hours	No. of days	Total hours in a month	Hours	No. of days	Total hours in a month
	h m		h m	h m		h m
January	9.39	24.7	238.21	9.41	24.7	239.11
February	9.46	25.8	251.59	9.45	26.0	253.30
March	9.50	26.7	262.33	9.46	26.5	258.49
April	9.51	27.4	269.53	9.46	27.1	264.41
May	9.50	27.4	269.26	9.45	27.1	264.14
June	9.49	27.3	268.00	9.46	26.8	261.45
July	9.49	27.2	267.02	9.43	27.2	264.18
August	9.48	27.4	268.31	9.43	27.4	266.14
September	9.51	27.1	266.56	9.46	27.2	265.39
October	9.52	27.5	271.10	9.47	27.4	268.04
November	9.53	27.6	272.47	9.47	27.5	269.05
December	9.57	27.7	273.37	9.50	27.3	268.27

The number of working hours in each of the principal industries is shown below, the average for 1936 is of the first nine months only. In each industry an increase is shown up to 1935, but all showed a falling off in 1936, though the figures for that year were greater than 1933. The increase in the machinery and instrument making, and chemical industries is specially marked, due to their connection with the munition industries. The textile and dyeing industries show a decrease since 1934 because of the decline in exports.

TOTAL MONTHLY WORKING HOURS IN THE PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIES

Industries	1936	1935	1934	1933
	h m			
Textile and dyeing	264.04	266.29	267.28	263.37
Machinery and instrument making	267.27	270.41	269.47	265.13
Chemical	266.02	267.01	264.14	262.48
Foodstuffs	264.00	264.32	262.12	259.25
Miscellaneous	258.06	259.58	257.08	253.05
Average	263.56	265.44	264.10	260.50

HOURS AND DAYS WORKED PER MONTH IN THE PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIES

Industries	1936		1935		1934		1933	
	No. of hours	No. of days	No. of hours	No. of days	No. of hours	No. of days	No. of hours	No. of days
Textile and dyeing	9.49	26.9	9.50	27.1	9.50	27.2	9.48	26.9
Machinery and instrument making	10.01	26.7	10.06	26.8	10.04	26.8	9.56	26.7
Chemical	9.49	27.1	9.49	27.2	9.45	27.1	9.44	27.0
Foodstuffs	9.36	27.5	9.33	27.7	9.30	27.6	9.26	27.5
Miscellaneous	9.40	26.7	9.42	26.8	9.40	26.6	9.33	26.5

It will thus be seen that labour is being strained in all its phases, especially in the munition industries, and if things go on in this manner, labourers will be soon forced into a harder living as their wages are not being raised in proportion to the rise in prices and the extra work that is being forced upon them.

The working hours in the above statistics prepared by the Bank of Japan do not include time for rest. But time for rest has been shortened since 1929. The average in 1935 was 57 minutes, but in the munition industries it was much less than the average, as is shown in the following table taken from Labour Statistics for 1936.

REST PERIODS IN THE CHIEF INDUSTRIES, 1935

	Average for all industries	Metal industry	Machinery and instrument making industries	Shipping and vehicle making industries
Average 1935	0.57	0.51	0.46	0.49

Statistics for factory accidents, which have been published include only those figures up to 1934, but it is estimated that accidents have increased since. The number of the casualties which took place while labourers were at work, during 1934, according to the publication of the Social Bureau, numbered 62,117, exclusive of factories to which a portion of the Factory Law applies, and showed an increase of 13,744 over the previous year. The number of accidents, as compared with the total number of labourers, began to increase suddenly after 1933. Among the casualties in 1934 female workers numbered 3,917 which corresponds to 6 per cent of the total number of accidents. The reason that the number of casualties in the case of women is comparatively small is explained by the fact that labour is more forced in factories, where male labour constitutes the bulk of the workers. Legal restrictions are also placed on female workers as protected labourers, and this contributes to the lessening casualties in their instance.

Year	Private Factories	Total number of Factories including Government-managed ones.
1926	2.23%	2.71%
1927	2.66	3.13
1928	2.56	2.92
1929	2.72	2.99
1930	2.62	2.86
1931	2.17	2.38
1932	2.14	2.31
1933	2.41	2.57
1934	2.85	2.89

The total number of casualties is shown below. When the sum of those killed and seriously injured is compared with the total number of casualties there was an increase from 24.7 per cent in 1932 to 25.8 per cent in 1934, which proves that not only is the number of accidents getting larger but the nature of the accidents is getting worse. The increase of casualties is partly due to the sudden increase in the number of labourers, which include many unskilled men, since 1932, but the rate of increase of casualties, which was 28.4 per cent greater in 1934 than in the previous year, is more than double the increase in the number of labourers, which was 14.1 per cent.

According to industries the metal refining industry has the highest percentage with 162.1 per 1,000 labourers, followed by 120.03 in the artificial fertilizer industry, and 69.73 in the machinery and instrument making group.

TOTAL CASUALTIES IN INDUSTRY

Year	No. killed	No. seriously injured	No. slightly injured	Total
1932	250	4,058	24,925	34,233
1933	404	10,802	37,157	48,363
1934	555	15,510	46,052	62,117

Labour Accident and Mortality In 1934 the number of labourers injured while at work in factories was 62,117 of which deaths numbered 555.

LABOUR ACCIDENTS

(Compiled by the Social Bureau, Home Ministry)

	Total	In Government Factories	In Private Factories						
			Total	Textile	Machinery	Chemical	Foodstuff	Miscellaneous	Special
1925	41,011	11,868	29,143	9,585	11,735	4,769	1,095	1,082	877
1926	49,812	11,829	37,983	10,491	17,089	6,648	1,103	1,584	1,068

	Total	In Government Factories	In Private Factories						
			Total	Textile	Machinery	Chemical	Foodstuff	Miscellaneous	Special
1927	57,032	12,195	44,837	9,864	20,696	7,935	1,332	4,010	1,000
1928	54,496	9,812	44,684	9,219	22,247	7,541	1,146	3,665	866
1929	58,113	8,910	49,203	8,955	25,691	8,675	1,141	3,809	932
1930	50,984	7,714	43,270	7,170	21,452	8,287	1,169	4,214	979
1931	41,316	6,109	35,207	5,790	17,298	6,677	1,078	3,475	889
1932	39,720	5,487	34,233	5,587	16,968	6,229	879	3,685	885
1933	48,363	6,400	41,963	5,371	23,377	7,194	951	3,973	1,097
1934	62,117	4,978	57,139	5,424	31,165	8,375	1,036	4,620	6,519

RATE OF FACTORY ACCIDENTS PER 1,000 OPERATIVES

	Total	In Government Factories	In Private Factories						
			Total	Textile	Machinery	Chemical	Foodstuff	Miscellaneous	Special
1928	29.15	73.04	25.75	9.33	83.35	40.24	13.72	19.92	24.55
1929	29.92	67.29	27.18	8.77	89.59	42.60	13.20	20.35	36.63
1930	28.59	59.53	26.17	7.97	79.64	42.34	13.98	23.47	38.83
1931	23.75	52.26	21.69	6.38	69.92	34.37	13.94	20.31	35.61
1932	23.13	46.76	21.40	6.50	63.51	31.59	11.09	11.46	36.39
1933	25.67	45.70	24.07	6.18	68.28	30.79	11.37	20.88	45.34
1934	28.91	34.59	28.50	5.88	69.73	30.59	11.20	21.84	112.68

In 1934 the number of accidents in the mines was 73,239, the total number of casualties was 73,687, of which deaths numbered 880, an increase in all items as compared with the previous year.

ACCIDENTS IN MINES

Year	Cases	Deaths	Injured	Total Casualties
1925	187,026	786	187,515	188,301
1926	158,332	801	158,468	159,269
1927	163,108	1,002	163,593	164,595
1928	142,035	891	141,974	142,865
1929	129,649	964	129,419	130,383
1930	107,346	874	106,836	107,710
1931	78,310	694	77,955	78,649
1932	65,724	686	65,374	66,060
1933	66,929	833	66,340	67,173
1934	73,239	880	72,807	73,687

Marine Accidents The number of fishing boats and vessels without engines wrecked in 1934 was 12,596, and that of vessels with engines 2,900, increasing 513 and 1,456 respectively as compared with the previous year. The crews wrecked with those boats and vessels totalled 4,448, a decrease of 1,381 on the previous year; 596 of the total perished or were missing. The increase of marine accidents in 1934 was largely due to the typhoon that raged over the western and central districts of the Main Island in September.

MARINE ACCIDENTS

	Total Number of Fishing Boats and Vessels	Fishing Boats and Vessels Wrecked		Amount of Loss (In ¥1,000)	Total Number of Fishermen	Crews on the Wrecked Boats and Vessels		
		Without Engines	With Engines			Perished	Survived	Total
1925	356,920	835	171	—	1,116,565	618	2,631	3,249
1926	350,943	977	289	—	1,112,435	606	2,763	3,369
1927	354,554	1,788	332	—	1,125,983	520	3,723	4,243
1928	360,126	1,683	454	—	1,130,430	472	2,749	3,221
1929	359,961	1,141	362	924	1,112,002	419	2,774	3,193

	Total Number of Fishing Boats and Vessels	Fishing Boats and Vessels Wrecked		Amount of Loss (In ¥1,000)	Total Number of Fishermen	Crews on the Wrecked Boats and Vessels		
		Without Engines	With Engines			Perished	Survived	Total
1930	359,295	2,578	619	1,370	1,109,700	479	2,871	3,350
1931	360,690	1,076	510	1,069	1,110,506	1,174	2,840	4,014
1932	360,686	2,239	770	1,764	1,106,850	569	1,652	2,221
1933	363,473	12,083	1,444	4,797	1,097,254	714	5,115	5,829
1934	364,582	12,596	2,900	4,785	1,103,346	596	3,852	4,448

Labour Hygiene. The hygienic equipment of factories is legally required, but progress of installation and improvement is rather slow and partial. In compliance with the requirements stated in the new ordinance on labour hygiene, factory managers are endeavouring to make improvements under the guidance of the Government and prefectural authorities, and good results have been reported as to the health of factory labourers where the work has been carried out. (See Chapters on Agriculture, Fisheries, and Mining.)

Labour Movements

General Survey for 1936

Labour Administration Labour circles were affected in 1936 economically by the prosperity caused through the demand for war supplies; politically, with the lively activities of the Proletarian Parties which had increased in strength at the general election of February with the passing of the Retiring Allowance Fund Bill and the Retiring Allowance Bill, the Shakai Taishu-to (The Social Mass Party) and the Guild Conference, which supported the Bill have made favourable progress. On the contrary, the patriotic labourers' movement has left but a faint trace of its activity, the Council for Current Topics.

In examining wages, which is the principal object of labour administration, it is found that the level was about the same as the previous year, though there were some fluctuations after January, a slight increase being witnessed in the munition industries. The fact that the monetary income of labour is stationary while the indices of production, stocks, foreign trade, and profits, are rising, is a matter to be seriously considered, for of the total labour disputes of 1,793, which took place between January and November of 1936, the so-called positive disputes numbered 605 cases, of which 508 cases were demands for increases in wages.

The number of trade unions was 965 in 1934, 993 in 1935, and 950 at the end of June, 1936. The members numbered 387,964 in 1934, 408,662 in 1935 and 407,928 at the end of June, 1936, at which latter date 219,569 men, or more than one-half the total, were connected with the Japan Council of Labour Unions, the members affiliated with the Social Mass Party.

The members who support nationalistic parties, numbered about 44,000, and those prone to rational leftism numbered about 15,000.

Administration of Labour Organizations As regards the problem of trade unionism the Government has taken an indifferent attitude ever since it failed to pass the Trade Union Bill in 1931. The trade union movement is a means for labourers to protect their interests under the capitalistic régime, and it is unreasonable for the Government to repress it as long as the capitalistic system is left as it is, and unless the trades unions step outside their economic activities and threaten public peace and order. It was specially noticed in 1936 that both in the labour administrators' conferences and in capital and labour conferences a clearer recognition of the real situation on the part of capital was necessary.

One thing which must be specially recorded regarding the administration of trade unions is that the Army advised workmen employed in mills under the Ministry of War to withdraw from the Federation of Trade Unions of Government Labourers. About 8,000 workmen in the Army factories followed the advice and seceded from the Federation. According to the statement of the Army, the step was taken in accordance with the principle of army discipline which does not permit of any connection of men in the army, even labourers, with outside bodies.

(1) The Retiring Allowance Fund and the Retiring Allowance Acts The Re-

tiring Allowance Fund Bill and the Retiring Allowance Bill which were voted on during the Extraordinary Session of the Diet in May, 1936, were promulgated on November 30, and became effective on January 1, 1937.

In Japan, a customary retiring allowance has been given by large factories and mines since their early days, the Retiring Allowance Fund Law and the Retiring Allowance Law are to rationalize and perfect the old system for the protection of labourers in general.

Those factories and mines which employ 50 workers or more in normal times are subject to the new law which may also be applied, with or without modifications, to factories or mines which usually employ less than 50 workers at the request of the factories or mines.

In principle the new rule is applicable to all workers in the employ of such factories or mines as come within the purview of the new law, but exceptions are made for workers employed for a fixed period of less than six months, day-labourers and those engaged in seasonal work.

Employees' Savings System The new system concerning the savings of employees has legalized the policy hitherto followed by some employers of compelling their employees to lay aside a part of their wages as deposits to be drawn upon their retirement and at the same time made the hitherto voluntary savings of employees compulsory in some cases. Under this system, the employer must take two hundredths of the wage of each employee and deposit the sum in the name of the employee with a post-office or bank or keep it by such means as is approved by the competent local authorities. The primary purpose of this system is to provide for the employee against his retirement. The term "wage" in this connection implies money and material as well.

Thus savings of this kind are formed by deductions from wages and as such are the deposits of the employees themselves, although the employers act as the depositors. It follows that every employee is entitled to withdraw his deposits thus made upon his retirement, regardless of the circumstances under which he retires. The said law, however, also provides that the deposits shall not be withdrawn before retirement of the employee no matter what reason may exist for him to desire to draw them.

The employer may utilize the savings of his employees with the permission of the competent local authorities and the consent of the employees. Interest at a reasonable rate must, however, be paid on the amount thus utilized. This rule is intended to continue the practice of some employers of encouraging savings among their employees by paying interest on the savings through their utilization. As a means of protecting the employees from sustaining any loss on account of such utilization, the competent local authorities order the employers desiring to utilize such savings to deposit a certain amount of national bonds with the authorities.

Retiring Allowance Fund The proprietors of factories or mines where 50 or more workers are employed in normal times must pay a retiring allowance to their employees upon retirement. To meet this need, the proprietors are required to keep a necessary fund. The new law provides that this fund may be kept by either of two methods, one of them being to keep a retiring allowance fund and the other to maintain a reserve fund.

The annual amount to be laid aside as such a fund must represent two hundredths of the wages of the employees. In some cases where more business profits are yielded than usual, it is stipulated that an additional amount representing three hundredths of the wages must be included in the said fund.

Every retiring employee is entitled, as a rule, to receive a retiring allowance. The employer, however, may refuse to pay the allowance to any employee who, being in the employ for less than three years, retires of his own accord without good reason or who is dismissed for a breach of faith or similar reasons. Further, the employer may pay only half of the specified amount of retiring allowance to any employee who, though serving for over three years, retires of his own accord without good reason or who, though serving for over three years but less than ten years, is dismissed for misconduct which is not so serious as a breach of faith.

The surplus arising from such non-payment and reduced payment is to be used for paying an additional allowance to the employees who are dismissed for reasons of the employers. The rates of this additional allowance are fixed at 20 days' standard wages for those who have served for over one year but less than three years and 35 days' standard wages for those who have served for over three years.

As in the case of the savings of employees, the employer may utilize the retiring allowance fund with permis-

sion of the competent local authorities, but without securing the consent of the employees.

The annual amount to be set aside in the form of a reserve fund relative to the payment of retiring allowance, though not strictly provided for, is generally considered to represent 3.3 per cent of the wages of the employees at the least.

With a view to protecting the rights of workers, the Government prohibits the transfer of the right of the employee to withdraw his deposits upon retirement or to receive the retiring allowance and the seizure of the deposits or retiring allowance by his creditors. Both the retiring allowance fund and the reserve fund relative to the payment of retiring allowances are exempted from taxation.

Enquiry Commission Those who desire to take civil action in connection with the payment of retiring allowance are required to refer the matter first to a Retiring Allowance Enquiry Commission. This system has been adopted for the dual purpose of facilitating a solution of such dispute by means other than civil action and passing a judgment in conformity with the actual circumstances surrounding each dispute.

Each prefecture is to have such a commission which is to be headed by the governor of the prefecture and composed of from 6 to 9 members including government officials, scholars and business experts.

(2) Revision of the Labour Accident Relief Laws. On December 21, 1936 the Ordinance for enforcing the Factory Law, the Ordinance for enforcing the Labour Accident Relief Law, the rules for Giving Allowances to Miners in distress, and the Ordinance Giving Allowances to temporary employees, all of which aim at assisting labourers who suffer from accidents, were revised, and enforced as from January 1, 1937 along with the revised Factory Law, the revised Labour Accident Relief Law and the revised Mine Law.

Experience of several years had revealed many defects in these laws for aiding labourers or their bereaved, and it was thought advisable to revise parts of them in order to increase the assistance to labourers and also to adjust and rationalize it. These revised laws and ordinances were promulgated in 1936.

The principal points in the revisions were as follows :

(a) The amount of allowance to the bereaved of labourers who die by accidents while at work, and the allowance for labourers who are suffering from disabilities have been increased.

(b) The minimum sum to be allowed to the disabled and the bereaved, etc. have been fixed regardless of wages.

(c) The new rules recognise that the mutual aid associations, which are joint enterprises of employers and labourers, may act as proxies in the matter of payment of the allowances.

(3) Labour Accident Relief Legal Insurance. The business conditions of this insurance business from April, 1935 to March, 1936 were as follows :

Income from premiums,	
(1) Received during the year	¥1,900,902.76
(2) Brought forward from the previous year (fund for payment)	¥588,982.64
(3) Brought forward from the previous year	¥449,536.34
Payments,	
(1) For medical treatment	¥743,470.73
(2) Assistance for absentees	¥380,075.82
(3) For the disabled	¥200,622.00
(4) For the bereaved	¥230,868.00
(5) Surrender	¥ 19,224.00
Total	¥1,574,260.55
Carried forward	608,915.58
Carried forward (fund)	527,687.16
Number of cases	32,675.69
Number of enterprises insured	8,000.69
Aggregate number of labourers working in the enterprises insured	Male 58,585,491
	Female 3,699,392

In 1906 a foundational juridical person called "the Japan Association for Assisting Labourers Employed by Civil Engineering and Building Enterprises" was established and will take care of injured workers after they have received the protection provided for in the law.

The rate of insurance premium was revised on December 24, 1936, the aim being to raise the premium on workers employed in the construction of hydro-electric power plants, and steel framed or reinforced concrete buildings which involve greater dangers, and to lower the rate on workers employed on less dangerous work such as construction of roads, or other ordinary building enterprises. The new rates came into force on January 1, 1937.

(4) Safety and Hygiene on Civil Engineering and Building Jobs The accidents which occur on civil engineering and building jobs to which Article 1 of the Labour Accident Relief Law refers have been large in number and

show a tendency to increase every year. During 1935 the number of deaths reached 780 and the number of injured was as high as 27,000, in spite of which there are no regulations as to the prevention of such accidents. In July of 1934, the Government circulated, through prefectural governors, notices that care should be taken for the safety and hygiene of people engaged in civil engineering and building jobs so as to prevent accidents and preserve their health. It has since maintained a vigilant attitude and is preparing to draw up a draft bill on the subject.

ACCIDENTS ON CIVIL ENGINEERING AND BUILDING JOBS DURING 1932-1935

	1932	1933	1934	1935
Number of labourers employed (Oct. 1)	142,789	410,378	329,946	362,411
Number of injuries and deaths:				
Deaths	424	589	685	781
Injured (badly)	5,916	11,942	18,968	26,804
Injured (slightly)	4,452	9,390	13,831	16,583
Total	10,792	21,921	33,484	44,168
Rate of injuries and deaths				
Deaths	0.29	0.14	0.20	0.21
Injured (badly)	4.14	2.91	5.74	7.39
Injured (slightly)	3.11	2.28	4.19	4.57
Total	7.55	5.34	10.14	12.18

General Meetings of International Labour

In 1935 the International Labour Conference held two general meetings, the ordinary general meeting, and an extraordinary general meeting to discuss marine labour.

The Twentieth International Labour Conference was held at Geneva, from June 4 to 24, Japan being represented by Toshizo Yoshizaka, Representative of the Government, Director of the Imperial Office of International Labour; Juitsu Kitaoka, Secretary, Social Bureau; Masao Shibusawa, Representative of capital, Director, the Japan Iron Works; and Mitsu Kono, Representative of labour, Vice-President, the All-Japan Federation of Labour.

Health Insurance The total number of the insured at the end of September, 1936, was 3,282,729. Classified according to the bodies under whose charge the business of Health Insurance falls, they are as follows:

	Total	Compulsory	Voluntary	Prolonged
Total	3,282,729	—	—	—
Under charge of Government	2,260,464	2,256,848	3,549	67
Under charge of associations	1,022,265	—	—	—

(Remarks: Lack of complete statistics precluded the classification according to kinds of the insured under charge of associations).

The total number of mills, working places and undertakings was 119,010, classified as follows (under Governmental charge only):

Establishments under the Factory Law	67,298
Establishments under the Mine Law	1,482
Other undertakings	49,694
Total	118,474
Undertakings where persons voluntarily insured are employed	536
Grand total	119,010

Guaranteed Payment

(1) Classification of Guaranteed Payment Insured persons are entitled to benefit when they are injured or become ill, or in case of maternity. In case of death benefits are paid to their

dependents. The total guaranteed payments during 1934–35 amounted to ¥31,185,992 to being distributed among 7,477,269 cases classified as follows :

Payment for,	Cases	Amount paid (In Yen)
Medical treatment	6,604,640	19,266,583
Prolonged treatment	7,717	146,653
Injuries	747,644	10,056,192
Child birth	101,814	1,105,952
Death	15,454	610,612
Total	7,477,269	31,185,992

Medical organization of the Health Insurance under direct charge of the Government at the end of September, 1936 was as follows :

Kinds	Number
Physicians,	43,457
General practitioner	31,261
Dentists	12,196
Pharmacists	7,108
Midwives	32,042

Medical organization under charge of the Health Insurance Associations at the end of 1934 was as follows :

Kinds	Ordinary	Dental
Physicians	45	68
Private clinics	192	74
Clinics of medical associations	24	12
Physicians and dentists under contract	334	266

In the fiscal year 1935-36 22 health insurance consultation rooms were established in 8 prefectures, and in 1936–37, another 39 rooms were added in 36 prefectures and Hokkaido.

(4) Expenses In 1936, the amount borne by the Treasury was ¥2,962,859.

Owing to the prosperity in the munition industries and economic circles in general the income from premiums has greatly increased.

Labour Disputes

The number of labour disputes in Japan reached its climax in 1931 with 2,456, but the number steadily went down until it was only 1,872 in 1935. The days when left wing proletarian parties and trade unions were the leaders of the workers seemed to have passed, and the patriotic or national socialistic elements had begun to have their say. Harmony among all parties in industry became the slogan of labourers, and labour differences settled by mutual agreement until, through rising costs of living unaccompanied by increase in wages towards the end of 1936, a series of disputes broke out.

In 1936, the number of labour disputes was 1,919, with 90,137 participants, or an increase of 47 cases and a decrease of 13,825 persons, compared with the previous year. The number of participants per case was 47, a decrease of 9 persons.

The nature of demands in these disputes was positive in character, as was the case in the previous year. Negative demands, such as opposition to decreases in wages, fell to 129 from the 142 of the previous year.

Disputes in connection with dismissals numbered 296, an increase of 24 as compared with the previous year.

LABOUR DISPUTES

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Industry :—					
Metal, machinery and tool	322	251	281	323	408
Chemical	311	277	332	—	258
Textile	336	240	226	—	196
Foodstuff	74	73	68	—	55
Miscellaneous	308	261	204	—	313
Mining	56	52	85	—	102
Gas and electric	9	16	17	—	5
Transportation	264	215	201	—	260
Engineering and construction	153	198	179	—	115
Communication	4	6	5	—	—
Others	380	308	316	—	207
Total	2,217	1,897	1,915	1,872	1,919
Participants	123,313	116,733	120,307	103,962	90,137

CASES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO DEMANDS

	1932	1933	1934
Positive demands			
Increase of wages	397	576	622
Shorter hours	20	26	32
Holidays	1	3	0
Recognition of freedom of trade unions	7	7	9
On labour committees	0	0	0
Better equipments for labourers in factories	11	14	15
Rejection of overseers	26	45	45
Total	464	672	723

	1932	1933	1934
Negative demands			
Against lowering of wages	289	110	78
Against revision of working method, etc.	17	32	34
Against revision of the method of paying wages	98	103	113
For establishment or improvement of pension	327	255	288
Aagainst dismissals	488	319	309
Total	1,219	819	822
Others	534	406	370

NUMBER OF LABOUR DISPUTES ACCOMPANIED BY STRIKES, SABOTAGE OR LOCKOUTS 1931-1935

	Cases	Participants	Per case
1931			
Strikes	853	53,959	63.3
Sabotage	57	4,666	81.9
Lockouts	74	4,680	63.2
Total	984	63,305	64.3
1932			
Strikes	761	44,738	58.8
Sabotage	66	6,987	105.9
Lockouts	43	1,613	37.5
Total	870	53,338	61.3
1933			
Strikes	516	33,302	64.5
Sabotage	59	12,029	203.9
Lockouts	23	1,456	63.3
Total	598	46,787	78.2
1934			
Strikes	559	42,091	75.3
Sabotage	48	6,975	145.3
Lockouts	16	412	25.8
Total	623	49,478	79.4
1935			
Strikes	527	31,811	60.4
Sabotage	43	5,271	122.6
Lockouts	14	568	40.6
Total	584	37,650	64.5

CLASSIFIED BY DEMANDS

Demand for		Recognition Of Freedom of Trade Unions	Against the Reduction of Wages	Increase of Wages	Against the Revision of the Method of Calculating or Paying of Wages	Shorter Hours
1931	Cases	10	167	213	55	18
	Men	907	13,800	11,207	2,710	1,919
1932	Cases	2	194	(3)137	50	(1)11
	Men	565	14,416	6,968	4,197	956
1933	Cases	2	50	254	32	14
	Men	43	2,979	20,634	7,459	601
1934	Cases	1	32	295	46	12
	Men	48	11,749	18,458	2,428	534
1935	Cases	7	82	225	46	9
	Men	1,159	3,432	15,285	3,977	152

Demand for		Establishment of Holidays	Against the Revision of Working Method or Rules	Payment of Wages	Better Equipment	Establishment or Increase of Pensions
1931	Cases	—	10	96	6	79
	Men	—	242	8,083	968	2,915
1932	Cases	1	6	110	6	53
	Men	10	263	4,999	229	1,619
1933	Cases	3	10	51	5	29
	Men	144	288	2,675	181	969
1934	Cases	—	12	45	5	27
	Men	—	940	1,898	139	1,300
1935	Cases	5	11	[42	2	26
	Men	128	409	1,909	1,152	922

Demand for		Reappointment or against Dismissals	Not to Punish the Leaders of Disputes	Rejection Superintendents	Other	Total
1931	Cases	(2)182	—	25	123	984
	Men	11,128	—	1,616	7,810	63,305
1932	Cases	(8)183	—	17	100	870
	Men	9,240	—	1,070	8,806	53,338
1933	Cases	(4)78	—	27	43	598
	Men	4,271	—	4,206	2,337	46,787
1934	Cases	78	—	25	45	623
	Men	5,400	—	3,571	3,013	49,478
1935	Cases	46	—	30	53	584
	Men	2,949	—	2,687	3,489	37,650

RESULTS OF DISPUTES

	Total	Compromised	Demands Accepted	Demands Unaccepted	Defeated	Left Unsettled
1931	984	346(32.2)	223(22.7)	385(39.1)	7(0.7)	23(2.3)
1932	870	315(36.2)	205(23.6)	328(37.7)	10(1.1)	12(1.4)
1933	598	263(44.0)	123(20.6)	206(34.4)	3(0.5)	3(0.5)
1934	623	271(43.5)	163(26.2)	188(30.2)	1(0.1)	—
1935	584	276(47.3)	157(26.9)	151(25.8)	—	—

Figures in parentheses represent percentages.

Tenant Disputes

In the past 5 years tenant disputes centred round the protection of the tenant rights, or the demand of tenants for the continuation of their tenure. The difficulty for a farmer to get another farm has become much greater than that of finding work for a labourer in a city. To lose one's farm is to starve, and tenant disputes along this line are accordingly acute. In 1935 the number of tenant disputes was 6,824, an increase of 996, as compared with the previous year.

TENANT DISPUTES

1929–1934

	Number	Tenant Participants	Area Included (In ha.)
1931	3,419	81,135	59,866
1932	3,414	61,499	38,705
1933	4,000	48,073	30,343
1934	5,828	121,031	85,129
1935	6,824	113,164	70,160
1936 (estimates)	5,750	55,500	35,980 (cho)

The causes, demands and results of disputes in the past 5 years have been as follows :

TENANT DISPUTES

By Causes

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Raising tenant rents	45	60	86	114	115
Bad crops	1,171	1,057	646	1,940	2,451
High tenant rents	97	74	99	85	66
Unbalanced production cost	13	14	16	7	6
Cancellation of tenant rights	1,307	1,520	2,275	2,704	3,031
Arrears of farm-rents	174	313	485	505	734
Others	612	376	393	473	421

By Demands

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Temporary lowering of tenant rents	1,609	1,267	1,013	2,168	2,616
Permanent lowering of tenant rents	136	95	105	96	96
Against raising tenant rents	41	60	72	112	114
Continuation of tenant rights	1,085	1,367	2,097	2,421	2,862
Recognition of tenant rights	103	66	49	44	45
Compensation for lost tenant rights	116	101	120	166	123
Others	329	458	544	821	968

Results of Disputes

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Compromised	2,078	2,101	2,568	3,764	5,131
Demands accepted	417	481	523	922	381
Demands withdrawn	83	61	92	157	160
Naturally settled	26	53	56	76	82
unsettled	815	718	761	909	1,070

The above table shows that the disputes in connection with tenant rents are on the decrease, while those connected with tenant rights show a remarkable increase, and, in 1934 and 1935, disputes caused by the cancellation of tenant rights or withdrawal of land by landowners constituted over 45 per cent of the total number of disputes. Among the disputes included in the item "arrear of farm-rent" there were many which were caused by the strong attitude of landowners to cancel contracts because of the arrears.

The continuous increase of disputes on tenant rights comes from the following causes :

(1) Landowners, suffering from arrears of farm-rent, are compelled to take drastic measures, such as the withdrawing of farm-lands ; (2) The price of land is going up as one of the effects of the Rice Control Law and smaller landowners are tempted to dispose of their lands ; and (3) smaller landowners no less than tenants have been severely hit by bad crops.

Disputes in 1936 The following is a summary of the report of the Department of Agriculture and Forestry regarding tenant disputes in 1935 :

(1) Tenant Disputes in 1935. The number of tenant disputes was 5,512, an increase of 1,504 as compared with the year before. Details follow :

TENANT DISPUTES IN 1935

	In 1935	Compared with 1934
Number of disputes	5,512	+1,054
Settled	4,191	+1,194
Unsettled	1,321	— 140
No, of participants		
Landowners	20,474	1,934
Tenant peasants	76,797	13,868
Area of land under dispute		
Paddy fields	40,222.1 cho	5,204.4 cho
Dry land	4,272.5	638.5
Others	348.3	800.5
Total	44,842.9	3,765.4

Natural calamities that followed one after another in 1934 and 1935 increased disputes on the reduction and exemption of farm-rent, which had been decreasing since the fall of 1934. Accordingly the number of participants and the area of land involved in the disputes increased. There has been an increasing tendency to demand the return of tenanted lands owing to the sales of farmlands, the increase of small landowners who till their own farms and arrears of farm-rent. The number of cases which had relations with the return of tenanted lands comprised 48.8 per cent or about one-half of the total cases. The disputes in connection with bad crops numbered 1,681 or 30.5 per cent and showed an increase of 730 cases or 9.2 per cent, and disputes against the demand for payment of farm-rent increased 634 or 11.5 per cent as compared with the previous year. As in the previous year disputes in the Tohoku (north-eastern) districts were the greater in number. In the Kwansai districts disputes arising out of bad crops were many. Among the prefectures where a specially great number of disputes arose, Akita prefecture headed the others with 436 cases, followed by 393 cases in Yamanashi prefecture, 331 in Okayama prefecture, 325 in Tochigi prefecture, 238 in Miyagi prefecture and 227 in Fukuoka prefecture. Fukushima, Yamagata, Niigata and Aomori prefectures had more than 200 disputes.

(2) Mediation in Tenant Disputes. Appeals for arbitration in accordance with the Tenant Dispute Arbitration Law was 6,315 on 4,061 disputes, an increase of 895 cases.

ARBITRATION IN TENANT DISPUTES IN 1935

	Number In 1935	Increase as Compared with 1934
Number of appeals	6,315	1,862
Number of disputes concerned	4,061	895
Complainants		
Landowners	1,397	325
Tenant peasants	2,505	519
By mutual agreement	117	31
By both sides	42	20
Participants		
Landowners	8,942	1,804
Tenant peasants	22,419	2,990
Area of land involved	9,535 cho	1,032 cho

In addition to the above, cases mediated in by Tenant Officials, outside of the Tenant Dispute Arbitration Law, numbered 290, the cause of most of which was bad crops.

(3) Landowners' and Tenant-farmers' unions in 1935.

Kinds	No. of Unions	No. of Members
Tenant-farmers' unions	4,011	242,422
Landowners' unions	531	38,172
Landowners and tenant-farmers' unions	1,748	202,785

a). Tenant-Farmers' Unions

Year	No. of Unions	No. of Members
At the end of		
1932	4,650	296,839
1933	4,810	302,736
1934	4,390	276,246
1935	4,011	242,422

b). Landowners' Unions

Year	No. of Unions	No. of Members
At the end of		
1932	662	50,454
1933	686	49,645
1934	633	48,836
1935	531	38,172

c). Landowners and Tenant-Farmers' Unions

Year	No. of Associations	No. of Members
At the end of		
1932	2,098	258,613
1933	2,309	279,431
1934	2,219	271,434
1935	1,748	202,785

Trade Unions

Annual Meetings of Trade Unions. The fifth annual meeting of the Japan Trade Union Council (Nippon Rodo Kumiai Kwaigi) was held at Yokohama on October 18, 1936, Komakichi Matsuoka presiding over the 69 delegates who were present. Ten decisions were arrived at, of which the most important were "Recommendations to the Government for the establishment of a Ministry of Labour," and a "Resolution against the suppression of the trade union movement among Government factory labourers," besides the declaration of the fifth council which voiced its stand in liberalism in sympathy with the Social Mass Party.

The Japan Trade Union Council lost the Japan General Federation of Trade Unions (Nippon Rodo Kumiai So-rengo) in 1935 from among its important members and was further weakened, in September, 1936, by the prohibition of the trade union movement among labourers in Government factories belonging to the War Ministry. The Council, however, was successful in bringing about the formation of the All-Japan General Federation of Labour and the National Trade Union Federation in 1935, and added to its power by the coming in of the Japan Federation of Ceramic Trade Unions in 1936, it thus remains the largest organization of trade unions in Japan, with a membership of 9 bodies and 263,914 labourers.

The new officials and the present members of the Japan Trade Union Council are as follows :

President, Komakichi Matsuoka
Vice-president, Manryo Yonekubo
Chief-secretary, Aiichi Kamijo
Adviser, Bunji Suzuki
Executive Committee : Shinichi Yagi, Suehiro Nishio, Bunsaku Hamahashi, Choei Horiuchi, Hidekichi Koizumi, Yasutaro Kawamura, Kichitaro Numada, Eiichi Iwanaga.

	Number of Members
Members :	
Japan Seamen's Union	104,306
All-Japan General Federation of Labour	94,926
Japan Longshoremen's Union	16,488
Seamen's Association	13,086
Japan Iron Labourers' Union	12,500
Japan General League of Labour	6,068
Tokyo Electric Company Workers' Union	2,450
Japan Federation of Ceramic Trade Unions	3,500
9 bodies Total	263,914

The first meeting of the All-Japan Convention of Patriotic Trade Unions (Aikoku Rodo Kumiai Zenkoku Konwakwai) which was organized in April, 1936, by the union of all patriotic or nationalistic trade unions with reactionary ideas in general politics, was held at Tokyo on September 27, 1936. The meeting was carefully watched by the public as the Convention stands in opposition to the Japan Trade Union Council. With six planks in its platform "Propagation of the Japanese Spirit", "Demand for the Establishment of an

Industry and Labour Council," "Institution of a Law for the Control of Industry and Labour," "A Thorough Industrial Service for the Country," "Nationalization of a Labour Festival peculiar to Japan" and "Unity of the War Front of Labourers and Farmers," the meeting proceeded under the leadership of President Tsunekichi Yamazaki. There were 168 delegates from the different member unions present. Among several reports, there was one which showed the attitude of the Convention towards the Government prohibition of the trade union movement in Government factories. The standing committee had requested the authorities to allow Government factory workers to enter patriotic trade unions only, but apparently in vain.

It passed 6 resolutions, the chief being, "Nationalization of Electric Power," "Request for the Organization of a New Patriotic Political Party" in opposition to the old social and democratic parties, and "Destruction of the People's War Front." They denounced present social and democratic thought as being mere imitation of the West and contrary to Japan's national constitution, and upheld a reorganization of all trade unions in the spirit of love for the country in the true Japanese spirit.

The Council is composed of 15 unions with an aggregate membership of 80,278. Its officials and member unions are as follows :

Officials :
Standing Committee,
Kyuzo Takayama, Nisaburo Nishiyama, Harufusa Ohashi, Kenji Tsuyukubo, Kisaburo Yao, Tsunekichi Yamazaki, Shizuma Yagasaki, Tokuju Niizuma.
Treasurer, Shuji Okubo
Secretary, Rikichi Minagawa

	Number of Members
Member Unions :	
Japan Industrial Labour Club	18,550
Tokyo Electric Company's Patriotic Alliance	1,500
New Japan Seamen's Union	9,750
Japan Labour Alliance	4,400
Patriotic Labour Farmer Society	2,600
Life Defence Alliance	1,780
Japan General Federation of Trade Unions	25,258
Longshoremen's Trade Union in Central Japan	1,090
Central District Committee of the All-Japan Convention of Patriotic Trade Unions	4,300
Great Japan Council of Trade Unions	4,700
Mikawa Patriotic Workers' Union League	1,800
Imperial Lumber Industry Righteous Research Society	800
Japan Sea Society	2,750
Patriotic Lumber Workers' Society	500
Tokyo "Hanao" Industry Union	500
15 unions Total	80,278

The 15th anniversary of the All-Japan Farmers' Union was celebrated at Osaka for 3 days September 7–9, 1936. This union, which was first organized by M. Sugimoto and T. Kagawa, has the oldest history of all farmers' unions in Japan and occupies the most important position in the trade union movement among farmers. A short history of farmers' union movement in different prefectures is published.

The general meeting was held on September 8, with 399 delegates present. The meeting passed resolutions requesting, (i) the institution of tenant and tenant union laws ; (ii) opposing the proposed increase of taxes that fall on the masses ; (iii) requesting the lowering of the price of electric power, (iv) declaring the intention of the union should be to obtain the security of farmers' living by (a) better tenant and farming conditions, (b) the securing of land for practical farmers and ousting of the landowners, (c) the improvement of land and farming technique and management so as to bring about better returns to farmers, (d) organizing an all-Japan farm workers union inviting tenant and half-landed farmers and farm labourers to belong, and finally, (e) establishing a new society through the activities of the All-Japan Farmers' Union in co-operation with city proletarians.

The president of the standing committee of ten is Motojiro Sugiyama and the chief-secretary is Minoru Ito. The number of members of the union is over 40,000.

The first general meeting of the Japan Industrial Labour Club (Nippon Sangyo Rodo Club) was held at Tokyo on October 24, 1936. The club was inaugurated in June, 1933, as a patriotic organization of trade unions on the principle of oneness of capital and labour and no class antagonism, but had had no opportunity

of calling a general meeting before. At the meeting 647 representatives were present, and under the leadership of Kumazo Ishii they passed resolutions on the organization of a new patriotic political party and the establishment of an Industry and Labour Council, confirming similar decisions passed by the September meeting of the All-Japan Convention of Patriotic Trade Unions mentioned above, for this club is one of the strongest members of the Convention. The club is composed of 18 smaller unions with an aggregate membership of 18,550.

The tenth general meeting of the Japan General Federation of Trade Unions, another powerful member of the All-Japan Convention, held at Tokyo on November 15, 1936. This Federation had seceded from the Japan Trade Union Council in September, 1935, and entered the Convention, turning from liberalism to nationalism. The meeting passed 10 resolutions among which the most important was that regarding "the promotion of a political war front of patriotic trade unions." The officials of the Federation on the day of the meeting was as follows :

Officials :
President, Kyuzo Takayama
Vice-president, Bukichi Imai
Chief-secretary, Eiichi Mori
Advisers, Kesaya Yamazaki, Chukichi Kaneko
Central Executive Committee, Fusaji Ohashi, Minekichi Takahashi, Keiji Takahashi and others.
Membership :
43 unions with an aggregate membership of 29,802.

The 3rd general meeting of the All-Japan Council of Trade Unions was held at Tokyo on November 15 and 16. Among trade unions in Japan this body is most inclined to the left, and is close to the Japan Trade Union Council, their slogans being, "Institution of a Trade Union Law," "Institution of a Labour Protection Law," "War for Higher Wages," "Union of Anti-Fascist Bodies," and "War against the Increase of the Tax Burden of the Masses." At the meeting Kanju Kato presided over the 190 representatives present, who expressed their hope to be united with the Social Mass Party in political matters and with the Japan Trade Union Council in trade union matters. The All-Japan Council of Trade Unions is composed of 42 unions and about 15,000 members. Present officials are :

President of the Central Executive Committee, Kanju Kato
Chief-secretary, Hideo Yamahana
Central Executive Committee, Minoru Takano. Toraichi Nanba, Shikaichi Yasuhira, and others.

TRADE UNIONS

(Compiled by the Social Bureau)

	Unions	Members	Total Number of Labourers	Union Percentage
1024	469	228,278	4,245,619	5.3
1925	457	254,262	4,485,810	5.6
1926	488	284,739	4,641,681	6.1
1927	505	309,493	4,703,757	6.5
1928	501	308,900	4,824,780	5.3
1929	630	330,985	4,873,081	6.8
1930	712	354,312	4,713,002	7.5
1931	818	368,975	4,729,436	7.9
1932	932	377,625	4,860,276	7.8
1933	942	384,613	5,126,719	7.5
1934	965	387,964	5,764,277	6.7
1935	993	408,662	5,906,589	6.7

Farmers' Unions Farmers' unions are changing from temporary to permanent organizations, and are steadily increasing in number. According to the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry in 1921 there were only 681 tenant-farmers' unions, and their growth is shown below. The number of landowners' unions correspondingly increased from 192 in the same span of time. Opposition between the two is apparently much wider in scope and deeper in nature.

FARMERS' UNIONS

	Landowners		Tenant-farmers		Landowners and Tenant-farmers	
	Unions	Members	Unions	Members	Unions	Members
1929	655	55,138	4,156	315,771	1,986	244,943
1930	640	53,278	4,208	301,436	1,980	247,880
1931	645	50,556	4,414	306,301	2,047	255,088
1932	662	50,454	4,650	296,839	2,098	258,613
1933	686	49,645	4,810	302,736	2,309	279,431
1934	633	48,836	4,390	276,246	2,219	271,434
1935	531	38,172	4,011	242,422	1,478	202,785

Consumers' Co-operative Movement

The condition of friendly societies among labourers in 1930–1935 was as follows :

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES GOVERNMENT FACTORIES

(Amount in yen)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Membership	569,567	548,282	564,723	563,800	583,187
Income :					
Paid in, by members	17,053,441	16,470,852	16,808,180	17,741,302	18,230,827
by the Government	14,095,433	13,540,229	13,177,041	13,189,151	12,554,579
Others and Total	43,625,357	43,170,298	44,966,896	47,323,625	46,531,173
Disbursements :					
For deaths	2,818,172	2,894,267	2,950,665	2,973,018	3,124,125
For the disabled	3,718,798	3,643,227	3,641,628	1,406,067	2,453,962
For injuries and illness				1,311,389	2,549,539
Others and total	17,463,152	23,385,591	20,306,055	23,012,007	22,557,651

PRIVATE FACTORIES

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
No. of Societies	3,334	3,394	3,340	3,588	4,179	4,225
Membership	503,998	486,160	559,834	569,820	685,164	769,049

CONSUMERS' CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES ORGANIZED BY LABOURERS IN CITY AREAS

(Amount in yen)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
No. of Societies	151	163	185	177	190
Membership	137,679	138,160	189,014	199,281	212,091
Paid-up capital	2,036,970	2,036,870	2,438,509	2,633,021	2,508,405
Reserves	1,165,094	1,203,456	1,212,522	1,333,884	1,574,655
Amount of sales	19,945,144	17,188,412	18,411,896	22,119,365	25,765,738
Deposits	2,307,502	1,955,566	2,221,887	4,169,234	4,854,542
Loans	1,818,897	1,921,907	1,743,041	2,234,494	2,098,557
Balance	506,296	392,543	426,010	487,544	493,740

Business in Japan and Labour Employed in it

During the ten years between 1920 and 1930 the number of people engaged in business increased from 3,660,000 to 4,900,000, an increase of 1,240,000. This number corresponded to 52 per cent of the increase in the number of employed people. Shops and the entertaining business absorbed 1,180,000, or 95 per cent of the total increase of 1,240,000

In spite of competition from department stores many small retail shops were opened. In the entertaining business restaurants, cafés and bars in-

creased in large numbers, creating a demand for waitressess and barmaids. In the theatrical business new theatres and cinema houses have been opened giving employment to actors, dancers, etc., as well as to ushers of cloak rooms, attendants and others. In the exchange and insurance businesses, there has also been a conspicuous increase in the number of salaried employees.

In Japan the ratio of persons connected with commerce to those employed in industry is greater than in foreign countries, for example, in Great Britain 19 per cent in commerce against 40.2 per cent in manufacturing industries; in the U.S.A. 18.2 per cent against 29.4 per cent in manufacturing industries; and in Germany 13.6 per cent against 36.3 per cent in manufacturing industries. In each case the percentage of population engaged in commerce is less than one half of that in industry. On the contrary, in Japan, those engaged in commerce comprise 16 per cent of the population while those engaged in industry account for only 20 per cent. Professor Torakichi Nakanishi has given three reasons for this. Firstly, the large number of small-scale merchants in Japan; secondly the demand for consumption goods is much greater than that for production goods; and thirdly, Japanese people live in separate individual houses and do not make much use of markets.

In commerce, male labour predominates over female labour. According to the census of 1930 male labour constituted 70 per cent of the whole, with female labour predominating only in the entertaining business, in the ratio of 6 : 4.

In manufacturing, mining and transportation industries, the rate of increase of female and child labour has slackened, owing to the enforcement of the Factory Law, the rationalization of industries and the advance in general education.

The standard of education of the employees in shops is now much higher than it used to be, due to the result of the propagation of education in the country as a whole, the modernization of business, systematized shop keeping, increased difficulty of management, and the demand of customers to be served by well-informed and educated assistants.

Home Industries in Nagoya City

Home industries form a prominent part of the manufacturing industry of Japan, and if their management is improved they are bound to develop further with the expansion and progress of manufacturing industries in factories. Home work serves to supplement the income of poor families by finding work for otherwise unoccupied hands in the family, but out-work is likely to be "sweated" work and as it is considered a low-class part of the industrial system and it cannot be unconditionally encouraged, development of labour conditions in these households is imperative both socially and economically.

The fact that neither the State nor any social organ is directly giving any protection to out-workers, nor considering to give any positive assistance to them, is a matter to be most keenly regretted. Out-workers should be protected by law as are labourers in factories. Moreover, as they are mostly female workers and scattered, no unions can be organized to try and better their conditions, which, especially in case of old and juvenile workers are very bad, no restrictions being placed on their employment regardless of the kinds of work they are engaged in.

Of 13,041 out-workers on whom investigations were made, 12,375 or 94.89 per cent were women, 55 per cent of whom were between 21 and 40 years of age. There were 666 male workers, of whom more than one half were old and juvenile workers, while the rest were those whose health was below the average.

The number of households of these out-workers was 11,440 (the total number of households in Nagoya, according to the census of 1935, was 219,737), the members of these households numbered 52,700 and out-workers 13,041, so that the number of out-workers per household was 1.14. The number of job-workers classified according to sex and age was as follows :

Age	Sex	No. of Jobworkers	Total	%
Below 14	Male	157	510	1.20
	Female	353		2.70
Between 15–20	Male	55	790	0.42
	Female	735		5.64
„ 21–25	Male	31	1,489	0.24
	Female	1,458		11.18
„ 26–30	Male	14	1,924	0.11
	Female	1,910		14.65

Age	Sex	No. of Jobworkers	Total	%
Between 31–35	Male	19	1,998	0.15
	Female	1,979		15.18
„ 36–40	Male	23	1,599	0.17
	Female	1,576		2.08
„ 41–50	Male	57	2,255	0.44
	Female	2,198		16.85
„ 51–60	Male	154	1,546	1.18
	Female	1,392		10.67
Over 60	Male	156	930	1.19
	Female	774		5.94
Total	Male	666	13,041	100.00
	Female	12,375		

Kinds of Home Work There are several hundred kinds of jobwork, all of them being for the manufacture of parts and accessories and are mostly of seasonal kinds. They are jobs, mostly unhealthy and but few which appeal to women's artistic sense. Home work is classified into ten major classes subdivided into 458 kinds, the making of articles for daily use comes first with 147 kinds, and the making of personal ornaments is next with 87 kinds.

The numbers of out-workers classified according to the ten classes are as follows :

Class	No. of Kinds	%	No. of Workers	%
Personal ornaments	97	21.18	3,555	27.26
Toys and seasonal articles for amusements	34	7.42	711	5.45
Articles for daily use	147	32.10	4,181	32.06
Stationery and sporting goods	25	5.46	320	2.46
Plate-making, printing and book-binding	5	1.09	67	0.51
Artistic goods	38	8.60	2,172	16.66
Foodstuffs	19	4.15	882	6.76
Medical instruments and medicine	10	2.18	28	0.22
Chemicals	33	7.20	496	3.80
Miscellaneous work	50	10.92	629	4.82
Total	458	100.00	13,041	100.00

Wages for Out-work Wages are generally low. This is principally due to the intrinsic defect of the system and to defective management. For the supply of out-workers there are brokers who stand between the wholesale suppliers of work and the workers, the method of determining wages is irrational, and the fact that the workers are mostly women and young folks tends to make wages low.

The minimum wage for out-work in Nagoya is lower than in other cities, therefore the average monthly earnings per worker is also very low.

The total wages earned by 13,041 out-workers in a month was ¥45,632.60 as seen from the following table, which should be read in conjunction with the previous one.

Articles	Total Monthly Wages in yen	Percent of whole	Average Monthly per capita wage in yen
Personal ornaments	12,631.82	27.68	3.553
Toys and seasonal articles for amusements	2,429.36	5.32	3.417
Articles for daily use	16,707.67	36.61	3.996
Stationery and sporting goods	1,118.41	2.45	3.495
Plate-making, printing and book-binding	248.20	0.54	3.704
Artistic goods	5,800.17	12.71	2.670
Foodstuffs	2,992.24	6.56	3.393
Medical instruments and medicine	138.30	0.30	4.939
Chemicals	1,328.08	2.92	2.678
Miscellaneous works	2,238.41	4.91	3.559
Total	45,632.66	100.00	

As seen from the last column of the above table the average monthly earning of a worker was only ¥3.449 (the average in Tokyo, according to investigations made in 1935, was ¥6.73). Medical instrument makers got the highest with ¥4.939 but there were only 28 of these, of whom 12 were skilled workers.

The average daily wage was ¥0.171, male worker ¥0.214 and female worker ¥0.169. (According to investigations in Tokyo it was ¥0.27).

The rate of wage is fixed by suppliers of work, and there are wide discrepancies between the highest and lowest wages according to the ability of workers, the difficulty of the work, and acuteness of demand.

Information on wages per unit of articles is given below :

1. Variegated dyeing. The wage is fixed by a unit piece of cloth. The wages differ according to the kinds of articles, which include clothing, "obi" (Japanese sash), "furoshiki" (wrapping cloth), etc., and also according to the ability of workers. The highest is ¥9. per piece, while the lowest is as low as ¥0.02, the average being ¥0.35.

2. Glove knitting. The highest ¥0.23 a dozen and the lowest only ¥0.01, the average being ¥0.05.

3. Clog-thong making. The highest is ¥0.20 per 100 pairs and the lowest ¥0.04, the average being ¥0.09.

4. Wrapping wheat-gluten. The highest wage paid is ¥0.10 per unit of 100 pieces and the lowest ¥0.03, with an average of ¥0.04. In the wrapping of caramel 1 kwan makes a unit, and the highest wage paid is ¥0.13, the lowest ¥0.02, average ¥0.05.

5. "Kimono" making. The unit is one completed piece. The wage for this kind of work in Nagoya is low, the highest being ¥1.80 and the lowest ¥0.10 with an average of ¥0.48.

6. Papering Japanese lanterns. One lantern constitutes a unit. The unit cost differs according to the types of lanterns such as "Tahoto type", "Gifu lantern," "Akamaru", etc. The highest pay is ¥0.04 and the lowest ¥0.002, with an average of ¥0.01. During the demand season, wages increase by about 50 per cent.

In order to raise wages it would be necessary to form unions of out-workers according to their kinds of work. For this purpose, social machinery like the "Jusanjo" (public organ for supplying out-work to house wives) is perhaps the most adapted for giving proper guidance to these workers.

In the second place the wages per unit basis should be raised. In Japan, which has not benefited much by legislation for social welfare, enacting laws on minimum wages cannot be expected, therefore, though rather negative, the occasional publication of standard wages by social organizations in cooperation with trade associations may go some way towards improving present conditions.

In the third place, the workers must be taught to rationalize their work in order to increase their efficiency.

The utilization of by-products of the articles they manufacture may be considered as one way to increase the income of these workers.

Income and Expenditure The average aggregate monthly income of an out-worker's family is ¥48.628. When this is compared with the average monthly income of the poor (those who need public protection) of Nagoya, which is ¥21.07, it may appear large. However, when it is compared with the average monthly income of Japanese registered unemployed labourers, which is ¥40.62, the income of the former exceeds that of the latter only by ¥8, and shows how poorly families of out-workers are faring. By way of comparison, the average monthly income of an out-worker's family in Tokyo is ¥35.31.

The average monthly income from home work of a family in Nagoya is ¥3.989, which is only 8.2 per cent of the total income above mentioned, while that of Tokyo is ¥6.90 and constitutes 19.5 per cent of its total income.

The aggregate expenditure of families of out-workers reaches ¥551,627.05 or ¥44.722 per household.

The purposes for which the income which accrues from out-work is expended is explained by the following table :

Purposes for which income was spent	No. of Home-workers	%
For household finance	8,504	65.21
Pocket money	2,568	19.69
Savings	989	7.58
Education	456	3.50
Preparing for marriage	95	0.73
Others	429	3.28
Total	13,041	100.00

Working Hours The supply of out-work is very spasmodic, and workers are kept busy only intermittently. When they are not busy, workers spend only about two hours a day, while in busy times they spend as much as twelve hours. About 70 per cent of out-workers

work on an average between 4 and 9 hours, the average number of working days per month of these workers is 20 days. The number of those who work between five and six hours is 2,796, or 21.44 per cent; between seven and eight hours, 2,188, or 16.78 per cent; work between eight and nine hours, 1,563, or 11.99 per cent; and between four and five hours 1,447, or 11.1 per cent. Those who worked less than two hours a day numbered only 67, or 0.51 per cent.

Classified into those who work less than four hours a day, those who work between four and nine hours a day, and those who work over nine hours, the following are the figures.

Hours spent in a day	No. of out-workers	%
Less than four hours	1,898	14.55
Between four and nine hours	9,131	70.02
Over nine hours	2,012	15.43

CHAPTER XXXII

MEDICINE AND SANITATION

General

Foreign Physicians "Where there are three doctors there are two atheists" says the old proverb : yet medicine has ever been the hand-maid of religion, and it was through a Christian missionary, St. Francis Xavier, that Western bodily healing first reached the shores of Kyushu. Later, when trade between foreign countries and Japan was the privilege of Dutch merchants only, the physicians who came with them proved a priceless source of knowledge to those Japanese who travelled secretly to Nagasaki in order to learn these new things : and the Bavarian scientist, P. F. von Siebold, spent three years in Yedo instructing the Shogunate doctors in his art. Then, as the Meiji Era opened the gates to foreign learning of every sort, Western medicine entered on the flowing tide, submerging, at least for a time, the native or Chinese system that had obtained for so many centuries, and of which further mention will be found on another page. Europeans were engaged to organize hospitals and to teach medical science in the colleges ; and though Germany soon came to dominate the field in the latter case, it was an Englishman, Dr. Willis, who was the first to be officially engaged ; he and Dr. Anderson being appointed to the Military and the Naval hospitals respectively in Tokyo.

It was largely through the influence of the late Dr. Baelz, who successfully attended an Imperial patient when the latter was dangerously ill, and of Dr. Scriba, the wellknown surgeon, that Japan soon turned to Germany for almost all her medical instruction, though the late Baron Takagi, founder of the Tokyo Charity Medical College and Hospital and formerly head surgeon of the Navy, kept his institution for many years representative of the English school of medicine.

Among Americans might be mentioned Dr. A. E. Vedder, naval surgeon, Dr. Hepburn, and Dr. Eastlake, the father of American dentistry in Japan, though perhaps both were more famous as dictionary-makers ; and, more recently, the late Dr. Teusler of St. Luke's Hospital in Tsukiji.

Health Preservation Work

Control of Foods and Beverages Milk. In the following table are given the actual number at the end of 1935 of persons engaged in the milking, handling and selling or milking and selling, or handling and selling or selling of cow's milk, and of dairy firms, milk plants, and of milk-cows, as well as the quantities of milk produced during the same year :—

Persons engaged in milking, handling and selling of milk	5,868
	* 25
Persons engaged in milking and selling of milk	17,655
Persons engaged in handling and selling of milk	2,526
Persons engaged in selling of milk	3,649
Dairy firms	24,087
	* 25
Milk plants	8,435
	* 25
Number of milk-cows	94,169
	* 369
	(Litres)
Quantity of milk produced	227,086,304
	*614,937
Quantity of milk handled	143,956,732
	*406,330

Note :—* Refers to special milk. Of 25 persons who were engaged in the milking, handling and selling of special milk, 21 had some other additional business, and of 143,956,732 litres of handled milk 64,878 litres was skim milk.

GOAT'S MILK

	1935	Compared with 1934
	(Litres)	
Persons engaged in production and sale of goat-milk	560	44 (incr.)
Number of goat-milk dairies	558	43 („)
Number of milk-goats	5,942	260 („)
Quantity of goat's milk produced	1,274,958	93,142 („)

MILK-PRODUCTS

	kg
Condensed milk	1,393,630
Unsweetened condensed milk	639,205
Condensed skim milk	36,399
Powdered milk	87,806
Unsweetened powdered milk	113,991
Powdered skim milk	15,120
Butter	941,717

Snow and Ice The number of traders in snow and ice (those who gather and sell natural ice, and those who manufacture ice artificially and sell it for the purpose of consumption) at the end of 1935 and the quantity of snow and ice gathered and manufactured during the year compared with the figures for the preceding year are given in the following table :—

	1935	Compared with 1934
Traders is snow and ice	1,719 persons	14 (incr.)
Artificial ice	2,726,676,633 kg	535,872,910 („)
Natural ice	105,484,921 „	21,020,361 (decr.)
Snow	1,706,024 „	919,447 („)

Non-alcoholic Drinks The number of manufacturers of non-alcoholic drinks at the end of 1935 was 3,570, showing a decrease of 134 on the preceding year.

	1935	Compared with 1934
Mineral water and Plain Soda Water	599	13 (incr.)
Ramuné	1,883	21 (decr.)
Cider	1,598	84 („)
Lemonade (including Fruit water, Peppermint water and Cinnamon bark juice)	2,004	71 („)
Fruit Juice, Syrup and others	1,671	17 (incr.)
Acid drinks made from milk or milk-products	184	10 („)

The following table gives the quantity of non-alcoholic drinks manufactured in 1935 :—

	1935	Compared with the Preceding year
Mineral Water and Plain Soda Water	8,013,707	679,378 (incr.)
Ramune	38,434,950	5,350,662 (decr.)
Cider	56,474,509	2,768,888 (incr.)
Lemonade (including Fruit water, Peppermint and Cinnamon bark juice)	18,298,970	4,429,201 (decr.)
Fruit Juice, Syrup and others	16,211,910	2,689,486 (incr.)
Acid drinks made from milk or milk-products	1,729,480	69,636 („)

The total quantity of refreshing drinks as given above, when compared with the total population for the year, comes to 2.01 litres per inhabitant, showing a decrease of 0.08 litres compared with the preceding year.

Waterworks During the year from April, 1935 to March, 1936, sanction was given for the construction of waterworks in 20 localities. Those places which obtained permission to construct waterworks may be classified as follows :

Undertaken by	No. of Waterworks to be constructed	No. of Waterworks Completed
Cities	107	102
Towns and Villages	376	332
Towns or Villages Association	6	6
	* 1	
Prefecture	4	3
Private parties	106	99
Total	600	542

Note :—Refers to those established by the city, town or village guild.

Sewerage During the year 1935, permission to construct sewers was given to 4 places, namely ; Chiba City (Chiba prefecture), Nishinomiya City (Hyogo prefecture), Seido village (Hyogo prefecture) and Naha City (Okinawa prefecture).

Removal of Refuse The following

table gives a general idea of the removal of foul matter conducted in 1935 in 128 cities, under the provisions of the Law for the Removal of Refuse.

Number of houses within the districts in which removal of refuse was carried out		4,425,759
Removal from the above-mentioned houses	Rubbish	3,156,992,841 kg
	Dirt	627,160,963 ,,
	Night-soil	1,471,210 kl
Average amount removed per house	Rubbish	713.3 kg
	Dirt	141.7 ,,
	Night-soil	0.3 kl
Number of houses from which the holder of the land removed refuse under Art. XXI of the Regulation for Enforcement of the Law		94,422
Number of incineration plants		123
Amount of refuses burnt		1,465,655,501 kg
Water-closets with purifying equipments		14,407
Number of water-closets directly connected with the main under Art. 12 of the Regulations for the Enforcement of the City Building Law		30,087

Slaughter-houses. The total number of slaughter-houses at the end of 1935 was 703, of which 87 were established by cities, 370 by towns and villages, 43 by live-stock raisers or industrial associations, and 203 by private individuals. When compared with the figures of the preceding year, it shows an increase of 1 in city slaughter-houses, 13 in those established by towns and villages, and a decrease of 2 in those of live-stock raisers' or industrial association, and of 3 in those privately established.

Slaughtering The number of animals of various kinds slaughtered in 1935 for food purpose and its comparison with the figures for the preceding year are given here (those slaughtered in emergencies or for household use are not included) :—

Kind of Animals	No. of Cattle slaughtered in 1935 (heads)	Compared with 1934 (increase)
Cattle	292,423	2,682
Calves	30,854	1,862
Sheep	1,379	22
Goats	2,918	16
Pigs	1,018,313	79,903
Horses	89,794	494

The following table gives the weight of meat from the slaughtered animals in 1935 and a comparison with that of the preceding year :—

	Total weight		Average weight per head	
	1935 kg	Compared with 1934 kg	1935 kg	Compared with 1934 kg
Beef	55,536,173	1,774,496 (incr.)	189.92	4.37 (incr.)
Veal	1,524,603	110,981 (,,)	49.41	0.65 (,,)
Mutton	26,207	1,458 (,,)	19.00	0.76 (,,)
Goats' flesh	29,099	67 (decr.)	9.97	0.08 (decr.)
Pork	51,087,884	4,643,340 (incr.)	50.17	0.68 (incr.)
Horse-flesh	13,154,200	544,882 (,,)	146.49	5.29 (,,)

The number of cases of emergency slaughter in 1935 (slaughtered outside slaughter-house without formal steps being taken on account of injuries or helpless condition by accident, difficulty of delivery, puerperal anesthesia, or acute tympanitis) was 1,258 of cattle, 61 of calves, 270 of pigs and 902 of horses and the number slaughtered in the same year for private use consisted of 347 calves, 70 sheep, 733 goats and 20,388 pigs.

Inspection of Imported Meat The total amount of imported meat in 1935 at the ports of Yokohama, Tsuruga, Osaka, Kobé, Ujina, Shimonoseki, Moji, Nagasaki and Izuhara was 12,212,441 kilogrammes, of which 3 kilogrammes were condemned. Compared with the preceding year, the amount of meat inspected increased by 117,214 kilogrammes, and condemned meat decreased by 82 kilogrammes. Classified by the kinds of meat, it was as follows :—

	The weight of meat inspected (in kg)	The weight of meat condemned (in kg)	Ratio of condemned meat (%)
Fresh Beef	932,932	—	—
Chilled Beef	6,740,268	—	—
Frozen Beef	4,497,530	3	0.00
Mutton	39,945	—	—
Pork	1,766	—	—

Poisoning The total number of persons poisoned in 1935 was 14,699 (decrease of 244 on the preceding year), of which 8,434 (57.38 per cent) took poison intentionally, 6,236 (42.42 per cent) by accident, and 29 (0.20 per cent) were poisoned by others; and of these persons poisoned 3,153 died, of which 2,795 were those who took poison intentionally, 345 those poisoned by accident, and 13 those poisoned by others, so that 33.14 per cent of those who took poison intentionally died, 5.53 per cent of those accidentally poisoned also died, and 44.83 per cent of those who were poisoned by others also succumbed. Of poisonous substance the frequently used by suicides and poisoning by others were chemicals, especially a rat-poison containing phosphorus; accidental poisoning was mostly due to eating poisonous animals, plants or putrefied food.

Burials and Cremations The total number of burial-grounds at the end of 1935 was 978,040 and their total area was 23,021 hectare, making the average area of burial-ground 0.02 hectre, and the total number of crematoria at the end of the same year was 34,718 in which 658,247 bodies were cremated during the year, so that a crematorium burnt on an average 18.96 bodies. In the same year 625,968 bodies were buried uncremated so that those cremated came to 51.3 per cent and those buried uncremated to 48.7 per cent of the total number of burials, which, when compared with the percentage for 1934 showed a decrease of 0.3 per cent in those cremated.

Insane Persons At the end of 1935, the total number of insane persons was 83,365, showing an increase of 4,230 on the figures for the preceding year. Its ratio to the population of the country in that year was 12.04 per 10,000 of population, which, when compared with the preceding year, shows an increase of 0.44.

	Actual Numbers			Percentage		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Admitted into Insane Asylums under the Law concerning Asylums for the Insane	1,399	749	2,148	2.65	2.45	2.58
Admitted into Substitute Asylums under the same Law	2,054	1,237	3,291	3.89	4.04	3.95
Under Custody in the Asylums or Hospital	3,228	1,835	5,063	6.12	6.00	6.07
Under Custody in other places	5,860	1,328	7,188	11.10	4.34	8.62
Under Temporary Custody	115	36	151	0.22	0.12	0.18
Not requiring Admission or Custody	40,114	25,410	65,524	76.02	83.05	78.60
Total	52,770	30,595	83,365	100.00	100.00	100.00

Tuberculosis The following table shows the results of health examinations conducted in 1935 by the prefectural governments, in accordance with the provision of Art. IV, Clause I of the Law for the Prevention of Tuberculosis:

	1935	Compared with the preceding year (incr.)
Estimated number of persons requiring health examination	1,998,544	120,505
Number of persons examined	1,676,760	113,492
	*84,393	*1,959
Number of persons diagnosed as tuberculosis patients	538	99
Ratio of the patients per 1,000 of the examined	0.31	0.04
Number of persons ordered to suspend from work	113	50

Note:—The figures marked with asterisk are those for whom more than two examinations were made.

Trachoma The following table shows the result of examinations conducted by the prefectural government during 1935, in accordance with provision of Art. 4, clause 1 of the Law for the Prevention of Trachoma :—

	1935	Compared with preceding year.
Number of persons examined	5,981,741	300,607 (incr.)
	*528,152	*419,579 (decr.)
Number of trachoma cases:		
Severe cases	33,820	3,814 („)
Mild cases	376,994	47,240 („)
Suspected cases	116,533	2,916 („)
Total	527,347	53,970 („)
Ratio of cases per 100 persons examined	8.10	0.67 („)
Number of patients ordered to refrain from work	113	114 („)

Note:—The figures marked with asterisk are those for whom more than two examinations were made.

Health Examination of Prostitutes The prostitute quarters actually existing at the end of 1935 (the term prostitute quarters does not here and hereinafter necessarily mean segregated quarters, but is also intended for convenience' sake to include all places where licensed prostitutes have been permitted to carry on their trade) numbered 411, being a decrease of 11 from the preceding year. The daily average during the year of licensed prostitutes in these quarters was 43,709, showing a decrease of 2,171 from the preceding year.

The number of health-examination offices for these prostitutes was 384, showing a decrease of 29 on the preceding year, and the total number of examination made in these offices was 2,645,374, showing a decrease of 73,445 from the preceding year, and in 54,821 cases the prostitutes were found diseased. The ratio of cases of diseases to the total number examined was 2.07 per cent, i. e. 0.02 per cent higher than in the preceding year. The number of hospitals for admitting these diseased prostitutes (including places for treatment lacking hospital accomodations) was 142, and the average number of times a prostitute was admitted into hospital during the year was 1.25 or 0.04 more in the preceding year.

The following table gives the number, classified according to diseases, of prostitutes in the whole country who were during the year found to be diseased upon examination.

	No. of cases in 1935	Ratio in percentage to the total number of cases of diseases			
		1935	1934	1933	1932
Syphilis	3,479	6.35	6.31	6.92	7.02
Gonorrhoea	24,751 (1,020)	47.01	48.46	48.03	49.99
Chancroid	15,718 (2,033)	32.38	32.19	30.84	30.08
Ulceration	3,674 (1,427)	9.30	8.01	7.66	7.14
Infectious skin-diseases	130 (40)	0.31	0.44	0.49	0.41
Tuberculosis	12 (3)	0.03	0.01	0.02	0.04
Leprosy	— (—)	—	—	—	—
Trachoma	785 (118)	1.65	2.04	2.23	2.96
Other diseases	6,272 (228)	11.86	10.75	10.58	10.98
Total	54,821				

Note:—In the percentage of cases of diseases, the diseases which are found in one and the same person are taken as separate cases, so that their total exceeds 100.

Cholera In 1935, there was no cases of cholera.

Dysentery, Including Ekiri The total number of cases of dysentery in 1935 was 48,968 and there were 15,066 deaths therefrom, an increase of 6,016 cases and 276 deaths over the preceding year. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 7.07 cases and 2.18 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, an increase of 0.77 cases and 0.01 deaths.

The total number of cases of dysentery which broke out in urban districts only

during the year under review was 31,148 which corresponds to 63.61 per cent of the total number of dysentery cases throughout the country. Of these, there were 8,153 deaths. The rates of cases and deaths per 10,000 of urban population were 13.72 and 3.59 respectively, showing, when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 1.27 and a decrease of 0.08.

Typhoid Fever The total number of cases of typhoid fever in 1935 was 38,357 with 6,843 deaths, showing a decrease of 4,238 cases and 188 deaths over the preceding year. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 5.54 cases and 0.99 deaths per 10.000 inhabitants, a decrease of 0.71 cases and 0.14 deaths.

The total number of cases of typhoid fever reported for urban districts only, during the year was 17,496 being 45.61 per cent of cases for the whole country, and 3,190 deaths.

The ratios of the cases and deaths per 10,000 urban population was 7.71 and 1.41 respectively, a decrease of 1.28 cases and 0.33 deaths.

Paratyphoid Fever The total number of cases of paratyphoid fever in 1935 was 4,207 of which 270 ended fatally, a decrease of 275 cases and 70 deaths.

The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 0.61 cases and 0.04 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, decrease of 0.05 cases and 0.01 deaths.

The total number of cases of paratyphoid fever reported for urban districts only in 1935 was 1,933 being 45.95 per cent of the total number of cases for the whole country, and the deaths therefrom numbered 114.

The ratios of cases and deaths per 10,000 of urban population was 0.85 and 0.05 respectively, an increase of 0.02 and 0.01.

Smallpox In 1935 smallpox broke out in Osaka and other 14 prefectures, the total number of cases being 113 with 15 deaths. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the total population in the same year were 0.02 cases and 0.00 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants. The largest number of cases occurred in Gifu prefecture, where there were 46 cases with 5 deaths : in the other prefectures the number of cases was less than 25. (In 1934 there were 320 cases with 36 deaths). The total number of cases of smallpox in urban districts was 43 (7 deaths), corresponding to 38.05 per cent, of the total number of cases for the whole country, and the ratio to 10,000 of urban population shows 0.02 cases and 0.00 deaths.

Typhus In 1935, 16 cases of typhus broke out in the prefecture of Tokyo (with 1 death) (inurban district) and one each in Hyogo and Yamaguchi prefectures (in urban district). (There were 26 cases in 1934 with 3 deaths).

Scarlet Fever The total number of cases of scarlet fever in 1935 was 16,509 with 513 deaths, a decrease of 179 cases and increase of 4 deaths.

The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 2.38 cases and 0.07 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants. Compared with the preceding year, there was a decrease of 0.07 in the ratio of cases while the death-rate remained stationary.

Diphtheria The total number of cases of diphtheria in 1935 was 28,200 with 4,373 deaths, a decrease of 1,909 cases and 717 deaths.

The proportion of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year was 4.07 cases and 0.63 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, a decrease of 0.35 cases and 0.12 deaths.

Epidemic Cerebrospinal Meningitis The total number of cases of epidemic cerebrospinal meningitis in 1935 was 1,304 of which 739 ended fatally, an increase of 117 cases and 82 deaths. The proportion of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year was 0.19 cases and 0.11 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, an increase of 0.02 cases and 0.01 deaths over the preceding year.

Plague No cases of plague occurred in 1935.

The following table gives the statistics of cholera and four other infectious diseases in the country during the fifty years since 1886.

FIFTY YEARS OF INFECTIOUS DISEASES

	Cholera		Dysentery		Typhoid Fever		Smallpox		Diphtheria	
	Cases per 10,000 Inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes	Cases per 10,000 Inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes	Cases per 10,000 Inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes	Cases per 10,000 Inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes	Cases per 10,000 Inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes
1886	40.15	14.43	6.26	7.22	17.05	14.57	18.89	19.71	0.84	1.55
1887	0.31	0.87	4.09	5.65	12.01	13.02	10.07	13.22	0.69	1.90
1888	0.20	0.61	6.69	8.69	10.87	12.18	1.01	1.13	0.64	1.92

	Cholera		Dysentery		Typhoid Fever		Smallpox		Diphtheria	
	Cases per 10,000 Inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes	Cases per 10,000 Inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes	Cases per 10,000 Inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes	Cases per 10,000 Inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes	Cases per 10,000 Inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes
1889	0.18	0.53	5.62	7.30	8.81	10.54	0.33	0.40	0.66	1.83
1890	11.23	42.91	10.41	10.60	8.48	10.31	0.07	0.03	0.60	1.75
1891	2.70	9.10	11.23	13.15	10.65	11.28	0.87	0.85	0.83	2.32
1892	0.21	0.55	16.99	18.76	8.55	9.50	8.10	9.36	1.05	2.82
1893	0.15	0.39	39.78	44.11	8.10	8.74	9.96	12.66	1.36	3.42
1894	0.13	0.37	36.57	44.91	8.64	9.49	2.93	3.94	1.25	3.42
1895	12.81	43.49	12.24	18.68	8.60	9.83	0.30	0.31	1.42	3.54
1896	0.34	1.00	19.54	14.72	9.67	10.14	2.44	3.75	1.96	3.64
1897	0.20	0.56	20.54	26.49	6.07	6.69	9.46	14.03	3.49	6.38
1898	0.15	0.42	20.81	25.12	5.79	6.39	0.40	0.41	4.50	7.24
1899	0.19	0.53	24.59	25.82	6.26	7.01	0.27	0.27	4.76	7.24
1900	0.08	0.25	10.34	11.16	5.33	5.89	0.02	0.00	4.00	6.22
1901	0.02	0.07	10.97	11.68	5.33	5.80	0.02	0.00	3.29	5.03
1902	2.92	9.62	8.09	8.80	4.61	5.01	0.01	0.01	3.28	4.50
1903	0.03	0.10	6.50	7.74	4.04	4.61	0.02	0.01	2.99	4.48
1904	0.00	0.00	4.82	5.41	4.16	4.84	0.25	0.25	2.68	3.89
1905	—	—	7.93	8.57	4.78	5.25	0.06	0.00	2.77	3.86
1906	—	—	4.59	5.38	5.19	6.17	0.10	0.11	2.92	4.38
1907	0.74	2.48	5.08	5.85	5.29	5.59	0.21	0.43	3.01	4.22
1908	0.13	0.39	6.38	7.62	4.76	5.18	3.51	5.67	3.46	4.83
1909	0.07	0.02	5.61	6.22	5.03	4.97	0.01	0.00	3.63	4.65
1910	0.56	1.90	6.33	6.85	6.98	7.35	0.02	0.01	3.78	4.92
1911	0.00	0.00	5.37	5.51	6.68	6.26	0.04	0.03	3.93	4.79
1912	0.53	1.62	4.96	5.52	6.09	6.06	0.00	0.00	3.72	4.59
1913	0.01	0.02	3.20	3.59	5.29	5.30	0.02	0.04	3.65	4.88
1914	0.00	0.36	4.87	5.19	6.61	6.01	0.09	0.10	3.42	4.16
1915	—	—	3.88	3.99	6.70	6.52	0.00	0.00	3.62	4.31
1916	1.88	5.27	4.07	3.83	7.56	7.07	0.05	0.04	2.94	3.33
1917	0.16	0.45	2.67	2.63	6.28	6.05	0.91	0.97	3.12	3.65
1918	—	—	2.46	1.89	7.59	6.61	0.26	0.19	2.77	2.58
1919	0.52	2.09	2.30	1.98	9.72	6.92	0.72	0.57	2.54	2.30
1920	0.89	2.16	2.27	2.05	9.63	7.15	0.57	0.58	2.71	2.38
1921	0.01	0.01	2.19	2.28	8.83	8.25	0.16	0.16	2.56	2.72
1922	0.13	0.22	2.67	2.12	9.08	5.70	0.12	0.06	2.38	1.65
1923	0.00	0.00	3.47	5.53	9.00	8.53	0.33	0.29	2.18	2.33
1924	—	—	3.15	5.77	9.87	10.04	0.29	0.21	2.22	2.53
1925	0.10	0.31	2.46	5.49	7.66	7.51	0.07	0.07	2.32	2.79
1926	0.00	0.01	2.83	6.63	7.26	7.65	0.21	0.15	2.26	2.89
1927	0.00	0.00	3.49	7.81	6.12	6.04	0.06	0.08	2.48	3.04
1928	0.00	0.00	4.06	9.06	6.77	6.63	0.12	0.09	2.83	3.30
1929	0.03	0.09	4.81	10.02	5.93	5.94	0.02	0.01	3.13	3.60
1930	—	—	4.61	10.57	6.43	6.68	0.00	0.00	2.88	3.25
1931	—	—	4.54	9.93	5.85	6.12	0.00	0.00	3.23	3.54
1932	—	—	4.86	10.95	5.36	5.53	0.05	0.04	3.30	3.71
1933	—	—	5.66	11.91	5.73	6.06	0.06	0.05	4.25	4.42
1934	—	—	6.30	11.98	6.25	6.26	0.05	0.03	4.42	4.12
1935	—	—	7.07	12.97	5.54	5.89	0.02	0.01	4.07	3.76

Note:—Among the number of dysentery since 1922 (October) includes ekiri.

Vaccination The total number of 1st period vaccinations performed in 1935 was 1,977,440, of which 1,854,419 showed positive results and 66,088 negative while 56,933 were not examined as to the result. Compared with the figures of the preceding year, there was a decrease of 61, 072 in the total number of vaccinations, of 36,731 in the number of positive vaccination, of 21,855 in negative vaccinations, and of 2,486 in the cases of which result was not examined.

The total number of 2nd period vaccinations was 2,004,672 of which 1,188,-111 proved positive, 788,094 negative while 28,467 were not examined of their

result, showing, compared with the figures of the preceding year, a decrease of 2,220 in the total number vaccinated, and 3,033 in the positive takes, and an increase of 4,457 in the negative, and a decrease of 3,644 in the number of unexamined cases.

The following table gives the number of public and private vaccinations both for the first and second times in each period :—

			1st Time Vaccination	2nd Time Vaccination
First Period	Public Vaccination	Positive	1,737,482	63,936
		Negative	47,781	16,974
		Not yet examined	51,654	5,279
		Total	1,836,917	86,189
	Private Vaccination	Positive	52,235	766
		Negative	912	421
		Total	53,147	1,187

			1st Time Vaccination	2nd Time Vaccination
Second Period	Public Vaccination	Positive	1,094,575	89,960
		Negative	495,456	289,999
		Not yet examined	23,731	4,736
		Total	1,613,762	384,695
	Private Vaccination	Positive	3,082	494
		Negative	1,747	892
		Total	4,829	1,386

The special vaccinations were carried out in 1935 in Iwate and 20 other prefectures, and the total number of persons vaccinated was 2,116,354.

Port Quarantine The total number of vessels inspected in 1935 by harbour offices of the Custom Houses and temporary port quarantine stations was 21,283 Japanese vessels (with a total tonnage of 72,040,600) and 4,860 foreign vessels (with a total tonnage of 34,040,646), making a total of 26,143 vessels (with a total tonnage of 106,081,246). The total number of persons inspected was 2,506,372 of which members of ship's crews numbered 1,467,400 and passengers 1,038,972. Compared with the corresponding figures of the preceding year, the number of vessels increased by 2,638 and that of crews and passengers by 121,626. By these inspections were found 4 persons suffering from smallpox, one from scarlet-fever and 31 from other notifiable infectious diseases (with 1 death), making a total of 36 cases (1 death). Compared with the preceding year, this shows a decrease of 5 cases with the same number of death.

Of the above mentioned vessels inspected, 4 vessels and 135 persons thereon were subjected to disinfection. When compared with the preceding year, there was a decrease of 10 vessels and 128 persons. The vessels subjected to detention numbered 2, being a decrease of 7 when compared with the preceding year. The destruction of rats and insects was carried out on 1,483 vessels and 7,350 rats were caught, which, compared with the preceding year, shows an increase of 186 in the number of vessels and of 1,343 in that of rats.

Rabies In 1935, there was only one case of rabies in men which occurred in Fukuoka prefecture. The number of rabid dogs reported in 1935 was 7 in Tokyo prefecture and 4 in Fukuoka prefecture, bringing a total to 11, the same figures with the preceding year. In 1935 there was no rabid animal other than dogs. The number of persons bitten by rabid dogs in 1935 was 33, showing an increase of 24 on the preceding year. The number of persons who had preventive injection for rabies in 1935 was 3,600, showing an increase of 706 on the preceding year. Of the above number, 33 were those who had been bitten by rabid dogs, and 3,567 by animals suspected of rabies.

Bacteriological Laboratories The number of bacteriological laboratories at the end of 1935 was 210, of which 147 were established by prefectural governments, 23 by cities, and 40 by private individuals, showing an increase of 6 in the total number on the figures of the the preceding year.

The number of bacteriological examinations made by these laboratories in 1935 were 3,674,206 of which those connected with the notifiable infectious diseases were 3,338,599 and those not connected therewith 335,607, an incease of 99,288 in the total number of examinations over the preceding year.

Medical Affairs

Medical Practitioners The total number of medical licences issued in 1935

was 3,313 (besides, 12 to foreigners), showing a decrease, compared with the preceding year, of 8 licences (the number issued to foreigners being decreased by 5). In the following table is given the number of persons to whom licences were issued, classified and compared with the preceding year's figures :

	1935	Compared with preceding year
Graduates of universities	1,763	71 (incr.)
Completed course in Government or public colleges of medicine	225	14 (decr.)
Completed course in approved private colleges of medicine	1,316	61 („)
Completed course in foreign colleges (including examination)	8	—
Passed examination	1	4 (decr.)
Total	3,313	8 („)

The total number of medical practitioners at the end of 1935 was 57,581 (besides 32 foreigners), showing an increase on the preceding year of 2,565 practitioners (an increase of 1 among foreigners). The following table gives the number of medical practitioners at the end of 1935 classified and in percentage (the percentages for the preceding four years are also given for comparison) :

	At the end of 1935	Percentage 1935	1934	1933	1932	1931
Graduates of universities	18,822	32.69	30.96	29.51	27.09	25.16
Completed course in Government, public or approved private colleges of medicine	27,992	48.61	48.80	48.33	48.65	48.94
Completed course in foreign schools (including examination)	68	0.12	0.12	0.12	0.12	0.13
Passed examination	10,071	17.49	18.82	20.42	22.27	23.43
Licensed on account of official career	33	0.06	0.07	0.09	0.11	0.14
In practice from before promulgation of the Law of Medical Practitioners	520	0.90	1.08	1.36	1.55	1.96
In practice within limited districts	75	0.13	0.15	0.17	0.21	0.24
Total	57,581	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Of the above total number, those who actually engage in the diagnosis and treatment of patients were 51,597 being 89.61 per cent of the total.

The total number of those medical practitioners who were actually engaged in the diagnosis and treatment of patients at the end of 1935 was at the rate of 7.45 practitioners per 10,000 inhabitants (1,342 inhabitants per physician). The ratio of practitioners per 10,000 inhabitants in the prefectures, in Tokyo prefecture had the highest ratio of 14.84 practitioners, followed by Kyoto with 14.23, Osaka with 10.29, Ishikawa with 10.22 and Hyogo with 8.23 ; and prefectures of Miyagi, Chiba, Tokushima, Okayama and Shimane had also high ratio of medical practitioners. The prefecture with the smallest ratio was Okinawa which had 3.14, followed by Fukushima with 4.50, Ibaraki with 4.53 Iwate with 4.68 and Yamagata with 4.86 ; and other prefectures with low ratios were Miyazaki, Saitama, Tochigi, Nagano, Akita and Nara.

As to the distribution of medical practitioners between urban and rural districts, there were 12.72 practitioners per 10,000 of population in the urban districts while the corresponding ratio was 4.88 for rural distriicts.

Dental Surgeons The total number of licences issued to dental surgeons in 1935 was 1,219, being an increase of 65 when compared with the preceding year. In the following table is given the number of persons to whom the licences were issued in 1935, classified and compared with the preceding year's figures :

	1935	Compared with preceding year
Completed course in Government or approved private dental colleges	1,126	73 (incr.)
Completed course in foreign schools (including those who passed examination)	6	4 (,,)
Passed examination	87	12 (decr.)
Total	1,219	65 (incr.)

The total number of dental surgeons at the end of 1935 was 20,010 (besides three foreigners), showing an increase on the preceding year of 1,012 (number of foreigners remained stationary); the following table gives the number classified and in percentage (the percentage for the preceding years are also given for comparison) :—

	At the end of 1935	Percentage 1935	1934	1933	1932	1931
Completed course in Government or approved private dental colleges	11,206	56.00	53.62	50.82	48.14	44.57
Completed course in foreign schools (including examination)	79	0.40	0.41	0.43	0.43	0.45
Passed examination	8,722	43.59	45.95	48.72	51.40	54.94
In practice from the time before the promulgation of the Law of Dental Surgeons	3	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.04
Total	20,010	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Of the above number those who were actually engaged in practice numbered 18,428 which corresponds to 92.09 per cent of the total number of dental surgeons.

The total number of those dental surgeons who were actually in practice was at the rate of 2,66 per 10,000 of the population, and if we examine the ratio of the dental surgeons in prefectures, we find that the highest ratio was that of Tokyo prefecture with 6.29 per 10,000 inhabitants, followed by Osaka with 3.66, Kanagawa with 3.42, Aichi with 2.79, Kyoto with 2.77 and Hyogo with 2.73; the lowest ratio was that of Okinawa which was 0.59, followed by Iwate with 1.17, Kagoshima with 1.38, and Yamagata with 1.39; and among the low ratios were those of Toyama, Miyazaki, Shiga, Akita, Fukui, Fukushima, Miyagi, Aomori and Niigata.

As to the distribution of dental surgeons in cities and districts of the country the ratio was 4.84 for cities and 1.60 for country districts per 10,000 inhabitants.

At the end of 1935, besides the above mentioned number of dental surgeons, there were 89 medical practitioners who specialized in dentistry.

Pharmacists The total number of pharmacist's licences issued in 1935 was 1,681 (besides one foreigner), showing an increase, when compared with the preceding year, of 260 licences. In the following table is given the number of persons to whom licences were issued in 1935, classified and compared with the preceding year's figures :—

	1935	Compared with preceding year
Graduates of universities	18	7 (decr.)
Completed course in Government or public colleges of pharmacology	*384	86 (incr.)
Completed course in approved private school of pharmacology	1,229	170 (,,)
Completed course in foreign school (including examination)	1	2 (decr.)
Passed examination	49	12 (incr.)
Total	1,681	259 (,,)

Note:—Including the graduates from pharmacological department attached to government or public medical universities.

The total number of pharmacists at the end of 1935 was 24,957 (besides 1 foreigner), showing an increase, compared with the preceding year's figures, of 1,674 (the number of foreigners remained stationary); and the following table gives the number classified and in percentage (the percentages for the preceding four years are also given for comparison) :—

	No. at the end of 1935	Percentage 1935	1934	1933	1932	1931
Graduated from universities	305	1.22	1.23	1.32	1.21	1.27
Completed course in government, or public or private approved colleges of pharmacology	*14,061	56.34	53.26	50.02	46.57	42.46
Completed course in foreign school (including examinations)	33	0.13	0.13	0.14	0.12	0.13
Passed examination (including examination under former regulations)	10,558	42.31	45.38	48.52	52.10	56.14
Total	24,957	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Note:—*Including graduates from pharmacological department of the government or public medical college or from the pharmacological department attached to the government or public medical universities.

Of these pharmacists, (1) the number of practising pharmacists (those who were engaged in the dispensing of medicines in the pharmacies, those who were engaged in the sale of medicines and those who were engaged in the manufacture of medicines) was 16,440 (2) the number of those who being employed by hospitals or other dispensaries, were engaged in the dispencing of medicines was 2,791 and (3) those who were exclusively engaged in the sale of patent medicines numbered 1,551. Those coming under (1) corresponds to 65.87 per cent of the total number of pharmicists while (2) and (3) represented 11.18 and 6.21 per cent respectively.

Phamacies and Dealers in Medicines Pharmacies. The number of pharmacies at the end of 1935 was 12,303 of which 12,130 were run by pharmacists and 173 by non-pharmacists, showing an increase, when compared with the preceding year, of 287 pharmacies run by the pharmacists and 28 pharmacies managed by non-pharmacists.

Dealers in Medicines. The total number of persons engaged in the sale of medicines at the end of 1935 was 30,237 showing an increase of 619 persons on the preceding year; among them, the qualified pharmacists who were engaged in the sale of medicines without opening pharmacies numbered 735 and druggists 29,502. Of these druggists those who were qualified to deal in approved medicines numbered 4,307, of which those employing pharmacists were 2,075, those coming under the provisions of Art. XXXVII, Item 4 of the "Regulations for the Trade in Medicines and the Handling Thereof" were 119 and those coming under the second clause of the supplementary provisions of the same regulations were 2,113.

Medicine-Manufacturers. The total number of medicine-manufacturers at the end of 1935 was 4,083, being an increase of 116 over the preceding year. Of these manufacturers, 1,282 were pharmacists, 1,027 those employed pharmacists, and 1,774 neither pharmacists nor those employing pharmacists.

Midwives The total number of midwives at the end of 1935 was 59,560 (besides two foreigners), showing an increase of 1,290 (no change in the number of foreigner) over the preceding year; they may be classified as 4,955 persons who completed the course in approved schools or training institutes, 51,157 who passed the examination, and 2,989 who have been in practice from time prior to the operation of the Midwives Regulations, and 459 who practise in limited districts.

Distribution of Midwives The total number of midwives was at the ratio of 8.60 per 10,000 inhabitants, being an increase of 0.06 on the preceding year as to the distribution of midwives between urban and rural districts of the country, the ratio was 11.45 in the urban districts and 7.21 in the rural districts per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, when compared with the ratio in the preceding year, a decrease of 0.31 in the urban districts and an increase of 0.16 in the rural districts.

Nurses The total number at the end of 1935 of nurses who had obtained licence from the prefectural offices was 106,857 (of which 3,889 were under-nurses) showing an increase of 3,936 on the preceding year (the number of under-nurses decreased by 335). The ratio of the above total number to 10,000 of population was 15.43, showing an increase of 0.34 on the corresponding figures of the preceding year.

The number of male nurses at the end of 1935 who had obtained licences from the prefectural offices was 322, showing an increase of 17 on the figures of the preceding year.

Acupuncture, Moxicautery, and Massage The following table gives the number of persons engaged in acupuncture, moxicautery, and massage who had obtained licences from the prefectural offices at the end of 1935.

	Not Blind			Blind		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Acupuncture	2,559	579	3,138	1,541	326	1,867
	*15,783	*2,986	*18,769	*10,443	*2,146	*12,589
Moxicautery	3,168	904	4,072	705	153	858
	*15,956	*3,154	*19,110	*7,506	*1,439	*8,945
Massage	7,996	3,714	11,710	15,205	9,295	24,500
	*14,236	*4,850	*19,086	*23,165	*10,960	*34,125
Acupuncture and Moxicautery	7,527	1,391	8,918	1,372	252	1,624
Acupuncture and Massage	979	277	1,256	2,531	631	3,162
Moxicautery and Massage	543	120	663	430	97	527
Acupuncture, Moxicautery and Massage	4,718	739	5,457	4,999	937	5,936
Total	27,490	7,724	35,214	26,783	11,691	38,474

Note:—Figures marked with* includes not only those persons who specialize in the calling given in the heading, but also those who carry some other business additionally.

Among the above mentioned massagists there were 2,086 who were engaged in the treatment of contusion by means of Judo.

Public Hospitals (Charity Hospitals, Tuberculosis Hospitals, Insane Asylums, Leprosaria, Infectious Diseases Hospitals, and Hospitals for Prostitutes excluded). At the end of 1935 there were 100 public general hospitals, and 1 public internal disease hospital, being a decrease of one hospital on the preceding year.

Accommodation for patients	In cities	In towns	In villages	Total
More than 10	4	15	5	24
,, 30	5	10	—	15
,, 50	11	14	—	25
,, 100	36	1	—	37
Total	56	40	5	101

In the following table are given the capacity for admitting the patients and the number of patients admitted in 1935 to these hospitals :

Accommodations	10,192
Of the above Capacity:	
For infectious diseases	751
,, tuberculosis	277
Number of Patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	4,392
Admitted this year	100,175
Discharged	91,479
Died in hospital	8,491
At the end of the year	4,497
Aggregate number of In-patients treated each day	2,304,454
Average capacity per hospital	100.91
Average number of in-patients per hospital	1,035.32
Average number of days a patient stayed in hospital	22.04

Private Hospitals (Charity Hospitals, Tuberculosis Hospitals, Insane Asylums and Leprosaria excluded.) The total number of private hospitals at the end of 1935 was 2,811 (of which 88 had been established by public juridical persons and 9 by foreigners), which when compared with the figures for the preceding year, showed an increase of 86 hospitals.

The following table gives the number of these hospitals in urban and rural districts according to their capacity for admitting patients :

Accommodation for Patients	Cities	Towns	Villages	Total
More than 10	1,257	621	221	2,099
,, 30	259	104	41	404
,, 50	154	43	22	219
,, 100	72	13	4	89
Total	1,742	781	288	2,811

In the following table are given the number of private hospitals classified according to the diseases they treat:

	Cities	Towns	Villages	Total
General	827	591	206	1,624
Medical cases	193	48	25	266
Surgical cases	184	34	10	228
Paediatrics	61	3	—	64
Ophthalmology	113	38	28	179
Obstetrics and gynaecology	195	48	17	260
Dermatology and venereal and Gentio-urinary Diseases	70	6	—	76
Ear, nose and throat diseases	94	12	2	108
Dental surgery	1	—	—	1
Others	4	1	—	5
Total	1,742	781	288	2,811

In the following table are given the figures in connection with capacity of admitting patients and the number of patients etc. in the private hospitals:

Accommodations	80,032
Of the above:	
For Infectious Diseases	4,395
„ Tuberculosis	2,806
Number of In-Patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	27,154
Admitted in 1935	619,453
Left the Hospital	581,314
Died in Hospital	35,249
At the end of 1935	30,044
Aggregate number of In-patients treated each day	11,215,175
Average capacity per hospital	28.47
Average number of in-patients per hospital	230,03
Average number of days a patient stayed in hospital	17,34

crease of two public and thirteen private ers), consisting of four Government,

Charity Hospitals. (Tuberculosis Hospitals, Leprosaria and Insane Asylums excluded). The total number of public and private charity hospitals at the end of 1935 was 34, of which 8 were public and 26 private hospitals, thus compared with the preceding year the number of public hospitals remained stationary while the private hospitals increased by 4.

The following table gives the capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1935.

Accommodations	3,365
Number of In-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	2,359 *92
Admitted in 1935	28,127 *3,721
Left the Hospital	24,446 *3,523
Died in Hospital	3,417 *167
At the end of 1935	2,623 *123
Aggregate number of In-patients treated each day	889,993 *48,435
Average capacity per hospital	98.97
Average number of in-patients per hospital	1,008.79
Average number of days a patient stayed in hospital	27.36
Percentage of paying patients	11.12%

* indicates the number of paying patients.

Insane Asylums The total number of public and private insane asylums at the end of 1935 was 143, consisting of 10 public and 133 private asylums, showing an increase over the preceding year of one public and twelve private asylums.

The following table gives their admitting capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1935.

Accommodations	18,981
Number of in-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	8,158 *5,728
Admitted in 1935	4,517 *13,520
Left the asylum	2,295 *11,518
Died in asylum	1,498 *1,231
At the end of 1935	8,882 *6,499
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	3,005,073 *2,396,912

Average capacity per asylum	132.73
Average number of in-patients per Asylum	223.24
Average number of days a patient stayed in asylum	169.22
Percentage of paying patients	60.30%

* Indicates the number of paying patients.

Tuberculosis Hospitals The total number of public and private tuberculosis hospitals at the end of 1935 were 106 (three of which had been established by foreigners), consisting of 27 public and 79 private hospitals, showing an increase of two public and thirteen private hospitals over the preceding year.

The following table gives the admitting capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1935.

Accommodations	8,101
Number of In-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	3,785
	*2,157
Admitted in 1935	5,127
	*8,619
Left the Hospital	2,606
	*6,422
Dide in Hospital	2,469
	*1,945
At the end of 1935	3,921
	*2,325
Aggregate number of In-patients treated each day	1,358,393
	*834,399
Average capacity per hospital	76.42
Average number of in-patients per hospital	185.74
Average number of days a patient stayed in hospital	111.38
Percentage of paying patients	54.73%

* Indicates the number of paying patients.

Leprosaria The total number of the Government, public and private leprosaria at the end of 1935 was 15 (one of which had been established by foreigners), consisting of four Government, (an increase of 1 over the preceding year), four public and seven private leprosaria. The following table gives the admitting capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1935.

Accommodations	5,052
Number of In-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	5,051
	*32
Admitted in 1935	1,618
	*4
Left the Leprosarium	586
	*7
Died in Leprosarium	275
	*6
At the end of 1935	5,808
	*23
Aggregated number of In-patients treated each day	1,908,827
	*8,292
Average capacity per leprosarium	336.80
Average number of in-paitients per leprosarium	447.00
Average number of days a patient stayed in leprosarium	285.92
Percentage of paying patients	0.54%

* Indicates the number of patients who bore the whole or a part of their expenses.

The following is the figures concering the four national leprosaria of "Nagashima Aiseien," "Kuryu Rakusenen," "Hoshizuka Keiaien" and "Miyako-Ryoyojo":—

	Nagashima Aiseien	Kuryu-Rakusenen	Hoshizuka Keiaien	Miyako-Ryoyojo
Accommodations	890	115	300	100
Number of In-patients:				
Remaining from the preceding year	1,008	277	—	81
Admitted in 1935	267	208	367	21
Discharged	72	102	1	11
Died	60	17	9	2
At the end of 1935	1,143	366	357	89
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	392,126	121,023	13,740	27,676
Average number of days a patient stayed in leprosarium	307.55	249.53	37.44	271.33

Hospitals for Prostitutes At the end of 1935 there were 121 hospitals for prostitutes with a total accommodation for, 5,074 (of which 9 were in the infectious diseases rooms). Compared with the preceding year, there was a decrease of 12 in the number of hospitals and of 356 in admitting capacity. The number of patients who had remained over from the preceding year in the hospitals was

1,203 and those who entered them in 1935, 47,182 making a total of 48,385 (of whom 397 were private prostitutes admitted under the provisions of Art. III of the Administrative Execution Law).

The following table gives important ratio respecting facts connected with the above mentioned hospitals for prostitutes ;—

Average capacity per hospital	41.93 patients
Average number of patients admitted per hospital	399.88 ,,
Average number of days a patient remained in hospital	18.35 days
Average number of days a private prostitute remained in hospital	23.48 ,,

Infectious Diseases Hospitals, Isolation-wards, and Isolation Houses (Established under the provision of the Law for the Prevention of Infectious Diseases). The total number of hospitals for infectious diseases at the end of 1935 was 1,294, (an increase of 8 hospitals on the preceding year), consisting of 119 established by cities, 964 by towns, villages and other similar public corporations, and 211 established by town or village associations or similar bodies. The admitting capacity of these hospitals was 27,273 in total (an increase of 227 on the preceding year), making an average of 21.08 per hospitals. (an increase of 0.05).

The isolation wards at the end of the same year numbered 7,117, (a decrease of 134 on the preceding year) consisting of 47 established by cities, 6,712 by towns, villages or similar public corporations, and 358 by town or village associations or similar bodies : and the accommodation in these isolation wards was 66,058 in total, (a decrease of 261 over the preceding year, the average per ward being 9.28 (an increase of 0.13).

The total number of isolation houses at the end of 1935 was 70, (an increase of 40 on the preceding year) of which 10 were those established by cities, 58 by towns, villages or similar public corporations, 2 by the town or village associations or similar bodies. The estimated total capacity of these isolation houses was 1,704 (a decrease of 11 over the preceding year) the average capacity per house coming to 24.34 persons (a decrease of 1.64).

At the end of 1935, there were 47 disinfecting stations (established under the provision of the Law for the Prevention of Infectious Diseases), showing no change in their number with that of the preceding year.

Medicines The total number of persons who reported the sale or import of non-pharmacopoeial medicines or preparations thereof in 1935 to the respective prefectural offices was 607, and the number of medicines reported 2,890, showing, compared with the preceding year a decrease of 2 persons and of 197 medicines.

In the tours of inspection made during 1935, 25,014 places (a decrease of 1,038 when compared with the preceding year) were visited ; and the following table gives the places visited and the results of the inspection :

	No. of places visited	No. of places visited per 100 places to be visited	No. of deleterious medicines discovered per 100 places visited		No. of violators of the regulations punished per 100 places visited
			No. of places	No. of medicines	
Pharmacists { with pharmacy	4,562	37.62	30.64	65.80	0.61
Pharmacists { others	118	7.96	7.63	56.78	—
Non-pharmacists	54	31.40	24.07	61.11	—
Druggists	6,202	21.19	8.92	21.53	1.00
Medicine-manufacturers	396	13.76	1.77	3.54	1.01
Hospitals	796	24.72	31.53	77.14	0.13
Medical practitioners	9,227	25.36	38.52	80.03	0.21
Dental surgeons	3,214	17.71	16.83	28.22	0.53
Veterinary surgeons	445	9.20	30.56	58.43	1.57
Total	25,014	23.05	25.83	54.43	0.55

Patent Medicines At the end of 1935, the total number of patent medicine dealers was 42,125, showing an increase of 577 compared with the figures of the preceding year. Of these, there were 11,384 pharmacists, 3,447 medical practitioners and veterinary surgeons, 2,793 who employ pharmacists, 17,657 who come under Art. XXIV of the Patent Medicine Regulations and 6,785 who came under Art. XXV of the same law, while there were 59 who were engaged exclusively in the importation and sale of patent medicines.

At the end of 1935 the total number of patent medicines for which permission of manufacture or importation was given was 325,851 (of which 201 were imported), showing an increase of 16,591 when compared with the figures of the preceding year, (Permissions for importation decreased by 2).

Patent medicines manufactured or imported in 1935 amounted in value to 90,348,212 Yen (of which 777,863 yen represents the import from foreign countries and the territories), showing an increase of 4,879,835 Yen which compared with the preceding year (the amount of importation increased by ¥264,944), as to amount of the manufacture and importation combined to the population in that year the ratio came to 1.30 yen per person, being an increase of 5 sen compared with the preceding year. At the end of 1935, the total number of retailers in patent medicines was 267,840 indicating a decrease of 11,495 when compared with the figures of the preceding year.

DEATHS BY CAUSES, 1935

Japan Proper

Causes of Deaths	Number		Proportion per 1,000 Deaths	
	1934	1935	1934	1935
1. Typhoid fever and Paratyphoid (Typhoid fever)	8,471 8,149	7,478 7,240	6.9 6.6	6.4 6.2
2. Eruptive typhus	5	1	0.0	0.0
3. Smallpox	35	16	0.0	0.0
4. Measles	9,787	9,816	7.9	7.8
5. Scarlet fever	505	489	0.4	0.4
6. Whooping cough	8,520	12,216	6.9	10.5
7. Diphtheria	5,235	4,462	4.2	3.8
8. Influenza	10,142	3,070	8.2	2.6
9. Dysentery and ekiri (Dysentery)	15,490 3,444	15,921 3,423	12.5 2.8	13.7 2.9
10. Bubonic Plague	—	—	—	—
11. Tuberculosis, lungs and respiratory organs	96,951	97,409	78.5	83.8
12. Tuberculosis, other organs	34,574	34,742	28.0	29.9
13. Syphilis	5,555	5,556	4.5	4.8
14. Purulent infectious septicemia	9,252	8,945	7.5	7.7
15. Malaria	53	51	0.0	0.0
16. Intestinal Worms	1,979	2,143	1.6	1.8
17. Other epidemics and entozoic worms	9,451	11,570	7.7	10.0
18. Cancer and other malignant tumours	47,972	49,111	38.9	42.3
19. Other tumours	2,710	2,946	2.2	2.5
20. Acute articular rheumatism	577	573	0.5	0.5
21. Chronic rheumatism and gout	1,189	1,108	1.0	1.0
22. Diabetes mellitus	2,718	2,527	2.2	2.2
23. Vitamin deficiency (Beriberi)	11,841 11,494	10,422 10,062	9.6 9.3	9.0 8.7
24. Disease of thyroid gland	477	402	0.4	0.3
25. Other whole body diseases	1,441	1,821	1.2	1.6
26. Anæmia	748	809	0.6	0.7
27. Blood diseases	2,060	2,133	1.7	1.7
28. Alcoholism	287	309	0.2	0.3
29. Other chronic poisoning	199	149	0.2	0.1
30. Meningitis	39,924	37,615	32.3	32.4
31. Myelitis	1,038	990	0.8	0.9
32. Cerebral Hœmorrhage, embolism and				

Causes of Deaths	Number		Proportion per 1,000 Deaths	
	1934	1935	1934	1935
thrombosis	114,447	114,554	92.7	98.6
33. Paralysed dementia	2,320	2,286	1.9	2.0
34. Dementia præcox and other mental diseases	3,113	2,937	2.5	2.5
35. Epilepsy	1,050	1,035	0.9	0.9
36. Other diseases of the nervous system	13,564	13,177	11.0	11.3
37. Diseases of eyes, ears, etc.	549	534	0.4	0.5
38. Pericarditis	718	733	0.6	0.6
39. Acute endocarditis	774	688	0.6	0.6
40. Chronic endocarditis, valvular disease	24,049	22,274	19.5	19.2
41. Diseases of heart sinews	2,892	2,807	2.3	1.9
42. Diseases of the coronary arteries and stricture of the heart	4,791	4,896	3.9	4.2
43. Other heart diseases	9,295	8,504	7.5	7.3
44. Aneurism	454	491	0.4	0.4
45. Arterio-sclerosis and gangrene	5,230	4,969	4.2	4.3
46. Other diseases of circulation organs	993	970	0.8	0.8
47. Bronchitis	27,024	24,240	21.9	20.9
(Acute bronchitis)	5,514	4,949	4.5	4.3
48. Pneumonia	124,117	105,078	100.5	90.4
49. Pleurisy	17,811	17,025	14.4	14.7
50. Other diseases of the respiratory organs	14,909	13,836	12.1	11.9
51. Ulcer of the stomach or duodenum	11,329	11,276	9.2	9.7
52. Diarrhœa and enteritis (under 2 years)	74,812	64,298	60.6	55.3
53. Diarrhœa, enteritis and ulcer of the entrails (above 2 years)	53,041	47,815	43.0	41.2
54. Appendicitis	2,609	2,440	2.1	2.1
55. Hernia and intestinal obstruction	5,478	5,469	4.4	4.7
56. Cirrhosis of the liver	4,696	4,501	3.8	3.9
57. Other diseases of the liver and gall-duct	7,820	8,064	6.3	6.9
58. Other diseases of the digestive organs	40,337	38,589	32.7	33.2
59. Nephritis	59,553	56,026	48.2	48.2
60. Other diseases of the kidney, and the ureter	2,879	3,089	2.3	2.7
61. Urinary calculus	195	169	0.2	0.1
62. Diseases of the bladder	1,216	1,185	1.0	1.0
63. Diseases of the urethra	167	149	0.1	0.1
64. Diseases of the prostate	86	73	0.0	0.1
65. Diseases of the genitals	836	778	0.7	0.7
66. Accidents of pregnant women	569	595	0.5	0.5
67. Hœmorrhage at childbirth	1,307	1,322	1.1	1.1
68. Puerperal fever	1,378	1,364	1.1	1.2
69. Puerperal sepsis and toxemias of pregnancy	1,687	1,711	1.4	1.5
70. Other puerperal diseases	768	706	0.6	0.6
71. Diseases of the skin and connective tissue	3,251	3,130	2.6	2.7
72. Diseases of bones and motor organs	2,254	2,161	1.8	1.9
73. Congenital malformation	4,198	4,333	3.4	3.7
74. Congenital debility (under 1 year)	68,604	64,369	55.6	55.4
75. Premature parturition	5,654	5,685	4.6	4.9
76. Accidents of childbirth	401	425	0.3	0.4
77. Diseases peculiar to early infancy	10,754	10,032	8.7	8.6
78. Senility	87,323	79,240	70.7	68.2
79. Suicide	14,554	14,172	11.8	12.2
80. Killed	423	427	0.3	0.4
81. Accidental death	31,735	28,740	25.7	24.7
82. Other violent death	95	134	0.1	0.1
83. Death in battle	—	—	—	—
84. Capital punishment	34	13	0.0	0.0
85. Doubtful diseases and causes	37,355	33,624	30.3	28.9
Total	1,234,684	1,161,936	1,000.0	1,000.0

DEATHS CLASSIFIED BY AGE AND CAUSES, 1935

Japan Proper

Age group	Total	Typhoid Fever	Measles	Whooping Cough	Diphtheria	Influenza	Dysentery	Tuberculosis, Lungs
0–4 Total	379,695	95	9,214	11,930	3,157	1,423	11,421	1,865
0	233,706	6	3,104	6,560	321	972	169	467
1	68,034	9	3,740	3,243	957	201	1,150	636
2	37,351	22	1,375	1,223	839	128	3,884	325
3	24,319	25	637	582	576	73	3,692	233
4	16,285	33	358	322	464	49	2,526	204
5– 9	33,806	230	540	280	1,078	126	2,949	1,234
10–14	22,998	560	26	4	159	58	201	4,391
15–19	50,030	1,204	3	—	20	84	106	18,239
20–24	56,723	1,061	4	—	10	79	80	21,609
25–29	42,718	885	6	2	8	83	73	15,115
30–34	34,823	707	7	—	10	66	87	9,368
35–39	32,109	553	3	—	5	71	59	6,238
40–44	31,445	467	2	—	3	60	71	4,507
45–49	36,893	420	4	—	—	74	60	4,079
50–54	46,644	382	—	—	—	79	71	3,533
55–59	58,969	277	5	—	4	120	122	2,956
60–64	62,429	166	1	—	2	112	133	2,045
65–69	70,368	118	1	—	1	140	158	1,306
70–79	133,510	105	—	—	5	332	252	835
80–89	63,086	10	—	—	—	152	72	82
90 and above	5,628	—	—	—	—	11	6	4
Doubtful	62	—	—	—	—	—	—	3
Total	1,161,936	7,240	9,816	12,216	4,462	3,070	15,921	97,409

Age Group	Tuberculosis, Other Organs	Syphilis	Purulent Infectious Septicemia	Cancer and other malignant Tumours	Beriberi	Meningitis	Cerebral Haemorrhage, Embolism and Thrombosis
0–4 Total	3,277	3,186	2,926	179	6,004	22,995	182
0	508	3,009	1,867	60	5,767	9,507	48
1	759	114	470	45	204	4,819	48
2	745	30	241	37	19	3,828	37
3	662	22	168	27	6	2,832	26
4	603	11	180	10	8	2,009	23
5– 9	2,714	31	794	55	29	4,292	90
10–14	3,250	14	653	69	194	1,955	81
15–19	6,886	25	404	102	835	1,840	152
20–24	6,789	67	465	200	763	1,482	290
25–29	3,802	121	451	419	487	963	441
30–34	2,267	250	455	994	357	668	839
35–39	1,421	326	458	1,765	300	528	1,744
40–44	1,036	336	397	2,717	220	460	3,073
45–49	923	324	347	4,445	171	458	5,415
50–54	764	317	357	6,193	163	449	9,127
55–59	650	258	377	7,976	164	461	13,699
60–64	427	146	282	7,908	162	380	16,478
65–69	282	90	246	7,192	107	311	19,710
70–79	217	61	271	7,629	91	318	33,214
80–89	34	3	61	1,236	12	55	9,594
90 and above	3	—	1	31	2	—	419
Doubtful	—	1	—	1	1	—	6
Total	34,742	5,556	8,945	49,111	10,062	37,615	114,554

Age Group	Chronic Endocarditis, Valvular Disease	Arterio Sclerosis and Gangrene	Bronchitis	Pneumonia	Pleurisy	Ulcer of the Stomach or Duodenum	Diarrhoea and Enteritis
0–4 Total	420	154	10,547	68,825	2,690	172	79,741
0	88	52	7,967	41,270	991	36	40,012
1	105	31	1,576	16,571	1,096	28	24,286
2	92	30	583	6,184	323	34	7,613
3	66	22	266	2,958	156	40	4,932
4	69	19	155	1,842	124	34	2,898
5– 9	476	26	298	3,318	503	76	3,338
10–14	756	10	317	1,318	838	65	898
15–19	934	4	739	2,129	2,756	179	1,270
20–24	916	10	707	2,362	2,682	289	1,381
25–29	853	9	591	2,085	1,530	358	1,034
30–34	932	17	366	1,944	1,010	445	1,004
35–39	1,048	22	323	1,698	718	581	884
40–44	1,165	47	290	1,643	578	749	927
45–49	1,363	108	494	1,712	536	1,006	1,140
50–54	1,807	218	713	2,150	636	1,329	1,675
55–59	2,337	404	1,148	2,779	692	1,641	2,749
60–64	2,318	584	1,457	2,994	603	1,422	2,654
65–69	2,476	808	1,775	3,290	541	1,225	3,202
70–79	3,564	1,702	3,209	5,171	581	1,437	6,849
80–89	877	796	1,199	1,553	127	293	3,157
90 and above	32	50	66	106	4	9	210
Doubtful	—	—	1	1	—	—	—
Total	22,274	4,969	24,240	105,078	17,025	11,276	112,113

Age Group	Hernia Intestinal Obstruction	Nephritis	Puerperal Sepsis and Toxemias of Pregnancy	Congenital Debility	Senility	Suicides	Accidental Deaths	Others
0–4 Total	1,479	5,777	—	64,369	—	—	7,280	60,387
0	1,003	1,767	—	64,369	—	—	1,258	42,528
1	186	985	—	—	—	—	2,027	4,748
2	126	1,158	—	—	—	—	1,942	6,533
3	93	1,094	—	—	—	—	1,180	3,951
4	71	773	—	—	—	—	873	2,627
5– 9	190	1,962	—	—	—	—	2,378	6,799
10–14	130	1,076	1	—	—	77	1,028	4,869
15–19	208	1,180	189	—	—	1,524	1,944	7,074
20–24	243	1,489	765	—	—	2,403	2,374	8,203
25–29	215	1,461	671	—	—	1,508	1,982	7,565
30–34	220	1,545	608	—	—	1,034	1,679	7,944
35–39	238	1,820	544	—	—	844	1,526	8,392
40–44	248	1,916	263	—	—	735	1,347	8,188
45–49	283	2,326	28	—	—	874	1,263	9,040
50–54	352	3,262	5	—	—	965	1,153	10,944
55–59	400	4,428	1	—	—	946	1,114	13,261
60–64	376	5,036	—	—	2,042	893	949	12,859
65–69	351	6,187	—	—	6,379	793	802	12,877
70–79	442	11,777	—	—	34,282	1,199	1,346	18,621
80–89	93	4,508	—	—	32,562	353	527	5,730
90 and above	1	276	—	—	3,972	14	26	385
Doubtful	—	—	—	—	3	10	22	13
Total	5,469	56,026	3,075	64,369	79,240	14,172	28,740	203,151

Health Condition The birth-rate of Japan went down after the peak year of 1920 until 1935, when it rose to 31.6 per 1,000 of the population, keeping above that of the five countries of France, Germany Great Britain, Hol-

land and Italy. The death-rate has continued to fall, being 16.8 per 1,000 of the population in 1935, but the rate is still greater than in the other countries. These facts may be taken to indicate a somewhat better health condition in this country in recent years.

But diseases such as tuberculosis, syphilis, leprosy and trachoma are still very prevalent. Tuberculosis especially occupies the first position among the causes of deaths, killing 131,525 persons in 1934, or 19.3 deaths per 10,000 of the population. Of trachoma there are some 7,400,000 cases per annum. In the number of lepers Japan shares with China and British India an unenviable reputation, having over 15,000 lepers in 1935. Internal parasites are present in 30 per cent of the population of farm villages. Diseases of the alimentary organs such as typhoid and dysentery are also very common.

The average duration of life in Japan is 44.8 years for males and 46.5 years for females, being about 10 years shorter than in other countries. According to the investigation of the Education Ministry into the physical conditions of school boys and girls, statistics show a continued progress in their height and weight, but their chest measurement has not correspondingly increased. The results of the physical examinations conducted by the Military authorities for conscription show a smaller number in A and B classes and a greater number in C and D classes in recent years. The physical strength of the youth is weakening, the proportion of rejections increasing annually at the rate of 10 in 1,000 of the young men examined for conscription.

These facts have drawn the attention not only of the authorities concerned but also of the public and the improvement of national health is considered one of the most important aims of Government policy, and plans therefore have been drawn up by the Health Bureau of the Home Ministery. They are (1) the establishment of health offices, (2) the supply of medical equipment to country villages, (3) the prevention of tuberculosis, (4) the extermination of leprosy, (5) the increase of general medical establishments, and (6) measures for the protection of insane persons.

The first plan is to establish 550 health offices and 1,100 sub-offices all over Japan proper under a 10 year programme, one office for each district which has 30,000 adults, at an estimated expense of ¥20,000 for an office and ¥1,500 for a sub-office, being an aggregate expense of ¥12,650,000 allotted evenly to the national Treasury and local governments. Their running expenses will, it is estimated, amount in the aggregate to ¥10,230,000, one-third of which is to be borne by the national Treasury and two-thirds by local governments. The sanitary control of local districts hitherto left to the police will be changed to a policy of active assistance after the establishment of these health offices.

The second measure is to supply medical equipment and medical practitioners to the country villages which have no doctors. The number of doctors is increasing by over 2,000 annually, but their distribution is proportionately much less in the country places. There are 15 small towns and 3,228 villages, with an aggregate population of 8,160,000, which have not a single resident medical practitioner. It corresponds to 28 per cent of the total number of the country towns and villages in Japan Proper at the end of May, 1936. Some of them, however, have means of access to doctors in adjacent towns or villages and the number of those which are included in the new plan is 1,400 with an aggregate population of 3,650,000. One consultation office for each 5,000 people will be established under a 5 year programme. The expense for creating 750 such offices will, it is estimated, reach ¥1,125,000, to be evenly allotted to the national Treasury and local governments; and the national Treasury will annually bear ¥1,000 of the running expenses of each office.

DEATH RATES IN CITY AND RURAL DISTRICTS

(Per 1,000)

Year	City districts	Rural districts
1925	18.9	20.64
1926	17.68	19.60
1927	18.02	20.33
1928	17.60	20.61
1929	17.66	20.79
1930	16.46	18.71
1931	17.46	19.48
1932	13.78	19.40
1933	15.79	18.63
1934	16.00	19.07
Average	16.94	19.73

As the table shows the health conditions of the people living in rural districts are bad as compared with those living in urban districts. The average Japanese death rate in 1933 was 17.8 per 1,000 as compared with 15.8 of

France, 13.5 of Italy, 12.3 of Great Britain, 11.2 of Germany, and 8.8 of Holland; that of the last-named being exceptionally low. The death rate of Japan is astonishingly high compared with those of other countries. Furthermore, while the rate has a marked tendency to decline further abroad, this tendency in Japan is only very slight and is showing no great sign of improvement.

Next, the average life of the people of Japan is about 44.82 years for males and 44.54 for females, and the people are very short-lived as compared with those of Great Britain, Germany, and France.

One-tenth of the total number of deaths in Japan is due to tuberculosis and it is estimated that over 1,000,000 persons are suffering from the disease. The loss thus sustained is especially great because the victims are mostly among the young people of the nation, and the Home Ministry has decided to add 30,000 beds to the present 10,000 in the course of the next 10 years, 2,500 in the National Tuberculosis Sanatorium to be built for ex-soldiers, 25,800 in the Public Tuberculosis Sanatoriums for the general public and 1,700 in the tuberculosis sanatoriums to be established in connection with the national health insurance. The total expense for completing the plan is estimated at ¥28,300,000; ¥15,400,000 of this is to be borne by the national Treasury while the rest is to come from the treasuries of local governments.

The total number of lepers in Japan Proper is approximately 15,000 and the three national leper asylums and various private ones can accommodate about 7,000 lepers. The Mitsui-Hō-ko Kai (a social service foundation established by the Mitsui interests) has contributed ¥2,090,000 for the equipment of 3,000 beds for lepers, and with this money the Home Ministry is going to establish 3 new national asylums in the coming 3 years to provide 10,000 beds for the poor victims of leprosy.

The number of insane persons in Japan is estimated at about 80,000, and the total accommodation for them is only 5,000 beds (2,000 in public asylums and 3,000 in additional private asylums. The Home Ministry intends to increase the annual subsidy to ¥100,000 for the establishment and enlargement of these asylums.

Number of Patients The Nippon Ishikai (The Japan Physicians' Society) conducted a survey of present medical conditions in Japan by collecting reports from its members. The society has approximately 60,000 members all over Japan Proper and 36,734 questionnaire cards were sent out to them, receiving 25,754 replies, 70 per cent of cards sent in which the number of patients classified according to the kinds of diseases, who visited doctors on October 10,1936 was reported.

According to the survey the total number of patient reported was 1,431,104, (male 805.630 and female 625,474), from which it is estimated that over 2,044,000 may have visited doctors on that day. This number forms 2.9 per cent of the total population in Japan proper.

As to the percentage of patients arranged according to prefectures the highest was 5.9 in Niigata prefecture, Fukuoka comming next with 4.8. As a rule those prefectures which have large cities had high percentages, rising above 3.5 per cent, for instance Tokyo 4.4, Aichi (Nagoya) 3.8, Osaka 3.9 and Hyogo(Kobe) 3.8.

NUMBER OF PATIENTS ACCORDING TO PREFECTURES

(Per 100 Of Population)

Hokkaido	2.2	Ishikawa	3.1	Okayama	2.9
Aomori	1.5	Fukui	2.7	Hiroshima	3.4
Iwate	1.5	Yamanashi	1.5	Yamaguchi	2.5
Miyagi	1.9	Nagano	2.7	Tokushima	2.6
Akita	1.6	Gifu	1.9	Kagawa	2.1
Yamagata	1.8	Shizuoka	2.1	Ehime	2.4
Fukushima	2.0	Aichi	3.8	Kochi	3.9
Ibaraki	1.6	Mie	2.2	Fukuoka	4.8
Tochigi	1.6	Shiga	1.7	Saga	2.8
Gumma	1.6	Kyoto	2.8	Nagasaki	3.2
Saitama	1.9	Osaka	3.9	Kumamoto	2.1
Chiba	1.3	Hyogo	3.8	Oita	2.7
Tokyo	4.4	Nara	1.8	Miyazaki	2.1
Kanagawa	2.9	Wakayama	2.4	Kagoshima	2.5
Niigata	5.9	Tottori	2.3	Okinawa	0.9
Toyama	2.2	Shimane	2.1		

NUMBER OF PATIENTS CLASSIFIED BY DISEASES (October 10, 1936)

(According to The Japan Physicians' Society)

Questionnaires 36,734; Answers 25,754

	Male	Female	Total
Organic diseases	317,693	251,340	569,033
Tuberculosis	59,141	44,901	104,042
Diseases of digestive organs	110,919	85,042	195,961
Others	147,633	121,397	269,030
Insanity	12,126	6,894	19,020
Epidemic diseases	5,488	4,928	10,416
Surgical cases	127,500	56,604	184,104
Diseases of urethra and genitals	51,943	18,175	70,118
Skin diseases	31,130	22,576	53,706
Female diseases	—	51,337	51,337
Children's diseases	96,154	78,229	174,383
Tuberculosis	8,189	6,764	14,953
Diseases of digestive organs	44,689	34,869	79,558
Others	43,276	36,596	79,872
Diseases of eyes, ears, etc.	163,596	135,391	298,987
Diseases of eyes	95,251	86,873	182,124
Diseases of ears, nose and throat	68,345	48,518	116,863
Total	805,630	625,474	1,431,104

One remarkable conclusion from this survey is that female patients is smaller in every kind of dieases except diseases peculiar to the sex. The percentage of female patients to the total female population of Japan was 2.5 against 3.3 of male patients. A corroborative evidence appeared in a survey conducted by an expert in the Cabinet Statistics Bureau in 1936. According to the survey of the Bureau children of primary schools graded as 'A' in respect of being adequately nourished comprise 50 per cent, and in middle schools a little more than 50 per cent, while in girls' high schools the girls in the same category comprise 60 per cent. In physical development of A grade boys in primary schools the proportion is from 16 to 20 per cent and girls of the same class comprise from 17 to 28 per cent; in the secondary education the contrast is still greater and girls schools have 50 per cent A grade girls against 40 per cent A grade boys in middle schools.

Prevention of Tuberculosis It is estimated that over 1,000,000 people are at present suffering from tuberculosis, and from 120,000 to 130,000 people die of it each year. It is especially regrettable that the victims of this disease are mostly young men.

The Government has long been making strenuous efforts for preventing and exterminating the disease, but it is still far from being successful. They have set aside a sum of 100,000 to make a nation-wide campaign for to prevention.

National Campaign Commission for the Prevention of Tuberculosis In order to make the propaganda for the prevention of the disease thorough and effective, it was considered advisable to have the cooperation of the authorities concerned, the directors of various public bodies, and the experts on the subject, and the National Campaign Commission for the Prevention of Tuberculosis has been organized. The Commission met on July 18, 1936, drew up plans and started work accordingly.

An outline of their plans for launching a popular movement for the prevention of tuberculosis is as follows: 1. Basic Course of Action. The whole country will be divided into the following six districts, and under the auspices of the Home Department a 'tuberculosis prevention exhibition' will be held in one place in each of the districts. During the course of the exhibition, propaganda will be made in various ways with the exhibition as the centre.

District No. 1. Tokyo, Kanagawa, Saitama, Gumma, Chiba, Ibaraki, Tochigi, and Yamanashi Prefectures.

District No. 2. Osaka, Kyoto, Hyogo, Nara, Shiga, Wakayama, Okayama, Hiroshima, Tottori, Shimané, Tokushima, Kagawa, Ehimé, and Kochi Prefectures.

District No. 3. Miyagi, Fukushima, Iwaté, Aomori, Yamagata, Akita, and Hokkaido Prefectures.

District No. 4. Ishikawa, Toyama, Niigata, and Fukui Prefectures.

District No. 5. Aichi, Shizuoka, Gifu and Miyé Prefectures.

District No. 6. Fukuoka, Yamaguchi,

Oita, Saga, Nagasaki, Kumamoto, Miyazaki, Kagoshima, and Okinawa Prefectures.

2. The Tuberculosis Prevention Exhibition. (1) Two sets of materials for this were prepared and, at the end of 1936 and early in 1937 local exhibitions were already opened as follows :

Set A. At Tokyo from October 26 to Novemebr 3, 1936, at the Annex of the Tokyo Science Museum.

At Sendai from November 15 to November 21, 1936, at the Sendai City Auditorium.

At Nagoya from December 1 to December 7, 1936, at the Nagoya City Auditorium.

Set B. At Osaka from November 1 to November 15, 1936, at the Osaka Prefectural Industrial Hall.

At Kanazawa from November 22 to November 28, 1936, at the Kanazawa City Auditorium.

At Fukuoka from January 12 to January 18, 1937, at the Fukuoka Prefectural Auditorium.

There was established in the compound of the exhibition a health consultation room and an infant health consultation room, where all information required was given free of charge, while lectures, round-table conference, broadcasts and moving pictures accompanied the exhibition.

During the term of the exhibition each district held a tuberculosis prevention campaign week and printed matters were distributed in the compounds of the exhibition and in other places.

3. Making Film are produced for use at these exhibition, lectures and round-table conferences.

4. The Home Minister's speech on the prevention of tuberculosis has been recorded and included in a talkie film.

5. The encouragement of prevention work in local districts. Prefectures are to carry out the following activities, expenses being partly borne by grants : Holding of lectures, round-table conferences, picture-shows and exhibitions ; establishment of temporary health consultation-rooms and a permanent tuberculosis prevention committees ; advertizing for prize mottoes ; instituting tuberculosis-prevention; campaign weeks, and distribution of posters, health textbooks, and other printed matters.

CHAPTER XXXIII

PROGRESS OF SCIENCE

Botany

Plant Fossils from the Stegodon and Elephas Beds near Akashi

By Shigeru Miki

(Botanical Institute, Dep't of Science, Kyoto Imperial University; Japanese Journal of Botany, Vol. VIII, No. 4, March 20, 1937.)

Introduction In the Inland Sea of Japan (Seto Naikai) dredges often bring up the fossil remains of Stegodon, Elephas etc., but their palaeontological characteristics are not fully known. In the north eastern border of the sea, Byobu-ga-Ura, Harima, there are very distinct Stegodon and Elephas Beds which contain remains of various mammals, shells and plants. Investigations up to the present have shown that the fossil flora there contain at least 65 species. The floral elements and composition give clues not only as to the geological age of the beds and the origin of some neogene extinct or relic species, but also to the ecological conditions of those ages and the probable course of migration of Japanese alpine plants.

I wish to express here my sincere thanks to Prof. K. Koriba, under whose direction and courtesy this study was undertaken. Further I wish to express thanks to Prof. J. Makiyama, who kindly informed me of this interesting material and gave valuable suggestions concerning geological questions. Thanks are due also to Prof. G. Koizumi, Prof. A. Kikuchi, Assist. Prof. T. Abe and Mr. Z. Tashiro who kindly identified the fossils.

The site and structure The fossil beds studied lie on the sea coast about 25 km. west of Kobé. They extend 4 km. between Eigashima and Fujie near Akashi, forming a sea-cliff about 20 m. high. They are of nearly horizontal strata and are grouped into two parts separated by a well-marked unconformity. There is a white tuff layer 10 cm. to 1 m. thick near the top of the lower beds. This layer forms a convenient line of demarkation between the upper and lower beds.

The upper beds consist of gravels and sandy clay (the Harima group of Shikama). In general the fossil remains in the upper beds are poor except at Taniyagi, where the beds contain many brackish water shells, a few seeds and branches, and, to our great surprise, a piece of the metatarsal bone of a deer engraved crosswise at one end by a human hand. At Nishiyagi there are found some teeth of Elephas, so that upper beds may be designated as the Elephas Beds.

The lower beds are mainly composed of bluish clay with vivianite particles and sands in places, but no gravels. The beds contain many remains of mammals (Stegodon, Elepharus, Cervus etc.), fresh water shells and also plants; specially they are rich at the two places between Nakayagi and Eigashima. In contrast to the upper Elephas Beds, this group may be named the Stegodon Beds (the Akashi group of Shikama).

The fossils and the lithological characters of the strata clearly indicate that the upper beds are of a brackish water origin, while the lower beds are a lacustrine formation.

General Remarks on the Fossil Plants The fossil plants in these beds have not hitherto been well studied except for occasional observations made by Naora (26), Endo (4, 43) and Shikama (35), after whom three interesting species from the Stegodon Beds, viz. Sequoia, Juglans cinerea L. and Carya are known.

The remains include roots, trunks, branches, halms, winter buds, spines, leaves, fruits and seeds, some of which are very delicate and fragile, so that the utmost care had to be taken during the course of their preparation.

Muddy rocks including the fossils were rinsed in their fresh state for one or two days in concentrated caustic soda until the mud has been loosened, then washed with running tap water and neutralized with HCl. Seeds, fruits, spines etc. were preserved in glycerin-alcohol, while leaves, being still black in colour, were rinsed again in alkali, until the venation becomes visible, and

after adequate procedure embedded in Canada-balsam.

Some fossils retain very distinctly their diagnostic characters. For instance, the trunk and branch of Zelkova, though flat, show a characteristic xylem arrangement; likewise, the branch of Rosa is identifiable by its prickles, Gleditschia by its branched spines, Elaeagnus by its star-shaped hairs, and Salix by its galls probably of Cercidomyia salicis Schrank.

Big fruits are usually not well preserved. The lignified endocarp, the ligneous exocarp of Carya, and the corky exocarp of Paliurus are the only exceptions. The seeds of Sapium and Magnolia are well preserved because of their waxy or fatty covering. The sculpture of seeds of Fagara and Phellodendron and the seed epidermis of Staphylea and Euryale are excellent for diagnostic purposes. Otherwise the palisade tissue is the most important of the fossil remains.

Leaves may be identified not only by their shape and size, but also by their epidermal structure when the cuticle is well developed as in Buxus, Ilex and Viscum, and by the hairs as in Elaeagnus, Rosa and Gleditschia.

Leaves, barks and the innes surface of seeds and fruits are often covered by pustules of perithecia or pycnidia of fungi, and this often makes the determination of species rather difficult. There are found commingled with the plant remains some catapillar excrements. They remain hard even after the alkali treatment and have a regular form, so that they are easily mistaken for seeds.

Description of the fossil Plants (omitted)

List and Distribution of the Fossil flora (omitted)

Floral Composition and its Characters Among the 58 species just enumerated, 18 species are completely extinct, or at least so in Japan to day.

It is noticeable that the flora is closely related to that of the southern half of Japan and that 16 species among them are at present found about 500–1000 m above sea-level. Extinct ones are intimately related to the flora of Central China and Manchuria and a few to those of the Mediterranean and Caucasus regions and of North America.

It is also interesting to note that broad deciduous leaves have round tops and fine serrations at their margin as in fig. 11. The species or their allies with such a leaf form extend from the Caucasus to the Mediterranean and are found also in Central China.

From those facts it is probable, that formerly the climate of the Stegodon Beds was in general about 5°C. colder than it is now, but as Euryale, a big summer annual occurred there, the summer temperature must have been as warm enough as it is at present. Those form such as Zelkova Ungeri Kovats., Xanthoceras sorbifolia Bge., Paliurus nipponicus Miki and Ilex cornuta Ldl. et Paxt. which grew luxuriantly at that period, are now found together with their allies in arid regions on the continent. Many species with prickles or spines on twigs or leaves suggest also an arid climate. From these evidences it is conceivable that the Stegodon Beds were formed during a more arid condition than exists at present.

The age of these beds were thought by Takai (37) to be Lower Pleistocene or Upper Pliocene, while Shikama took them to be Upper Pliocene(35).

Viewed from their floral composition, they are found to contain the so-called Arcto-Tertiary elements, viz. Sequoia, Juglans, Pterocarya, Zelkova, Betula and Fagus etc. They are therefore very similar to those of the Pliocene age of Europe, viz. Upper Pliocene in the Main Valley near Frankfurt (Engelhardt and Kinkelin 5) and somewhat like that of Limburg (Reid and Reid 29). In Japan this flora nearly corresponds to that of Mogi in the Hizen Province, that of Amakusa in the Higo Province (Nathorst 27, and Florin 7) and that of Omi in the Shinano Province (Konno 13) which are designated to be the Pliocene age.

The upper beds were formed in shallow sea, and the age was considered by Shikawa (35) to be early Pleistocene. The climate of the age in question has not yet been determined definitely on account of the scantiness of the fossil remains but it seems to have been colder than at present, as indigenous temperate trees such as Styrax Obassia S. et Z. and Quercus crispula Bl. occur there. It is interesting to note that in this bed there were found such remains as Sapium sebiferum Roxb. var. pleistoceaca Miki and Lagerstroemia indica L., both of which are extinct in Japan, although imported anew.

As to the palaeolithic remains in these beds, there is a report by Naora (26), who took some uncertain remains in the sandy gravel layer at Nishiyagi. The writer found a part of the metatarsal bone of a deer which has been engraved crosswise at one end. From these remains we are obliged to infer that some anthropobiotic modifications of the vegetation already existed at this

age. Connected with this fact it is interesting to find there Juglans Sieboldiana Max., Melia Azedarach L. and Lagerstroemia indica L. Which are associated with human habitation at the present time as well.

Palaeogeographical Consideration The vivianite in the beds is the most unusual feature. The formation of vivianite in the present lake is reported in Northern Germany (1).

In modern Japan this occurs only at the middle eastern border of Lake Biwa(14).

The mode of the vivianite formation is not simple but it is very common in limestone districts. In Northern Germany, where the vivianite formation is noted, the lakes are irrigated with rich calcium containing waters (1). The amount of calcium found there is in general considerable, even more than 25 mg. per litre being recorded, while in Japan, after Yoshimura (45) it is gnerally less than 15 mg. per litre and in Lake Biwa 8.5–13 mg. per litre. The characteristic to be mentioned concerning that lake is however the fact that its calcium content is particularly rich compared with other Japanese lakes, viz. it amounts to 30% of the total solid.

From the above evidences the fossil lake might be taken as a hard water lake. The existence of fresh-water shells indicates that the lakes were not distinctly moor-like. These two facts taken together explain the preservation of various parts of plants in such excellent conditions along the shore and also the existence of few water plants in dwarf condition. The preservation of leaves infected by fungi (they seem to belong to the Sphaeriaceae judging from their perithecial shape) should also have depended on the water character, otherwise the decomposition would have taken place as in ordinary water.

The occurrence of vivianite is reported in various districts of Japan (8). Further research as to their geological age would be very interesting.

How was the hard water lake formed? There is no trace of lime stone in this region, but the calcium may have been originated from elsewhere in the environs, where the arid climate predominates. In other words, it has the hard water characteristic of the inland lakes of continents.

It is interesting to note then that the floral composition also corresponds to the arid state. The arid and colder climate of this age can not be understood from the modern climate and topography of the Islands of Japan, or it agrees only with the assumption that these beds were higher by from 500 to 1000 m. than now and formed a continuous block with the Asiatic Continent. All the biologists who have studied the fauna or flora of the Japanese Archipelago believe that a connection with the continent of Asia existed at some recent geological time, though the age and the mode of connection is not yet clear. This interesting problem was raised by Prof. Yabe and Tayama (39), who noticed the drowned valleys on the lower shelf encircling the Japanese Islands about 720 m. in depth. Prof. Yabe (40, 43) supposed their ages to be Pliocene.

Nathorst (27) and Florin (7) stated that the climate of the Mogi fossil flora was colder than that of the present age, but Prof. Yabe and Endo (42) explained that the cold condition was due rather to the fact that the district belonged to the more elevated continental stage and not due to the condition of general lower temperature during the Pliocene times in Asia. My conclusion also confirms the latter view.

It can be inferred that Japanese Islands as a whole have been stable since the Pliocene epoch from the facts that those drowned valleys show nearly a constant depth of 720 m, and that the floral composition in Southern Japan as given in the examples of Mogi and Akashi, which lie on the same level of the same climatic region, are alike.

Extinct and Relic Plants in Japan Many species are found to have become extinct since the Pliocene age. The cause is often attributed to the vigorous climate of the glacial age or to some other environmental variations.

However the extinction can not be explained by the former reason. In Asia in addition to many Arcto-Tertiary elements (6,16), there are the so-called living fossils. There is no positive evidence of a more extensive glaciation than the small glaciers in the Hida Mountains.

The extinction of species, especially the arid and open land plants, may be due to the change of climate from the arid continental to the humid oceanic by the subsidence of Japanese Islands. These topographical and climatic changes brought about the luxuriant growth of the mesophytic vegetation now prevailing, giving rise to the extinction of the arid ones.

It is a further noteworthy fact that Buxus, which, judged from the amount of fossil remains, seemed to be very common in that age, is rarely found at present except in the lime stone region. Indeed, it survives now as a

relic in the lime stone regions not easily invaded by the mesophitic vegetation.

The fact that in Central Japan there still exist many species in common with Northern China and Manchuria, as for example Chosenia bracteosa Nakai, Betula davurica Pall, Trifolium Lupinaster L., Lespedeza daurica Schindl., Oxycoccus microcarpus Turcz. etc., may indicate also the intimate geological and climatic relation of Japan with the continent in the past, as Prof. Nakai (25) has stated. The volcanic activity in Central Japan since then seems to have been favourable for the preservation of those open land plants as the relics of the continental age.

The existence of open land plants such as Paliurus nipponicus Miki, Zelkova Ungeri Kovats. and Sapium sebiferum Roxb. var pleistoceaca Miki etc. in the Lower Pleistocene of Yamashiro (22) may be similarly understood, because the age was not very remote from the continental age and the conditions on the sea shore were still nearly alike.

The Age of Migration of the Alpine Plants in Japan In the alpine regions of Japan there are found many boreal elements (12). The age of their migration is generally supposed to be the ice ages of the Pleistocene. But as has been already stated, the glaciation in this country believed not to be so large as to give a favourable condition for the migration of boreal plants. On the contrary, it is rather probable that the southward migration took place during the continental period in the Pliocene before the isolation of Japanese Islands, when the sea-level was much lower than at present. They could have been distributed naturally over the entire highlands and after subsidence, in consequence of the upward advance of the lower forest region, they exist now usually as alpine plants.

Summary 1. The cliff of Byobu-ga-Ura in Province Harima is composed of upper and lower beds. Elephas remains are found in the upper beds and Stegodon remains in the lower ones. The upper beds are called therefore the Elephas Beds and lower one the Stegodon Beds.

2. The Elephas Beds seem to be of a brackish water formation and contain some palaeolithic remains, but the Stegodon Beds are supposed to be of a fresh water lake containing hard water.

3. The age of the Elephas Beds may be considered as Lower Pleistocene but that of the Stegodon Beds as Pliocene.

4. Nine species of plants belonging to eight genera and eight families, have ben indentified from the Elephas Beds and 58 species representing 48 genera and 33 families from the Stegodon Beds.

5. In the Stegodon Beds there are found 18 species (31%) either extinct or not now found in a wild state in Japan, among which six are new to science. Similarly 2 species are found in the Elephas Beds. Most of these species either grow wild in China and Manchuria or have allied forms in these regions.

6. The living species found in the Stegodon Beds are common with those in China and Manchuria and there are 16 species including Thuja japonica Max., Picea polita Carr., Parabenzoin trilobum Nakai, Fagus crenata Bl. etc., which grow in the southern half of Japan about 500–1000 m above the sea level.

7. The climate of the Stegodon Beds are considered to have been continental and arid on account of the floral composition and of the formation of vivianite.

8. The mean temperature of the Stegodon Beds are supposed to have been about 5°C lower than at present because of the existence of the 16 species mentioned above, though in summer it was warm enough to permit the growth of Euryale.

9. The cold and arid climate of the Stegodon Beds is thought to be due to the topographical condition of Japan at that period, namely, Japan formed a continuous block with the Asiatic Continent and was 500 to 1000 m. higher than at present. The fossil beds in question must have been located near the margin of that continent.

10. The extinction of some neogene species that represent the arid and open land plants in nature is supposed to be due to the formation of Japanese Islands by the general sinking of the continental land and to the subsequent change in climate from the arid continental to the humid oceanic one. These topographical and climatic changes brought about the vigorous growth of plants adapted to the mild climate then prevailing and the extinction of the arid and open land plants. It seems unjustifiable to attribute the extinction of these plants to the lowering of the temperature.

11. The present distribution of Buxus in Japan and the existence of many species in Central Japan in common with Northern China and Manchuria may be easily understood if they are taken as relics from the continental Pliocene age.

12. The alpine plants now growing in

Japan are concluded, therefore, to have migrated southward chiefly during the continental period of Japanese Islands in Pliocene rather than in Pleistocene.

Zoology

Studies on Japanese Mysidea

By Naoyoshi Ii

(Fisheries Institute, Faculty of Agriculture, Tokyo Imperial University; Japanese Journal of Zoology, Vol. VII, No. 1, October 25, 1936.) (Figures omitted.)

Genus Parastilomysis n. gen. Definition. First, second and fifth pleopods of the male rudimentary, unjointed and of the same form as in the female.

Third pleopod of the male biramous; endopod an unjointed plate; exopod 4-jointed and terminated by 2 short setae.

Fourth pleopod of the male biramous; endopod an unjointed plate; exopod long and 4-jointed, the third joint armed with a strong spinous seta on the outer distal corner, the fourth joint terminated by 2 long spinous setae.

Antennal scale narrowly lanceolate, setose all round and 2-jointed; apex rounded.

Mouth parts show no very marked difference from those in other genera of the tribe Mysini.

First thoracic limbs have a small masticatory lobe on the second joint, but not on the third and fourth joints.

Propodite of the third to the eighth thoracic limbs divided into 3 joints.

Female has three pairs of oostegites.

Telson cleft at the apex, cleft furnished with a pair of plumose setae and small spines on each margin, lateral margins armed throughout their length with spines.

Inner uropod with a row of spines along the inner margin.

Type: Parastilomysis paradoxa n. sp.

Remarks. The present genus belongs apparently to the tribe Mysini according Illig (1930), i.e. II D in his key, and is very closely allied to Stilomysis Norman (1892) and Nanomysis Tattersall (1921) in the structure of the pleopods of the male.

I have been considerably puzzled as to the number of joints on the exopod of the fourth pleopod of the male in the present genus. In the type species the basal part of the inner terminal seta on the exopod of the fourth pleopod is thick and swollen as shown in Fig. 12. The thick part is furnished with a tiny spine on the inner distal corner and there can be sometimes seen an obscure transverse line at the distal end of the said part. Therefore, the part gives us the impression that it may be a small joint. If we assume that the thick part is a small joint, the character of the pleopod of the present genus agrees absolutely with that of Stilomysis, and if we assume that the part is not a joint, the character approaches to that of Nanomysis.

After careful and close examination, however, it is revealed that the thick part is not a joint, but in fact only a swollen base on which the tiny spine grows. Though sometimes there can be seen an obscure transverse line at the distal end of the thick part, there exists no mark to enable one to recognize a joint on the outer margin of the seta. In some species belonging to the genera, Neomysis, Acanthomysis and Praneomysis, it is not a seldom occurrence that the same part of the seta is more or less thickened and provided with a tiny spine, so that it seems that the said thick part is rather a common character of the seta found in these allied genera.

It is a regret for me to be unable to say anything about the terminal small joint of the fourth pleopod in the genus Stilomysis as I could not obtain any specimens of Stilomysis. In 1928, Marukawa described S. camtschatica from the coast of Kamchatka, but he made no mention about the pleopods of the male in his description. So I think it doubtful whether the species described by him actually belongs to the genus Stilomysis.

The present genus agrees with stilomysis in the third pleopod of the male. The descriptions regarding the number of joints on the exopod of the third pleopod of the male in the genus Stilomysis are contradictory according to authors in several literatures. Zimmer in both of his papers (1904, 1909) described the pleopod as 4-jointed and in the latter paper he gave a figure of the pleopod with 4-jointed exopod. However. Zimmer (1915) in his key to the genera of the tribe Mysini described the pleopod as 3-jointed, and also Illig (1930) in his key to the Mysidae described it as 3-jointed. Reviewing all the referable literatures, I can only suppose that Zimmer mistook in describing the number of joints, or the number was misprinted in his key and Illig

carelessly cited the description of Zimmer's key.

At any rate, the present genus is very closely allied to both Stilomysis and Nanomysis, especially to the former, in the structure of the pleopods of the male. However, the only striking point of difference between the present and those genera lies in the character of the telson. As far as I am aware no members of the tribe Mysini, except Kainommatomysis Tattersall, have a telson cleft and furnished with a pair of plumose setae at its apex.

The form of the telson had been very largely used as an important generic character in the past, until Zimmer (1915) in his revision of the genera of the Myshini attempted to systematize the species of the tribe mainly on the character of the pleopods, so that some genera have been obliged to be characterized not solely by the shape of the telson, but raher by laying a greater generic importance on other characters. Tattorsall (1927), however, in his remarks on Kainommatomysis, says "the telson is more Leptomysini than Mysini in character. No members of the Mysini, as far as I can remember, has a pair of plumose setae at the apex of the telson. This feature, on the other hand, is characteristic of the Erythropini and of the Leptomysini." And I think the character of the telson in the present genus is also sufficient to warrant generic independence. Thus, here I separate the present genus from Stilomysis and Nanomysis mainly on the character of the telson.

Kainommatomysis is clearly distinguishable from the present genus in having the corneal lens and the third pleopod of the male rudimentary and of the same form as in the female.

The present genus is also distinguishable from Nanomysis by the absence of the masticatory lobes on the third and fourth joints of the endopod of the first thoracic limbs, by the number of joints of propodite of the third to the eighth thoracic limbs and of the oostegites and particularly by the characters of the telson and inner uropod.

Parastilomysis paradoxa n. sp. Localities. Off Hukuoka, Tusima Straits.

Type specimen. Abundant adult males and females (presented by Mr. K. Tuzinaga).

Misaki, Kanagawa Prefecture. About 20 adult specimens of both sexes.

Description. Front margin of the carapace produced into a short obtusely rounded rostral plate. Below the rostrum is a prominent pseudo-rostral process, triangular and acute in both dorsal and lateral views. Antero-lateral corners of the carapace rounded.

Eyes large, about as long as broad in dorsal view and somewhat flattened in lateral view; cornea occupying half of the eye in dorsal view; stalk with a tiny blunt spiniform process on the inner dorsal surface.

Antennular peduncle in the male with the first joint about as long as the third; male sexual appendage well developed and about as long as the third joint. In the female the first joint of the antennular peduncle almost as long as the 2 distal joints combined.

Antennal scale 7½ times as long as broad, apex rounded, 2-jointed, distal joint about 1/14 of the entire length of the scale, the scale extends for about 2/5 of its length beyond the antennular peduncle. Basal joint, from which the scale arises, with a prominent spine on the outer distal corner.

Front margin of the labrum without spinous process but produced into a short triangular process with rounded apex in ventral view.

Other members of the mouth parts show no very marked difference from those in other genera of the tribe.

First thoracic limbs have a small masticatory lobe on the second joint, but not on the third and fourth joints

Third to the eighth thoracic limbs with propodite divided into 3 joints. Basal plate of the exopod of all thoracic limbs with a small spine on the outer distal corner, but in the last thoracic limbs the spine is always very obscure.

Sixth abdominal somite 1 3/4 times as long as the fifth.

Third pleopod of the male biramous, endopod unjointed plate; exopod about twice as long as the endopod, extending to the first one-third point of the fifth abdominal somite, 4-jointed, the first joint slightly shorter than the half of the expond, the second joint about 1/3 of the first, the third joint about 1½ times as long as the second, the fourth about half as long as the third and terminated by 2 very short setae.

Fourth pleopod of the male biramous; endopod unjointed plate; exopod long, extending backwards to the statocyst, 4-jointed, the first joint slightly longer than the half of the exopod, the second joint about 1/4 of the first, the third joint about 1 1/3 times as long as the second and with a single strong spinous seta on the distal outer corner, the fourth joint about 1/3 of the third and terminated by 2 strong spinous setae, which are about 4 times as long as the joint and about as long as the seta on the third joint.

Telson about 1 1/6 times as long as the sixth abdominal somite and about 1 2/3 times as long as broad at the base, cleft for about 1/6 of its length; the cleft triangular, rounded at the apex, armed with a pair of plumose setae which are slightly longer than twice the length of the cleft, and with about 12 spines on each margin; lateral margins armed with 35–40 subequal spines extending throughout their entire length, the proximal spines more distantly placed than the distal ones; terminal lobes with the apex rounded, almost truncate, and armed with four spines, the inner pair of which are subequal, longer than the outer ones and about 1/10 of the length of the telson, the outer ones are about as long as the lateral spines.

Inner uropod about 1 1/3 times as long as the telson, the inner margin armed with a row of about 50 spines extending from the statocyst to the apex, the spines gradually widely spaced and increase in size to the apex, reach the greatest size at the second one-third point from the statocyst and then slightly decrease in size toward the apex. Statocyst large.

Outer uropod slightly shorter than twice of the length of the telson.

Length. Adult males and females, 15 mm.

Remarks. This species is very closely allied to Stilomysis grandis (Goës), but clearly distinguishable from it by the much different character of telson, and also slightly differs in the structure of the fourth pleopod of the male.

Genus Paracanthomysis n. gen. Definition. First, second, third and fifth pleopods of the male rudimentary, unjointed and of the same form as in the female.

Fourth pleopod of the male biramous; endopod short, unjointed and with a well developed side lobe; exopod long, unjointed and terminated by 2 strong spinous setae.

Antennal scale narrowly lanceolate, 2-jointed and setose all round; apex rounded.

Mouth parts, first and second thoracic limbs show no very marked difference from those in the genus Neomysis.

Propodite of the third to the eighth thoracic limbs many-jointed (about 5–8).

Telson is entire and not split.

Type: Paracanthomysis hispida n. sp.

Remarks. The present genus belongs to the tribe Mysini and apparently to Illig's (1930) group III, A, 2). It agrees with Limnomysis Czerniawsky (1882), Indomysis Tattersall (1914) and Idiomysis Tattersall (1922) equally in having the fourth pleopod of the male with the exopod unjointed, but differs from all of them in having the exopod terminated by 2 strong spinous setae.

The present genus is also very closely allied to Acanthomysis, which genus has been separated by the present author (1936) from Zimmer's (1915) comprehensive genus Neomysis. The only difference between the present genus and Acanthomysis lies in thte character of the fourth pleopod of the male.

Paracanthomysis Hispida n. sp. Localities. Misaki, Kanagawa Prefecture. Common in the growth of sea-weeds in the environs of the Misaki Marine Biological Station.

Type specimen. Abundant, adult males and females.

Port Huzan, Chosen (Korea). Abundand, adult males and females.

Oma, Aomori Prefecture. Abundant, immature males and females. Length, 8 mm.

Description. Body bright vermillion in life.

Carapace leaving the last thoracic somite exposed dorsally, hispid with dense minute spines; front margin of the carapace produced into a short triangular rostral plate with sharply pointed apex; antero-lateral corners of the carapace produced into acute spines.

Eyes, including the stalk. about 1½ times as long as broad; cornea occupying about 1/3 of the entire eye in dorsal view.

Antennular peduncle in the female slender and about 1/3 of the length of the carapace. In the male the antennular peduncle is considerably stouter and longer than in the female and about half as long as the carapace; the third joint almost as long as the first and provided with a dense group of about 20 spines on its inner distal corner, the second joint also provided with a spine on its inner distal corner; male sexual appendage about half as long as the third joint.

In the male the outer flagellum of the antennule is very stout, about twice as broad as the inner and curved like a cattle horn in the proximal part; inner flagellum normal. In the female the inner flagellum of the antennule characteristically shaped, narrowly lanceolate in shape, about thrice as broad as the outer and slightly longer than twice of the length of the peduncle; outer flagellum normal.

Antennal scale about 10 times as long as broad, 2-jointed, distal joint about 1/18 of the entire length of the scale; basal joint, from which the scale arises, with a spine on the outer distal corner. The scale in the male slightly shorter

than the antennular peduncle, but in the female extending beyond the antennular peduncle for about 1/3 of its length.

Antennal peduncle about half as long as the scale.

Mouth parts, first and second thoracic limbs show no very marked difference from those in the genus Neomysis.

Third to the eighth thoracic limbs with propodite divided into 5 joints. The fifth joint of the propodite armed with 2 peculiarly armed setae on each side of the dactylopodite.

The last thoracic somite and each of the 5 anterior abdominal somites armed with 2 broad transverse band of dense minute spines. The sixth abdominal somite slightly longer than the fifth, and hispid with dense minute spines almost all over the surface.

Fourth pleopod of the male biramous; basal joint short; endopod short and with well developed side lobe; exopod long, very stout, extending to the posterior end of the last abdominal somite, unjointed and terminating into 2 strong spinous setae which are about 3/7 of the length of the exopod. Proximal part of the exopod broadened and the outer proximal corner raised into a keel. The exopod slightly swollen and armed with 1–2 plumose setae on the inner margin at 4/7 point from the base and gives the impression that there is a joint, but there can be observable no chitinous transverse demarcation.

Telson linguiform, about 1 2/3 times as long as the last abdominal somite and about 2 1/3 times as long as broad at the base; lateral margins abruptly narrowing and concave in the first 1/3 part, slightly convex in the second 1/3 part and then gradually narrowing towards a bluntly rounded apex; the lateral spines near the base stout and rather widely spaced, about the middle of the margins the spines are grouped into about 8 series, each series composed of a large spine followed with 2–7 small ones, in the last 1/4 of the margins the spines are short, very closely set and of even size, appearing like a row of closely set teeth rather than articulated spines; the apex armed with 2 pairs of spines, the outer pair slightly longer than the neighbouring lateral spines, the inner pair slightly shorter than the outer.

Inner uropod slightly shorter than the telson, the ventral inner margin armed with about 5 spines near the statocyst.

Outer uropod about 1 1/3 times as long as the telson.

Length. Adult males and females, 18 mm.

Remarks. The present species shows many points of resemblance to those of the genus Acanthomysis, but differs from them in the character of the fourth pleopod of the male. The unique form of the outer flagellum of the antennule in the male and the inner flagellum of the same in the female are quite characteristic for the present species and unlike any other Mysids hitherto known.

Paracanthomysis Kurilensis n. sp. Locality. Suribati Bay, the Island of Horomusiro, Tisima (Kurile) Islands. Type specimen. 2 males, 30 females.

Description. Carapace leaving the last thoracic somite exposed dorsally; front margin of the carapace produced into a short triangular rostral plate with rounded apex; antero-lateral corners of the carapace rounded.

Eyes, including the stalk, 1½ times as long as broad; cornea occupying about 2/5 of the whole eye in dorsal view; stalk stout, hispid with short hairs and provided with a tiny spiniform process on the inner dorsal surface.

Antennular peduncle in the female rather slender, about ¼ of the length of the carapace and shorter than the antennal scale, the third joint shorter than the first and provided with about 4 long plumose setae on the inner distal corner. In the male the antennular peduncle considerably stouter and longer than in the female, about 1/3 of the length of the carapace and slightly longer than the antennal scale; the first joint shorter than the third.

Antennal scale about 6½ times as long as broad, 2-jointed; distal joint about 1/16 of the length of the scale; basal joint, from which the scale arises, with a spine on the outer distal corner.

Antennal peduncle in the female about half as long as the scale. In the male the antennal penduncle stouter and longer than in the female.

Flagella of both the antennule and the antenna in the female shorter than those in the male.

Mouth parts, first and second thoracic limbs show no very marked difference from those in the genus Neomysis.

Third to the eighth thoracic limbs slender; propodite of the third and fourth limbs is 8-jointed, and that of the fifth to the eighth limbs 7-jointed; meropodite strong and longer than carpopodite. Basal plate of exopod of all thoracic limbs provided with a tiny spine on the outer distal corner.

The last thoracic somite and the somites of the abdomen with transverse folds of chitinous integument which give the impression that each somite is sub-divided into subsidiary somites.

The last thoracic somite with 2 and each of all abdominal somites with 3 such folds. In the 4 anterior abdominal somites the foremost fold is widely broken off on the dorsal surface and divided into a pair of folds developed only on lateral sides. In the fifth and sixth abdominal somites each of the folds or the posterior margins of each subsidiary somite narrowly broken off at the mid-dorsal line and slightly produced into a pair of short broad plate overhanging the next subsidiary somites on each side. The sixth somit 1 ½ times as long as the fifth.

Fourth pleopod of the male biramous; basal joint short and broad; endopod short and with well developed side lobe; exopod long, extending to the posterior end of the last abdominal somite, unjointed and terminated by 2 strong spinous setae; about ¾ point from the base the exopod armed with a plumose seta on the inner margin and the point appears very like a joint, but there can be seen no chitinous division.

Telson long triangular, about twice as long as the last abdominal somite and about thrice as long as broad at the base; apex narrowly rounded; lateral margins armed throughout their whole length by many slender spines, the proximal 1/3 of the margins with the spines rather widely spaced, the remaining part of the margins with the spines grouped into 10–12 series, each series composed of a large spine followed by smaller ones; the smaller spines gradually grow longer posteriorly and the groups of the smaller spines varying in number 1–2 proximally to 5–6 in the distal groups; the larger spines decreasing in size posteriorly toward the apex and near the apex they became almost as long as the smaller spines; the apex armed with a pair of extra small spines in the narrow gap between the last pair of lateral spines.

Inner uropod slightly shorter than the telson and with 4–5 spines on the ventral inner margin near the statocyst.

Outer uropod 1/5 longer than the telson.

Length. Adult males and females, 13 mm.

Remarks. I have been somewhat puzzled as to the systematic position of the present species, for my material contains only 2 adult male specimens with more or less damaged fourth pleopod. In all samples the exopods of the fourth pleopod have been more or less abnormally bent at a short distance from the base. The bent part looks very like a joint. However, after close examination I have reached the conclusion that the part is not a joint on the following grounds that (1) there can be observable no chitinous transverse division on that part and (2), moreover, the relative situation of the part differs, though slightly, in each sample.

In other respects the present species very closely agrees with the character of the genus Paracanthomysis, which I have established for the species, P. hispida n. sp., and I am sure of the correctness of identifying the present species as belonging to the genus. I hope that male specimens with perfect fourth pleopod will be found some day, and the correctness of the identification may be further demonstrated.

The present species is distinguishable from P. hispida by the flagella of the antennule, the armature of the telson and the presence of the folds on the abdominal somites.

Astronomy and Geophysics

Reports on Solar Eclipse Observations on June 19, 1936

Solar Eclipse Observation at Mombetsu on June 19, 1936. Preliminary Report of the Eclipse Party from the Astronomical Institute of the Imperial University of Tokyo. Yusuke Hagihara, Masaki Kaburaki, Mitsumasu Toda and Toshitsugu Oowaki. (Japanese.) [Tokyo Astr. Obs. Report, 4 (1936), 158.] The aim of the observation of the party was to take the photographs of the corona in two different colour ranges in order to determine its intensity distribution and also to take the photographs of the flash spectra and the coronal spectra through an objective prism. The observing station was chosen on the ground of the Mombetu primary school. In the beginning of the partial eclipse the sun was seen through a cloud but at about 40 minutes before the totality the sun was covered by thick clouds and it even rained. Fortunately the totally eclipsed sun came out of the clouds 40 seconds after the second contact.

The instruments and the program:—

1) An equatorial with a visual telescope (aperture 16.2 cm, focal length 245 cm) by Mertz together with a photographic telescope (aperture 18 cm, focal length 213 cm) by Cooke attached to it. By the former

telescope four photographs of the corona were taken through a Riken "ultrazin" filter No. 4 and twenty-two photographs of the partial eclipse through a Riken "ultrazin" filter No. 5. By the latter telescope two photographs of the flash spectra were taken through a 15°-objective prism. The spectra of the corona could not be photographed.

2) A camera with a 6-inch Dallmeyer photographic quartet lens (aperture 6 inch, focal length 85 cm) was attached to a 5-inch Cooke equatorial. Four photographs of the outer corona were taken with a diaphragm of 8 cm aperture with exposure 1^s, 4^s, 16^s, 1^s. The same exposures with a diaphragm of 4 cm aperture were planned, but the weather prevented from pursuing the program.

3) Four direct photographs of the corona were taken through an optical wedge by Zeiss with exposures 1^s, 4^s, 16^s, 16^s. A cylindrical lens was placed in front of the wedge in order to gather the coronal light, except the last exposure. The four exposures were made on one and the same plate to be used for the photometry of the corona.

4) During the twilight of the same evening two photographs of the same part of the sky were taken both through the camera and through the optical wedge without the cylindrical lens, in order to determine the light gathering power of the camera lens.

5) Two photographs through the camera of a zenith star and a star with the same altitude as the totally eclipsed sun were taken in the same night in order to determine the atmospheric extinction.

6) Several laboratory photographs of a standard lamp through the wedge with various exposures and with different distances from the lamp were taken for the purpose of the photometric investigation of the corona.

7) Direct photographs of a full moon in August were taken in Tokyo through the cylindrical lens in front of the wedge.

Ilford soft gradation panchromatic plates were used throughout and the development was done very carefully after arrival in Tokyo. On account of the weather condition during the totality the plates did not seem so satisfactory for precise photometric measurement.

The work was assisted by the students of the Institute.

A Short Report on the Observation of Einstein-Effect in the Total Solar Eclipse of Hokkaido on June 19, 1936. (Japanese) **Kiyofusa Sotome and Gemma Yoshida.** [Tokyo Astr. Obs. Report, 4 (1936), 137–138.] The observation was made by means of an astrographic refractor, English mounting, with a Cooke triplet of 30 cm aperture and of 3.5 m focal length, which was set at the south eastern corner of the playground of the primary school of Memanbetu, a country village near Abashiri of Kitami Prefecture. 50-second exposures were made on two plates, through a gap between passing cloud masses. Owing to the unfavourable weather condition, the plates could show no star image. Also the corona images do not appear to be available for the investigation of the structural details, nor for any photometric measurement owing to the extreme over-exposure. Cinematographic observation was also tried, but with no good result. Visual observations of contact times made with a telescope of 20 cm aperture gave the following result:

First Contact:	5h	10^m	$43^s.3$ (U. T.)
Second Contact:	6	21	37 .8
Third Contact:	6	23	26 .0
Fourth Contact:	7	27	35 .0

Observation of the Total Solar Eclipse of June 19, 1936, made at Nakatombetsu, Hokkaido. (Japanese) **Masa Hashimoto and Toyozo Okuda.** [Tokyo Ast. Obs. Report, 4 (1936), 139–140.] The observations were limited mainly to the corona spectra, an aim of taking flash spectra being appended to the program. The weather was almost clear about the phase of totality and two photographs were taken successfully with the exposures of 75^s and 20^s together with iron arc comparison spectra. The instrument used was a visual refractor of 20 cm aperture and 306 cm focal length, to which was attached a three prism spectrograph. The spectrograph was composed of the following optical parts:

Collimator:	aperture 5 cm, focal length 81 cm;
Camera lens:	aperture 6 cm, and focal length 22 cm.

The spectrogram of 57^s exposure showed only three emission lines of corona, namely λ 4231, λ 4566, λ 5303. No Fraunhofer line was recognized.

Further details are reserved for a later investigation.

Short Report on the Observation of the Total Solar Eclipse of 1936, made at Kunneppu, Hokkaido. (Japanese) **Okuro Oikawa** [Tokyo Astr. Obs. Report, 4 (1936), 141–143.] The author's aim was to take flash spectra with a moving plate devise, at a place near the southern limit of the totality. The observation was made, assisted by Mr. H. Aida, a research student of the Astronomical Institute of the Imperial

University of Tokyo, by means of a refractor with a Brashear quartet of 20 cm aperture and 1,27 m focal length, to which was attached a system of objective prisms. The latter was composed of two prisms, one of 18 cm aperture and 45° refracting angle, made by Steinheil u. Söhne, Ltd., and the other of 15 cm aperture and 15° refracting angle, made by Cooke and Sons, Ltd. The observations were interrupted by clouds and the plate taken showed no measurable lines, though a number of ill-defined chromospheric lines are recognized.

Observations of the Total Solar Eclips of June 19, 1936, made at Nishin Camp of Memanbetsu Village near Abashiri, Kitami Pref. Hokkaido. (Japanese) **Masao Notsuki, Shigeo Ishii and Yoshio Fujita.** [Tokyo Astr. Obs. Report, 4 (1936), 144-149.] The main program of observations was to take flash spectra with a plane grating and with a prism spectrograph. The particulars of the instruments are:

1. A plane grating of 36 cm² ruled surface, with 14000 lines per inch, was used with a camera lens of 10 cm aperture and 1.55 m focal length and a collimator which is composed of two concave mirrors, one being of 15 cm aperture and 1.55 m focal length, and the other of 13.5 cm aperture and 2.55 m focal length. The region of spectrum to be taken was from λ 5500 to λ 7000 Å (Notuki in charge).

2. The prism spectrograph used was of E_2-pattern of Adam Hilger, with one Cornu prism of 60° refracting angle and the lenses for the camera and the collimator; each being of 5 cm aperture and 56 cm focal length. The condensing lens for forming the solar image was of 7 cm aperture and 1.30 m focal length. All the lenses are made of quartz. The region of spectrum to be taken was λ 3100-6000 Å and the dispersion was about 12 Å/mm at 3060Å (Fujita in charge).

Both instruments were used with a common coelostat, the second mirror being dispensed with. Of course, the E_2-spectrograph was set in an inclined position to have the slit nearly in the direction of tangent to the sun's limb at the point of contact.

Five exposures made with the grating spectrograph were: (1) for Fraunhofer spectrum of the center of the disk (with a slit), (2) for flash spectrum at the second contact, (3) for corona spectrum at the maximum obscuration, (4) for flash spectrum at the third contact and (5) for Fraunhofer spectrum by the third contact.

Four exposures made with the prism spectrograph were: (1) for flash spectrum at the second contact, (2) for corona spectrum with tangential slit, (3) for Fraunhofer spectrum at the limb immediately after the third contact and (4) for comparison spectra of iron arc.

Being interrupted by clouds, which were almost incessantly passing over the sun during the totality, no measuable lines were obtained except on the last plate of grating spectrograph, which seems to give some results of value. Further details are reserved for a report to be issued later.

Dr. S. Ishii, with others, visually observed contact times; the mean value of observed times came out as $5^h\ 10^m\ 56^s.7$ and $6^h\ 21^m\ 48^s.0$ (U. T.) for the first and second contacts respectively.

Observations of the Total Solar Eclipse of June 19, 1936, made at Monbetsu, Hokkaido. (Japanese) **Kazuo Kubokawa.** [Tokyo Astr. Obs. Report, 4 (1936), 150-152.] In this short report the author describes briefly the instrumental equipment, the method of observation and the summary of the results. The work was limited to the corona photography with a long focus lens. The instrument consisted of a visual doublet of 17 cm aperture and 11.5 m focal length, a coelostat of 17 cm aperture and a camera, all in horizontal mounting.

Owing to the nasty weather, the observations were not made satisfactorily. During the totality only three exposures were made through passing clouds. Some of those plates show structural details of corona although not very distinct, with several prominences. One of the coronal streamers extends over a distance of 0.7 times of the sun's diameter from the limb, and a K-formed prominence reaches a height of 12-13000 km above the limb. He also reports the sesult of observations of the time of the third contact made by Mr. K. Tuzi who has come over to join him from his own site, which was selected for astronomical determination of geographical position. The result is; $6^h\ 22^m\ 7^s.3$ (U. T.); the observation being made visually with a Cooke equatorial of 9 cm aperture and 140 cm focal length.

A Short Report on the Observation of the Total Solar Eclipse of June 19, 1936, made at Shari, Kitami Prefecture, Hokkaido. (Japanese) **Tadahiko Hattori.** [Tokyo Astr. Obs. Report, 4 (1936), 153-154.] The author's intention was to take emission spectra of the solar corona in visual region. He used a prism spectrograph of Littrow type, which was constructed by himself in collecting the following parts from the laboratory of the Tokyo Astronomical Observatory and the Physical Institute of the Imperial University of Tokyo:—

(1) Collimator and camera lenses: Tessar type of 11 cm aperture and 50 cm focal

length.

(2) Three glass prisms of 30° refracting angle from Carl Zeiss, all having the length 17 cm and the height 12 cm.

The sun's image of 5 mm diameter was formed on the slit, through a condensing lens of 50 cm focal length and the aperture ratio 1/4.0, the sun's beam being reflected horizontally from 40 cm coelostat mirror, toward the west.

The sky around the sun after some hours of cloudiness cleared up temporarily by the time of totality. An exposure to the corona was made for 80^s with iron arc comparison before and after it. After development, the plate was found to be very poor, probably owing to some disturbance in the adjustment of the instrument. Only two emission lines were recognized: λ 5303 and λ 6374, probably of coronal origin.

Monochromatic Images of Solar Corona taken with a Slitless Spectrograph at Nisshin Camp near Memanbetsu Village, in Hokkaido on June 19, 1936. (Japanese) **Rikichi Sekiguchi.** [Tokyo Astr. Obs. Report, 4 (1936), 155–156.] The author briefly describes the scheme of observations and some particulars of the equipment, giving general summary of the results. The spectrograph consisted of a Tessar camera lens of 5.5 cm aperture and 25 cm focal length and the following train of glass prisms:

(1) 45° refracting angle and minimum deviation of 25° 37′ for λ 5900.

(2) 60° refracting angle and minimum deviation of 48° 28′ for λ 5900.

(3) 62°.5 refracting angle and minimum deviation of 55° for λ 5900.

(4) Rutherfurd compound prism of minimum deviation 46° 08′ for λ 5900.

The lens was used with reduced aperture of 28 mm, since the prisms are not large enough to cover the whole bundle of rays from full aperture. The whole instrument was constructed by the author himself with the help of mechanicians of the Central Meteorological Observatory of Japan at Tokyo. The observations and testings of the instruments were made by Mr. M. Koiwai under the author's supervision. The dispersion of the spectrograph was about 50 Å/mm in the mean for the region between F and C lines.

The instrument was mounted horizontally to meet the rays from a coelostat mirror of 8 cm aperture, and three exposures were made as follows: (1) 5^s for the first flash, (2) 50^s for the corona and (3) 5^s for the last flash. In spite of very poor sky condition, a few monochromatic images of corona were recognized on those plates, together with a number of chromospheric arcs, among which λ 5303 ring on the second plate was of rather pronounced strength. Although the definition of those corona images was not satisfactory, owing to the effect of clouds which were passing over the sun during the exposure, they may not be without use in drawing some conclusion about the distribution of λ 5303 light around the disk. Reports on some quantitative results will be reserved for a latter occasion.

Special Wireless Time Signals for the Use of the Eclipse Observation, June 19, 1936. (Japanese) **Masashi Miyaji.** [Tokyo Astr. Obs. Report, 4, (1936), 165–167.] The author describes the system of code of wireless time signals issued by the Tokyo Astronomical Observatory, through Hunabashi and Kemigawa wireless stations, for the benefits of the observers of the total solar eclipse on June 19. Two different systems were issued. The one is nothing other than the ordinary rhythmic system for daily use in Japan and was issued at the beginning of each hour from 1h p.m. to 5h p.m. of 135° meridian. In the other system, each second of mean solar time was sent by a short dot during 10 minutes commencing from a little before the second contact. The former was to facilitate the accurate determinations of corrections of time keepers, while the latter was mainly for direct controls of the proper time of the photographic exposures.

Spectrum of Corona observed during the Total Solar Eclipse of June 19, 1936, at Nisshin of Memanbetsu Village in Hokkaido. (Japanese) **Rikichi Sekiguchi.** [Special Report on the Works by the Central Meteorological Observatory of Japan concerning the Total Solar Eclipse of June 19, 1936, 5–13.] The observation was originally so planned that the intensity variation of some telluric line which is suspected to occur during the course of the eclipse (ozone and water vapour) may be detected, the observation of the corona spectrum being appended in the program as a secondary work. Thus a spectrograph has been specially designed and so adjusted to meet the above purpose. It was constructed in the workshop of the Observatory with the following optical parts:—

(1) Two 55° prisms of heavy flint glass, with the dimension of 105 by 60 mm, made by Nippon Kogaku Kogyo Kaisha.

(2) Collimator lens of 50 mm aperture and 40 cm focal length, Zeiss Uvial triplet;

(3) Camera lens of Tessar type having and aperture 55 mm and focal length 25 cm, made by Nippon Kogaku Kogyo Kaisha.

The spectrograph is of an ordinary laboratory use and was set horizontally together with a coelostat of 80 mm aperture and a light gathering lens of ordinary

doublet with an aperture 70 mm and the focal length 30 cm, optical axis being in the direction of about N55°E.

Very poor sky condition made it almost hopeless to secure good plate suitable for the meteorological investigation in our mind. Only three successive exposures of the corona have been made through passing clouds, on an Ilford Astra III plate, with the slit nearly tangential to the eastern limb of the moon and slightly inside the latter. The third exposure has been a failure due to the interruption of the photospheric light, owing to prolonged exposure. The first and second exposures of 57^{s} and 30^{s} respectively, gave a number of chromospheric and other emission lines. The chromospheric lines are evidently due to the scattering of light of the prominences by clouds. Green corona line, λ 5303, appeared extremely strong. Also Hα, Hβ, Hδ, D3 came out very strong.

Lacking any comparison spectrum, the wave lengths have only to be roughly estimated by referring to those of prominent chromospheric lines. Unidentified lines are as follows:—

4312.5	r. w.	*	5979.6	r. s.	
4445.4	a.		6171.3	r. w.	
5115.5	w.	*	6206.8	v. w.	
5302.8	v. st.	*	6227.2	w.	
5538.5	w.		6272.0	r. w.	
5621.6	r. w.		6377.5	r. w.	*
5681.4	v. w. a.		6541.1	r. w.	
5718.1	v. w. a.		6612.1	w.	
5734.6	w.		6701.7	w.	*
5790.3	v. w.		6776.1	v. w.	*
5905.6	r. w.		6812.8	v. w.	

v. s.=very strong, s.=strong, w.=weak, r.w.=rather weak, a.=ambiguous.

Those marked with stars may probably be attributed to the coronal emission.

Beside them several Fraunhofer lines could be recognized as follows:— 5123.7 (w.), 5949.8 (r. s.), 6281.1 (r. s.), 6344.6 (r. s.), 6475.9 (s.), 6867.4 (v. s., B-band of water vapour).

Solar Corona observed during the Total Solar Eclipse of June 19, 1936, at Nisshin of Memanbetsu Village in Hokkaido. (Japanese) **Kunio Yoshinari** [Special Report on the Work by the Central Meteorological Observatory of Japan concerning the Total Solar Eclipse of June 19, 1936.] The author's works were limited to the direct photography of the sun and corona in the partial and total phases respectively. He used an equatorial refractor with an apochromatic objective of 10 cm aperture and 150 cm focal length, which was made by Nippon Kogaku Kogyo Kaisha. The telescope was driven by a clock-work made in the observatory workshop. For the partial phases a magnifying devise was used, which gave a solar image of 5 cm diameter, whereas for the total phase no such device was used.

For the partial phase the exposures were made three times near the first contact and twice near the fourth contact. The times of contact came out as 5^{h} 10^{m} 53^{s} (U. T.) in the mean from three plates, being calculated by extrapolation of the varying degrees of obscuration corresponding to each time of exposure. The time keeper used was a pendulum clock kept in an underground room, whose correction and rate were accurately determined by comparison with the rhythmic wireless time signals.

The exposures for the corona were:

(1)	for	0^{s}.1	from	6^{h}	21^{m}	53^{s}
(2)	„	1.0	„	22	11	
(3)	„	0.1	„	22	28	
(4)	„	5.0	„	22	43	
(5)	„	0.5	„	22	57	
(6)	„	16.0	„	23	15	

For (1) and (2), Ilford Astra plates, and for (3), (4) and (5) Eastman panchromatic plates were used. The exposure (6) was made with Eastman infra red plate, 850 Hart, through an orange filter.

The plates (1), (2), (3) and (5) were much disturbed by clouds, whereas (4) and (6) were found almost free from any serious disturbance. On the former we perceive the following streamers or rays.

East limb
S 60°: sharp and long,
N 40°: sharp but broad,
Near equator: weak and fairly long.

West limb
S 60°: sharp and long.
N 40° and 30°: „ „ ,
Equator: small but distinct.

In the south of the equator the form of the corona was fairly symmetrical. The above features well correspond to the distribution of frequency of prominences observed at Kakioka in the corresponding period, i.e. primary maximum at 60° and secondary maximum at 30°.

On the same plate eight remarkable prominences were recognized as follows:—

Angle	Position Breadth	Height km
	°	
32°	2.4	29000
87	0.9	19000
144	0.7	16000
204	3.1	47000
232	0.5	13000
266	0.6	20000
276	0.4	13000
317	8.9	73000

Geology and Geography

The Meisen Miocene of North Korea

By Jiro Makiyama

[Mem. Coll. Sci. Kyoto Imp. Univ. Ser. B, 11, No. 4, Art. 8 (1936), pp. 193–228, 2 pls.]. The Meisen series is divisible in descending order as follows :—

6.	Upper Banko sandstone	200–400 m.
5.	Middle Banko sandstone	60–100 m.
4.	Lower Banko sandstone	70–100 m.
3.	Kantin shale	80–200 m.
2.	Inan sandstone	50–300 m.
1.	Heiroku conglomerate	200–300 m.

Heiroku conglomerate is false-bedded and composed chiefly of the dark coloured basaltic material supplied from the underlying Ryudo alkaline basalt. It is thick in the west, but thins out eastwardly. Batillaria, Arca, Cyclina, Ostrea gravitesta and Vicarya callosa are very common. The aspect of this fauna alludes to its intimate relation with the Uetuki Miocene in Chugoku as well as the lower Kadonosawa in northern Kitakami mountain. The writer has proposed a stage name "Uetukian" which probably represents the Burdigarian stage of Japan and its contained fauna distributed in the main island of Japan and Korean peninsula indicates that the water of the Uetukian time was warm.

At the base of the Inan sandstone is observed some undulated surface indicating the erosion interval between the Heiroku and Inan. With a marked contrast with the Heiroku conglomarate the sandstone is light coloured, arkose and unfossiliferous. Its material is believed to be derived from the granitic rocks. The sandstone overlaps the Heiroku southward and rests directly on the granite and dolomite.

Kantin shale shows the mud belt at the high tide of the Meisen transgression and yields a number of fossil animals and plant leaves. The floral list has already been provided by Tateiwa ; 12 species of the Molluscan fauna aside from bones of whales are collected from the sandstone. The Molluscan assemblage point the cold water condition.

Lower Bankodo sandstone was deposited in the belt of variables. Its base is sharply marked from the Kantin not only by the difference of lithic aspect, but by a sign of erosion at some places. The sandstone represents the beginning of the regression and it contains brackish water fauna including Ostrea, Anadara, Trapezium, Corbicula, Protothaca, Batillaria, and so forth.

The lower Banko consists of medium grained sands and sandstones while the middle Banko of sandstones and mudstones with intercalations of thin lignite seams. The mudstone yields the plant remains and fresh water shells, such as Unio, Planorbis, Viviparus and Lymnaea.

Upper Banko is made up almost completely of flase bedded coarse sands with small grained conglomerates in part. Sands are frequently ferruginous, This is the last stage of the sedimentation cycle, and almost barran of fossils. Fortunately, however, a mastodon close to Trilophodon angustidens was procured from the lower part of the bed from which it may be guessed that the age of the upper Banko may be not younger than the middle Miocene.

Along the eastern edge of this Tertiary field develops Entoku conglomerate which is an unfossilifeous thick one. It probably corresponds to the fossiliferous Tertiary beds in the west, but is certainly different from them in facies.

The writer distinguishes the Tertiary series into two groups, the lower Heiroku and upper Kantin. The former is brackish in the lower and fluviatile in the upper part. The latter on the other hand represents a complete cycle of sedimentation initiated with the littoral Inan and closed with the fluviatil upper Banko.

In the systematic description it is pointed out that 1) Anadara is suggested to be a subgenus of Arca and Arca antiquata L. pointed out for its type ; 2) Arca amicula and A. ogawai the Japanese species belonging to Anadara trilineata group; 3) Yoldia thraclaeformis group equal to Megayoldia Verril and Bush ; 4) Yoldia scapha and Y. gratiosa probably synonyms of Y. thraciaeformis; 5) O. gravitesta, when young, similar to O. gigas, but in the adult stage its thick shell and outline distinguish gravitesta from gigas ; Diplodonta usta group equal to the section of Felaniella Dall ; 6) M. donaciformis Kuroda synonymized with M. cuneiformis ; 7) Melania lineolata Griffith & Pidgeon, the type of Cerithidea, not much different from Cerithidea decollatus ; 8) distinction between Natica and Polinices by means of the material of operculum not convinient for the taxonomy of paleontologists and hence it may be better to recognize Polinices, Euspira, Neverita

and Tectonatica as subgenera of Natica ; 9) Pterorhytis Conran 1868 is a valid name, because Cerostoma Conrad 1837 is a homonym of an insect genus.

The followings are new genera, subgenera, species and subspecies :—

Joannisiella meisensis.
Lucina meisensis
Dosinia sirakii
Kaneharaia (subgenus of Dosinia ; type :—Dosinia kaneharai Yokoyama).
Meisenia (type : — Meisenia tateiwai, nov.).
Meisenia tateiwai.
Tateiwaia (subgenus of Batillaria ; type :—Batillaria tateiwai Makiyama).
Proclava (subgenus of Cerithium ; type :—Vertagus pfefferi Dunker).
Cerithium (Proclava) meisense.
Cerithidea (Cerithideospilla) sirakii.
Searlesia kurodai.
Searlesia kurodai kinseiensis.
Coraeophos (subgenus of Phos ; type : —Phos (Coraeophos) meisensis, nov.)
Phos (Coraeophos) meisensis.

T. Kobayashi.

Oceanography

Classification and Distribution of Islands of Japan

By Taro Tsujimura and Sadao Yamaguchi

(Geographical Institute, Tokyo Imperial University, Records of Oceanographic Works in Japan, Vol. IX No. 2, March, 1937)

The total number of small islands that make up Japan amounts to about 5529, excluding 623 in the mandated territory of the South Sea and 108 of the Kwantung leased territory.

In this paper, only islands smaller than Etorohu (3220 km²) of the Kuriles are considered, the large islands of Honshu, Shikoku, Kyushu and Hokkaido forming Japan proper, and Formosa being treated as mainlands.

Number of islands

	Circumference above 1 km	Circumference under 1 km
Japan proper	1080	2989
Honshu	382	1027
Shikoku	167	304
Kyushu	373	1046
Hokkaido	69	228
Ryukyu	89	384
Korea	1164	2315
Formosa	76	223
Saghalin	2	2
Sum	2324	5529

At first we can classify the islands into continental and oceanic simply in reference to their distance from the mainland.

Islands of either group are generally in groups.

The following classification of islands is made on geomorphic basis. First of all volcanic-, coral- and non-volcanic islands are genetically distinguished. Types intermediate between these three are the reef-encircled volcanic islands, reef-encircled non-volcanic islands and partially volcanic islands (ordinary islands but with one or more volcanoes on part of the island).

1) Volcanic Islands. Most of the oceanic islands can be said to be volcanic, and they have always a linear arrangement, viz. in arc or chain. Each volcanic islands in an arc, it seems, are separated from each other in a certain distance. In form they are generally conical and in stage of erosion very young. "Tholoide" islands are rare, the only examples being Unisiru North Is., and Tirihoi South Is., both in the Tisima arc, and Uthuryo-to in Korea.

"Aspite" islands are lacking in Japan proper, but one (Saisyu-to) in its dependent isles, Hiyo-to. On the contrary, several "pedionite" islands are in the Hoko group. Shikine-jima of the Izu chain is also of this type. The limit may exist in the size of one cone, but not in the compound ones as Etorohu or Kunashiri in the Chishima arc. Some of them have many volcanoes, as Paromushiru in the same arc, which is composed of a young conide, an "aspite," ten "tholoide" and a maturely dissected "conide".

Abrasion and erosion begins with the naissance of the volcanic island, and if the island body is small, the sea cliff may grow very rapidly and only the rock chimney may remain as Smith, Lot's Wife, Bayonnaise Rocks as in the Zunan arc. Oftenly volcanic island suffer upheaval or submergence or even both alternately. Three large islands near Hokkaido, Etorohu, Kunashiri, Uruppu, and Rebun, Rishiri on the western sea of Hokkaido, have marine terraces ; while the middle island of the Sulphur group, and Aguni and Kume in the Ryukyu arc are capped or fringed by elevated reefs.

Volcanic islands in the coral sea are ordinarily fringed by living coral reefs, but the highly cliffed islands are reefless, in contrast to those with embayed coast. There are ancient volcanoes of submarine origin, as the Bonin group or four islands along the east coast of Formosa. The Oki islands are also the same, but bear new tholoides on them.

2) Coral Islands. Atoll or table reef does not exist in the Japanese seas, while the barrier or fringing reefs are developed as far north as Suwanose in the Ryukyu arc on the west, and the Bonin chain on the east. Elevated reefs, barrier or fringing, are found on every island of the Ryukyu arc, except the Osumi subgroup near Kyusyu, and on the Bonin islands, while the Daito islands are sometimes stated to be elevated atolls.

3) Non-volcanic Islands. Most of them are only the highest portions of the depressed land. They occur generally in groups, but where the submergence was too great, only the eminent summits remain as isolated islands. When the original mountain was maturely dissected and rich in articulations, a later depression in a fairly large amount will produce the so-called skeleton island. Heguri island in Setouti is a good example. And where the depression is followed by faulting as in Setouchi, the island pattern is controlled by the trends of the respective fault scarp submerged. There are also many islands showing traces of recent upheaval; Awaji-shima in Setouchi is such a terraced island. A few islands of small size are due to mere abrasion, without participation of crustal movements, while many other islands are land-tied by sand bars, as in the north or northwest coast of Kyushu.

Non-volcanic island are mostly continental in origin and only a few, such as the Suisho group in the Chishima arc, the Osumi group in the Ryukyu arc and the Koshiki group, are oceanic. Thus the non-volcanic islands capped by volcano are few, exception being the three large ones in the Chishima arc and Rebun island.

We will now describe the topographical features of each island groups.

Oceanic Island A) Chishima arc. This arc has about fifty islands, stretching from Nemuro of Hokkaido to Kamchatka.

According to Tokuda's view, this arc is composed of many small island chains en échelon, and the larger the distance from Hokkaido, the greater is the interval between them. But here we classify them into three chains, based on morphological characters. The innermost islands are simple volcanic cones and are in a very young stage of erosion, except Makkaru. Araito and Raikokei volcanoes are still active. Islands at the middle form the main chain, and most of them have two or three volcanoes. The southernmost three are surrounded by several terraces of marine origin, cut into the Tertiary formation. Volcanoes are subject to slight dissection and still retain their conical form. Calderas are found on Onnekotan, Shimshiru, Etorohu, and only the former two and Uruppu are tholoides. The outermost Suisho islands near Nemuro peninsula are small non-volcanic islands and they have complex coast-lines due to the recent submergence.

B) Islands along the Japan Sea coast. Here this name is used for these islands in an arc beginning from Kaiba island in the western side of Saghalin, passing Sado, Oki, Iki, and Tsushima, ending at Goto and Ome islands. This arc is divided into three chains, B_1 in the northern part of Japan, B_2 in the southern part and Tsushima islands.

In the B_1 chain, Rishiri, Oshima, and Koshima are considered to be new volcanic islands and Rebun is the young tholoide on the Tertiary base. Most of the islands in this chain may be said to be upheaved islands, and the terrace height attains 1100m in Sado and 580m in Okuziri. But a recent small submergence occurred in Sado and Aoshima; the present outline of the former consisting of two blocks linked together is largely due to this process.

The islands of the B_2 chain have basement of sedimentary rocks and covered with basaltic lava, and are plateau-like in their forms. This is the case of Iki, Mishima, and Goto Islands. Only the Oki group has overlying lava domes. The submergence topography is general in these islands of the B_2 group and the length of embayments sometimes reach to 6 km in Tsushima and Iki, and 5 km in Oki and Goto.

C) Zunan Arc. This arc is composed of Izu, Bonin and Sulphur Ids. and is the southern extension of the Fuji volcanic zone. The islands of the Izu chain are all young volcanoes, but abrasion progressed so greatly that some are highly cliffed (Toshima, Mikura-shima). In this chain we can distinguish Oshima group of andesitic cones from Nii-jima group of liparitic domes.

The islands of Oshima group are simple in structure, except the twin volcanoes of Hachijo. They are all

young, and Oshima, Miyakejima, Aogashima and Tori-shima are all now active. In the islands of Nii-jima group, there are two domes underlaid by tuff cones.

The Bonin chain includes old volcanic islands of submarine origin, and there we can see the elevated abrasion platforms (Haha-jima, Muko-jima) and elevated coral reefs of Tertiary age (Chichi-jima). Since they have suffered from the later submergence, shorelines are intricate and now fringed by living coral-reefs.

The Sulphur or Volcanic islands are three conides, viz. north, middle and south, and the middle one has besides a cone, a tuff dome, on which an elevated reef exists at the height of 110 m.

D) Koshiki group. This group is the prolonged part of the Kyushu mountains and includes Koshiki islands of the Mesozoic formation and Uji islands and others of geological formations of unknown ages.

E) Ryukyu arc. This arc was divided into three chains on the view of tectonic, but geographically it can be separated into two, namely inner zone of volcanic cones and the outer row of large islands. The former is the southern extension of Kirishima volcanic zone in Kyushu. Except a few, they are mostly fresh cones, but in detail, we can distinguish three phases of volcanic activity among them, active (Kutino-erabu, Suwanose), extinct (Aguni, Kume) and ancinet (Pinnacle Ids.).

The main chain comprises Osumi-, Amami-, Okinawa- and Sakishima groups, and these groups are composed of several subgroups. The structure and form of the islands are very complex; there are Tertiary, Mesozoic and Paleozoic formations, and benches of elevated reefs occur side by side with embayments of recent date. Moreover, the islands are surrounded by fringing or barrier reefs.

The Daito group which crosses obliquely the above mentioned two chains has three small islands; these are all elevated atolls and have living barrier reefs.

F) Islands along the east coast of Formosa. These volcanic islands have been elaborately carved by erosion and upheaved afterwards.

G) Hoko group. This group has 54 islands in five subgroups, excluding those smaller than 100 m in length. These are mesas of successive basalt flows; the uppermost bed is 5 or 6 m thick, having fine columnar joints, the middle one is porous and the lowest lies below sea level.

H) Saishu-to group. The giantic shield volcano of Saishu-to and its dependant small isles (26) make up this group. The main island has many parasitic cones, numbering 360 or more.

Apart from the oceanic islands in groups, there are a few isolated islands. Okino-erabu (136°E, 205°N) and South Tori-shima (145° E, 24°14′ N) are small coral islands and Utsuryo-to (130°50′E, 37°30′N) is a volcanic island.

Continental Islands a) Around Ojika Peninsula. The submerged southern part of the Kitakami mountainland has small islands as granitic Kinkazan and others of Mesozoic formations with the bench corresponding to the terrace of 60 m height of the adjacent land.

b) In Matsushima Bay hundreds of small islands are enclosed in the depressed rectangular water area governed by two fault systems of NE-SW and NW-SE. These islands are divided into two groups, Matsushima and Eboishi group.

c) In Atsumi Bay. Scattered small islands in the bay heart are submerged granitic hills. Larger islands at the bay mouth are the extension of Chita peninsula.

d) Around Shima peninsula.

e) In Kii channel.

f) In Bungo channel.

These islands of Mesozoic or Paleozoic formation are formed by the down-warping of the outer zone of southeast Japan, and arranged parallel to the mountain system.

g) Nagato dependent islands.

h) In the north coast of Kyushu. Several islands of granite, Paleozoic- and Tertiary rocks have abrasion surfaces (60–70 m), covered with basalt flow. A few of them are land-tied as Shiga-shima, Keyazaki and Kane-no-misaki.

i) In the northwest coast of Kyushu. Innumerable isles scattered in the sea near Nagasaki, were born as the result of submergence diminishing inclination of the former land surface.

j) Setouchi island group. These islands were produced by submergence followed by faulting, in the north of the median line of southwest Japan. This group may be divided into many subgroups (eight or more), and their boundary lines have a definite liner strike of NE-SW or NW-SE, and most of them are belived to be submerged fault scarps. The degree of submergence is different in each subgroup. Greater the sinking fewer the islands, and there occur even vacant areas, so-called nada. Except the largest island of this group, Awaji, is no traces of upheaval. Most of them is non-vol-

canic, but there are mesa (Te-shima, Yashima) and several butte islands (Ozuchi, Kozuchi).

k) Amakusa group. This island group lies in the sea once continued to the Setouchi, but now separated from it by the eruption of Also and other volcanoes, and may thus be called the islands of the Setouchi type. The recent upheaval is known in this group.

In addition to the above mentioned islands, there are many continental ones along the coast, but they do not form distinct groups. The details about them and two thousands islands dependent of Korea are put aside from the present consideration.

Engineering

Destructive power of earthquakes and resistance of structures

By R. Tanabashi

[J. I. J. A. Vol. 49, No. 598 (1935).] —The present assumption regarding the destructive power of earthquakes and resistance of structures to them does not satisfactorily explain the destructive intensity of earthquakes and its damage to structures. The author proposes a new assumption showing more clearly the relation between the destructive intensity of an earthquake and its damage to structures.

The present assumption is that the destructive force of earthquakes depends on the maximum acceleration of the earth's motion, and that the resistance of structures is the safely applicable horizontal force staticaly to the structure.

As to the former, not only does the maximum acceleration of a severe earthquake almost always reach such large values as 0.4 g–0.5 g, in which g represents the acceleration of gravity, but also in quite harmless earthquakes, a maximum acceleration of as much as 0.3 g has recently been recorded. So long as our calculations are based on the foregoing assumption, our present construction designs to resist a maximum acceleration of 0.1 g cannot be regarded as reasonable despite the fact that the safety-factor for strength of material is about 3. It should be noted however that the large acceleration thus observed cannot continue for any length of time, acting on the structure instantaneously. One must therefore regard the destructive power of an earthquake as the integrated value of acceleration by time, which means maximum velocity.

The energy transmitted to the structure is roughly proportional to the square of the max. velocity of the earth's motion, which assumption somewhat satifactorily explains the relation between past earthquakes as recorded by the seismograph and their damage to houses.

Since the destructive force of earthquakes is regarded as kinetic energy transmitted to the structure, the resistance of a structure must be the potential energy that can be stored in the structure up to its collapse. The earthquake-proof quality of a structure therefore depends not only on the type of construction, but largely on the physical properties of the constructive material. Steel, the most ductile material, is the best, followed by wood and reinforced concrete, while brittle materials, such as brick and stone, are the worst.

Should the structure collapse through excess of stress in the construction material, the earthquake-proof quality can be improved by raising the flexibility of the material, while should the structure overturn through excess of deformation which renders the structure unstable, the earthquake-proof quality can be improved by increasing the rigidity of the material used.

The Ikegai Diesel Engine

By Takeo Imai

[Trans. Soc. Mech. Eng., Japan, Vol.1, No. 4, 1935, 317–322, with 10 figs. and 3 tables.]—The Ikegai Iron Works, in 1930, announced the addition to their line of Diesel engines of a 4 Cycle, 4 Cylinder, automotive Diesel engine that developed 50H.P. Continuous studies of the performance of the engine since then resulted in the construction in 1934, of a new ideal engine, the outstanding feature of which was a special combustion chamber designed for smokeless, perfect combustion, and of the solid injection vertical type. There are two types, 4 HSD 10 and 6 HSD 10.

The specification of the engine is given in the paper.

The special combustion chamber in the cylinder head is so shaped that the air flows with violent turbulence, and owing to the heat accumulating device, perfect combustion, high fuel economy, and higher output are obtained.

The fuel pump is of the Ikegai type, protected by patent No. 181716.

To overcome the starting difficulty, an effective device arranged on the nozzle sprays the oil under higher injection pressure when starting, so that the engine can be easily started cold, it actually doing so easily from—25°C.

As the fuel pump is regulated through the special governor, the engine does not stop nor overrun under any circumstances, thus enabling smooth running throughout the speed range.

This automotive Diesel engine is serviceable not only for busses, trucks, and trailers, but also for small switching lccomotives and Diesel cars.

Ishida's Ball Grinder

By Michio Ishida

[J. Japan. Precision Machinery Asso, II., 2(1935), 45–49, with fig.]—A ball grinder to make crystal balls that has been designed by the author is described.

The essential part of this grinder is two horizontal parallel circular discs of cast iron rotating on two fixed vertial axes at different positions. Many semispherical concavities are drilled on the upper side of the lower disc and pieces of material for making crystal balls are inserted into these holes one by one. A rubber plate fixed to the lower side of the upper disc is brought into contact with the balls in the lower disc, when the two discs are rotated in the same direction with equal angular velocities.

Now, let n=number of revolutions per minute of the two discs, S = distance between the two axes in cm., v = relative velocity of any point on the lower disc to the corresponding point on the upper disc in cm. per minute,

We then have

$$v = 2\pi S n$$

.and the direction of v is always perpendicular to the plane containing the two axes on which these two discs rotate.

On this principle, all the balls between the two discs are rubbed in all possible orientations, so that if the rubbing action be continued and emery and water poured on the material, regular balls of uniform size are easily obtained.

The Development of Acoustical Researches by Means of Talking Films

By Ryuzaburo Taguchi

[J. Japan. Precision Machinery Asso. II., 3(1935), 71–79, with fig.]—It seems almost permissible to say that there has been no exact research on acoustics since those of Helmholtz and Lord Rayleigh. The author, who has been studying sound since 1933, has published a number of reports.

In this paper he advocates the adoption of his methods of studying with the aid of the talking film, and explains the subject in a rather popular manner.

The method consists in

1. Recording sound on a talking film and studying the relation between the sound waves on it and the sounds heard from it, being a good method for eliminating errors of the microphone,
2. Reproducing the films in a reverse direction,
3. Cutting off or lengthening a certain part of the film and reproducing it,
4. Adding to the given wave form any desired wave, or wiping off any desired waves from the film, and reproducing it,
5. Analyzing harmonically the transcient wave by a special method.

The results :

1. The Japanese spoken language consists of consonants and vowels. The former classified into 5 clear consonants (*k, s, t, h, p*), 4 turbid (soft) consonants (*g, z, d, b*), 2 nasal consonants (*n, m*) and liquid consonants (*r*, etc.). The vowels are generally "*i, e, a, o, u*".

2. A consonant wave is caused to precede a vowel and controls the sensation of the vowel, and a vowel acts to amplify the sensation of the consonant. This phenomenon can be detected when the interval between the consonant and the vowel does not exceed 0.3 sec. This time is a constant of the sensation of the consonants to the ear. In the limit of 0.3 sec., the clearness of a consonant to the ear is generally increased as the time is shortened.

3. The loudness in the auditory sensation of a pure sine wave is zero at the first cycle of the wave, and very distinct at the second cycle, but it reaches to saturation at about the 10th cycle.

4. Sounds of striking instruments consist of

a transcient wave + a continuous wave

and each of these waves acts as a consonant and a vowel of the spoken sounds. The author points out that one is able to know the materials that form the source of a sound by the transcient wave, the shape of the source by the continuous wave, and the boundary conditions by logarithmic damping of the continuous wave. These facts are very convenient for humans who live as sort of animals having ears.

5. According to the Japanese rule of

spelling words, sound [Dʒa] (English ja) [ʃa] (sha), and [tʃa] (cha) are spelt as "dya", "sya", and "tya", respectively. In these sounds the author discovered that the waves are arranged exactly as in the Japanese rule. This formula is shown as

the consonant wave + y + vowel.

It can therefore be said that the Japanese rule is the most physical system of spelling in the world.

Long Distance Telephone System by means of Frequency Inversion

By N. Shinohara and M.Konomi

[J. I. T. T. E. Japan, 147(1935), 531–540, with fig.]—It is pointed out both theoretically and experimentally in this paper, that by applying the frequency inversion method to the non-loaded submarine telegraph cable, the attenuation characteristics of the entire line can be kept relatively uniform and smooth with ease, making it possible to construct a good telephone channel.

Since a submarine cable for telegraphy differs greatly from that for telephony in both construction and transmission characters, technical difficulties arise when telephony is used on the former, because of its wide band in frequency. The chief difficulties are large attenuation distortions, the designing of an attenuation equalizer possessing large attenuation, through protection from cross talk, and prevention of the singing phenomena.

When these difficulties have been satisfactory solved, submarine telegraphs throughout the world will be used extensively for telephony, resulting in great economy, efficiency, and convenience.

The author, in this paper, attempts to present a satisfactory solution of these difficult problems.

By providing a repeater station at midpoint of the submarine telegraph cable, the voice signal in normal frequency distribution is transmitted over the first half section of the cable. At the intermediate repeater station this frequency spectrum is inverted with respect to a certain frequency by means of frequency inversion. The voice signal in inverted frequency distribution is then transmitted over the second half distribution and retransformed to normal frequency distribution by the same principle.

In this process, the equalization of distortion due to large attenuation is relatively simple and the resultant transmission character becomes smooth. Complication in designing and the number of necessary attenuation equalizers are reduced.

The same principle may be adapted also for land cables.

Physics

Change of Thermal Energy due to Magnetization in Ferromagnetic Substances

By Toshihiko Okamura

[Sci. Rep. Tohoku Imp. Univ., 24(1936), 745–807, with 28 fig.] The measurement of absorption or evolution of heat in the course of magnetization was carried out on iron, nickel, cobalt, steel, K. S. magnet steel, nickel-iron alloy and single crystals of iron. The change of temperature in these metals by magnetization was measured by means of 31–47 thermo-couples connected in series and by a high sensitive D'Arsonval galvanometer; its sensibility was such that a change of 10^{-6}°C can be detected. The testspecimen was composed of ferromagnetic and German silver bars, 32–48 in number, each 6 cm in length and 2 mm in diameter and distributed alternately in concentric cylinders. Two such sets of bars were made and fixed one upon another so as to form bars of 12 cm. in length, but they were electrically insulated from each other by a thin mica plate.

The heat change consists of two kinds, reversible and irreversible changes; the former is usually known as the magnetocaloric effect and the latter is due to magnetic hysteresis. From the heat changes observed, the present writer succeeded in differentiating these two kinds of heat from each other.

In the initial magnetization, irreversible heat curves are all similar to each other and have a form similar to the curve of magnetization. The reversible heat curves plotted against magnetic field for iron, steels, nickel, nickel-iron alloy and K.S. magnet steel are all similar. In weak fields, the heat is absorbed; its magnitude increases at first, reaches a maximum and afterwards decreases, changing at last from absorption to evolution. In the case of cobalt, the heat absorption only is observed.

In the case of cyclic magnetization starting from a maximum fields, ir-

reversible thermal effect does not at first appear, as the magnetic field is diminished, but it makes its appearance in approaching to zero field; when the field is decreased to the negative side, the heat evolution becomes conspicuous and then approaches to a saturation value. Armco iron, steels, nickel and K. S. steel has one maximum and two minima symmetrically distributed with respect to the ordinate axis. In cobalt, the middle maximum only can be observed, while in nickel-iron alloy, this maximum disappears.

According to Honda-Okubo's theory of ferromagnetic substances, the irreversible heat is the kinetic energy acquired molecules during their abrupt rotations, and therefore it can be calculated from the magnetic data. The reversible thermal effect can be satisfactorily explained by the principles of thermodynamics.

Radio

A Study in High-Frequency Radio Wave Propagation

By Shogo Namba, Kenichi Maeda and Taro Tsukada

(Electrotechnical Laboratory, Ministry of Communications, Tokyo). [J. I. E. E. Japan, No. 578, pp. 946–959, September, 1936.]—Perhaps the most important problem in short-wave radio communication is the quantitative determination of the extent to which the received field intensity is affected by the frequency of the waves, time of the day, path of propagation, etc. When this fundamental problem has been solved, comes next the study of the effect which various phenomena of the upper atmosphere have upon short-wave communication. In other words, the dependability of short-wave communication with respect to various cosmic phenomena must be determined.

The authors, who first began reserch on the problem of predicting short-wave field strengths, about seven years ago, reported in 1932 on the general work accomplished up to that time (Researches of the Electrotechnical Laboratory, No. 336, July, 1932: Proc. I. R. E., July, 1933). In view, however, of the great strides made in the study of wave propagation since then, the authors have issued another general report with certain revisions on the old report.

The revisions given here are based mainly on experimental data, and from the theoretical standpoint there is nothing particularly new compared to what has been given in the previous report, except that within the limits of our present concept of wave propagation, the material presented here is in better agreement with measured results.

The main points of revision are that attenuation in the daytime is regarded as varying continuously with distance, and the fact that night-time attenuation has been taken into consideration. Daytime attenuation is first computed by determining, as before, the apices of the path of propagation, but the values thus obtained are averaged and the attenuation per unit distance of propagation is determined. This is then multiplied by the distance of propagation and the result taken as total attenuation. This type of attenuation, which is assumed to be proportional to distance, is here called "class A attenuation."

Next, in night transmission the multiple ray effect at the receiving point is taken into consideration as well as "attenuation of the second kind" in the F layer. These two effects are combined and represented as an attenuation called "class B attenuation." Class B attenuation is important only during the night. Its particular characteristic is that the attenuation is not proportional to distance as in the case of class A. The calculation is not made for each apex of the path of propagation; the attenuation being determined only at the apex in the darkest region producing the greatest amount of attenuation.

The given examples of this new methed of calculation agree much better with actual results than those given in the previous report.

On the Periodicity of General Fading

By Isamu Ozaki

(Nagoya Regional Direction of Communications, Nagoya). [J. I. T. T. E., No. 163, pp. 814–817, October, 1936.]—The general fading of signal strength on short wave propagation, which has been pointed out Dr. J. H. Dellinger as a new radio transmission phenomenon, has happened very often lately. As the foregoing writer has said, this phenomenon has been looked upon generally as more or less of a vagary. The report here made of investigations on the phenomenon are from our records of radio

communications between Nagoya and Europe and between Tokyo and America since October, 1933.

By charting the days on which general fading occurred, several curves were obtained showing a tendency to general fading. These curves, which were always similar in type, indicated that the phenomenon has a tendency to occur at intervals of 27 days or less, which gradually lengthens to 28 days or slightly longer, after which it ceases.

For convenience of discussion, we shall assume that some special action, such as an explosion on the solar surface causes this general fading. We shall now examine this point of explosion.

From the fact that the period of solar rotation varies with its latitude, we can calculate as follows :

The explosion on the sun generates from a point near the equator, where the speed of rotation is higher than elsewhere. This point gradually moves towards higher latitudes, bursting from time to time, until, notwithstanding the explosion, general fading ceases for the reason that the direction of the explosion does not face the earth, which will readily be understood from the curves now to be referred to. The ends of the curves always fall on a day near that on which the axis of solar rotation inclines to the limit toward N or S, and on which days the point of explosion is farthest from the axis since this explosive point came into existence, at a distance of nearly 40° from the apparent center of the solar disc. It is possible to determine whether the direction of movement of the point of explosion is N or S by ascertaining the inclination of the axis of solar rotation on the day that the last general fading occured.

It was also found that general fading nearly always occurs only within 3 days before or after the day that seems to be the middle of the period of this phenomenon according to the curve, whence it may be said that the general fading occurs only when the point of explosion is within about 40° east or west of the center of the solar disc. This fact is in agreement with the case of latitude already referred to.

The periodicity of general fading may be summarised as follows :

A number of these fadings can be grouped into classes having the tendency to occur with periods as just described. The one that occurred on March 20, May 20, etc., 1935, as reported by Dr. J. H. Dellinger, is now repeating itself at intervals of 28 days, which, however, will appear no more. The group that affected strongly communications with the Far East on February 8, April 2, etc., 1936, is a different one although it appears to belong to the same group.

There seem to be two other groups which are repeating themselves lately.

If general fading is the result of some explosive phenomenon on the solar surface, its frequency will bear a relation to solar activity, while should the time during which observations were made be short, the period of the phenomenon may erroneously seem to be of 54 days interval, as Dr. Dellinger has reported.

A Noiseless Super-regenerative Receiver for Ultra-Short-Waves

By Tatuo Hayashi

(Department of Physics, Faculty of Science, Osaka Imperial University, Osaka). [Rep. Radio Res. Japan, Vol. 6, No. 1, pp. 13–22, May, 1936.]—By means of a new quenching method called by the author "Anti-phase Quenching," nearly all the drawbacks to super-regenerative receivers, such as generation of characteristic noises, poor selectivity, and the masking effect, may be eliminated without losing its characteristic advantages.

The detector consists of two oscillators of nearly the same frequency to which quenching voltages 180° out of phase are impressed. The tail of the decaying oscillation of one valve is utilized as a shock for initiating the oscillation of the other oscillator. The amplitude of the E. M. F. induced from the decaying tail of oscillation must be slightly larger than the irregular impulses that originate in the oscillator, which is believed to be the ultimate source of the noise. At the same time, in order that its high sensitivity shall not suffer, it must be small compared with the incoming signal voltage.

The effectiveness of the antenna coupling, which is of a special type, has been verified by outdoor experiments. This new method of quenching is suitable not only for meter waves, but also for decimeter waves. A test with a receiver of 72 cm waves using Acorn tubes gave very promising results.

In determining the optimum quenching frequency, the damping of the circuit must be taken into consideration. Experiment shows that a higher quenching frequency should be used when the circuit Q is high. This result agrees well with the author's conclusion derived from a consideration of the building-up process of oscillation.

CHAPTER XXXIV

PRESS AND PUBLICATIONS

Press

Early History

Yomiuri Even in Old Japan some form of public announcement was issued from time to time, like the Acta Diurna of the era of the Roman Empire, but perhaps the present subject may appropriately be begun with the Yomiuri, the oldest semblance of the newspaper, which name can be literally translated "reading aloud and selling." The Yomiuri sheets were so named because the venders read aloud the contents of the newspaper on the street while soliciting buyers. The Yomiuri sheets were essentially the Flugblatt of the Middle Ages of Europe. They consisted of single printed sheets, or pamphlets of several pages, recording the latest events of the period. Even in those days the progress of wood-block prints permitted the appearance of illustrations in the sheets. In many cases the illustrations were the outstanding feature, and the descriptive matter was of secondary importance. In this respect the Yomiuri differed from the Flugblatt of Europe.

Its Publishers Old records are lacking to identify the publishers of the Yomiuri, but it appears that the publishers of newspapers, or rather equivalents to newspapers, in the earlier part of the Tokugawa period (about 250 years before the Restoration of Meiji, 1868) were men of little fame and honour. Even at the end of the Tokugawa period it appears that the publishers of the Yomiuri were men of so lowly positions that they were not permitted to enter the society of even woodblock printers. It is, however, considered likely that his early form of the newspaper failed to make any progress owing to government pressure. The Yomiuri carried contents that were often inflammatory and distasteful to the government. Suspension of publication was ordered so frequently that no decent publishers dared to take it up as an enterprise. Only men of low repute engaged in the business often against the law.

Printing of the Yomiuri sheets was done by wood-block prints. The contents of the Yomiuri sheets can generally be divided into two, prose and poetry. This distinction, it appears, existed from the early part of the Tokugawa period. In the era of Genroku (1688–1704) the hawkers sold their sheets on the street either calling the attention of prospective buyers by singing, with or without the accompaniment of the samisen, or merely reading aloud the contents. At the end of the Tokugawa period sheets were sold with the sellers singing popular ballads.

Its Contents A perusal of those Yomiuri sheets still extant shows that at the outset of the development the chief interest of the sheets lay in the illustrations. What are believed to be the oldest Yomiuri have illustrations of the Battle of the Osaka Natsu-no-jin in May in the first year of the era of Genna (1615), accompanied by descriptive matter. Judging from the frequent issuance of suppression or suspension orders, Yomiuri sheets appear to have been published and sold in abundance during the eras of Empo (1673–81), Jokyo (1684–88) and Genroku (1688–1704). In Western Japan, with Osaka as the centre, there is evidence of the popularity of erotic contents in Yomiuri sheets, featuring such stuff as stories of double suicides. Since the vendetta of the famous Forty-seven Ronin vendetta stories formed the chief subject of interest and after the era of Genroku subjects of natural calamities were featured. In the eras of Bunka (1804–18) and Bunsei (1818–30) the enforcement of justice and morality undertaken by the Shogunate government, stressing the protection of right and chastisement of wrong, was reflected in the stories featured in the Yomiuri sheets of those days, even in the accounts of natural calamities and those of sex relations. Because the stories were written by men of low repute, the contents of the Yomiuri sheets in many cases were repellent in tone. Immediately before and after the Restoration of Meiji accounts of the civil disturbances were written, but by this time the number of Yomiuri sheets had considerably decreased owing to the appearance of

newspapers in the more correct sense of the term.

Fusetsugaki Another equivalent of the modern newspaper, in addition to the Yomiuri, was a periodical named "Fusetsugaki" or Book of Reports, which carried foreign intelligence. These books were of two kinds, one with Dutch and one with Chinese reports. After the third Tokugawa Shogun adopted the policy of seclusion, it was only China and the Netherlands which had intercourse with Japan. Captain "Yanyos" (Jan Josten) of Holland, after Japan's adoption of the seclusion policy, presented annually a book descriptive of foreign affairs to the Shogunate government. It was the Oranda Fusetsugaki, or Book of Dutch Reports. The Chinese government in those days presented to the Shogunate government of Japan Chinese intelligence after the manner of the Dutchmen. Information obtained thus was placed in the hands of the Prime Minister and kept confidential, but after the American "black ships" came to knock at the door of Japan, permission was granted to make copies of those books for public circulation. The presentation of Dutch documents continued until the era of Ansei (1854–60), but as the country was opened to foreign intercourse this custom was discontinued at the request of the Dutch government, which instead of the customary annual volume presented Dutch newspapers to the Japanese government. It is considered certain that the newspapers thus presented to Japan were copies of the Javasche Courant, orgain of the Government of Batavia.

Precursor of Modern Paper When the provincial clans requested that the Dutch Book of Reports be made public, the Shogunate government's Yosho Shirabesho, or Bureau for the Study of Western Learning, agreed and planned to publish it. This plan did not materialize, as the Dutch government then replaced the book with newspapers, but instead, the bureau translated the newspapers into Japanese and published them for general circulation. This was the precursor of the modern newspaper in Japan. Not content with this Dutch newspaper, the Shogunate government continued to translate and publish other newspapers from Holland and imported Chinese-language newspapers published by white Christian evangelists in Hong Kong, Shanghai and other places, and had them not only translated and annotated but printed and bound into books and entrusted Hyoshiro Yorodzuya, a book purveyor to the Shogunate government, with the public sale of these books. In general printing wooden types were used. For printing these Chinese newspapers imposition was adopted and for this purpose the Shogunate government had to establish a special department for type foundry. This enterprise was a reflection of the out-and-out principle the Shogunate government adopted for opening the country to foreign intercourse. Those books were chiefly published during the era of Bunkyu (1861–64). Hence they were popularly called Bunkyu Shimbun (newspaper).

Papers in Yokohama In the meantime, anti-foreign sentiment was gaining force in this country and after the era of Bunkyu this interfered with the translation and publication of foreign newspapers. Foreign residents of Yokohama, however, translated foreign-language newspapers and published then in Japanese and they were patronized by those who favoured opening the country to foreign intercourse. Men on the staff of the Bureau for the Study of Foreign Learning had an eye on foreign affairs and established a new institution for the purpose of translating into Japanese articles dealing with Japan which appeared in the English-language newspapers in Yokohama, such as the Japan Commercial News and Japan Times. Those translations were not printed but written by scribes and circulated among interested persons. The years during which this was done extended from 1863 to 1865. Foreign residents of Yokohama also published three Japanese-language newspapers, Kaigai Shimbun (Foreign Newspaper), Bankoku Shimbun (International Newspaper) and Rondon Shimbun (London Newspaper). Of these three, the Bankoku Shimbun had in its contents not only foreign intelligence but news of Yokohama and comment on the English-language newspapers of Yokohama; it introduced ideas of British civilization and carried many advertisements. This journal was edited ably in a characteristic style and published monthly. From this time general progress in newspaper-making was noticeable.

Foreign Language Papers The first foreign-language newspaper published in Japan was the Nagasaki Shipping List and Advertiser issued for the first time in the year 1861 by a resident Britisher, Mr. Hanseard. It was a weekly. The publisher soon moved to Yokohama, where he continued his publication under the name of The Japan Herald, the first issue of which was brought out in December of the same year. He

employed Mr. Black, another Britisher, then a resident of the port city, as editor-in-chief. The example set by the Japan Herald was soon followed by the appearance of the Japan Commercial News in 1863, a weekly published by a Portuguese. In October of the same year, the Japan Herald, in addition to the weekly, started a daily newspaper which featured advertisements. In the year 1865 the Commercial News was discontinued and Mr. Rickerby, a banker, bought the newspaper equipment and started the Japan Times in September of the year. In 1867 Mr. Black had a dispute with the new owner of the Japan Herald, and, leaving the paper, he issued the Japan Gazette, an evening paper. The popularity of the Japan Gazette overwhelmed the Japan Times and the latter lost much patronage and finally had to discontinue publication. The disappearance of the Japan Times, however, was followed by the launching of the Japan Mail. In addition to these newspapers, there was another English-language newspaper, having the name of the Japan Express, published by an American, whose first issue appeared in 1866. The copies of this newspaper were hand-written, carved in wood blocks, and printed. While the name of the publisher and the period of publication are unknown, it is recorded in a diplomatic document in the possession of the French government that this journal represented the American interests. In addition to these papers, there were also a French newspaper, L'Echo du Japon, in the era of Keio (1865–68), an English magazine of caricature, the Japan Punch, which was published continuously for 20 years from the era of Bunkyu (1861–64), and a French magazine of caricature entitled Tobayé. These publications stimulated directly or indirectly the birth of the Japanese modern newspapers.

The Restoration Demand for foreign intelligence was the principal factor in the birth of newspapers in the East as in the West. In Japan, too, newspapers of the earlier periods carried much foreign news, but when there were big developments like civil disturbances they played up internal affairs. The Restoration of Meiji in 1868 afforded the press of Japan much scope for development. Newspaper editors in Yedo, the present Tokyo, were excellent scholars and their papers were much superior to those edited in the provinces. One of the papers in Yedo already advocated parliamentary politics as early as this period, Newspapers published by those holding the "Emperor-centric" policy were filled with articles which merely reflected on the intelligence of the editors themselves. They only advocated the "Emperor-centric" policy and did not propose any advanced ideas about reforms. Newspapers affiliated with the Shogunate government enjoyed much larger circulation than their competitors and it is stated that one of them had a circulation of 3,000.

The Press Law

The press law in Japan was enforced by the Government for the first time in February, 1869. This was the signal for several new newspapers to spring up. The Government, however, interfered so much with the press that sales of newspapers were much hindered and the healthy progress of the press was checked. While the business side of the press was dull, editing itself attained notable progress. Political news had become unusually constructive and efforts were made to establish a new civilization and propagate new and advanced ideas among the people.

Modern Papers

The Yokohama Mainichi The first true Japanese daily newspaper appeared in December, 1870, with the publication of the Yokohama Mainichi Shimbun. Not only was this newspaper a daily but it consisted of a single foreign-style paper sheet with printing done with lead types. In outside appearance it had the semblance of the modern newspaper. Although its contents were much inferior to those of the newspapers that were founded later in Tokyo, it resembled English-language newspapers in that it carried many advertisements.

More Papers Born The year 1872 saw several more dailies born, newspapers which were more perfect in appearance and reading matter than their predecessors. Those newspapers included the Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun, Yubin Hochi Shimbun, and the Nisshin Shinjishi, the last being edited under the supervision of Mr. Black, formerly editor of the Japan Herald. The Nichi Nichi and Hochi remain to this day but the Shinjishi had to change hands in 1875 when the Government, in an effort to bring pressure to bear upon democratic newspapers, controlled the activities of foreigners in newspapers. The change of ownership brought decadance to the journal and the paper was discontinued shortly afterward.

Government and Press

Era of Terrorism An era of terrorism dawned upon Japan's journalism in 1875 when the government, dissatisfied with the way in which the press in general stirred up the discontented elements of the people, revised the press law with the avowed purpose of curbing the influence of the newspapers. Severe punishment was provided for violation of the press law. Journalists writing articles censuring the government were fined or imprisoned. Indeed, this was the first time journalists in Japan were exposed to punishment. Not content with this cruel legislation, the government in July, 1877, invested the Home Minister with power to suppress newspapers or delay their publication, and he was thus free to bring pressure to bear upon them as he saw fit. This objectionable law worked havoc with the press, whose progress was much hampered thereby.

The era in which newspapers served as political party organs began in 1881. Two years before that time the movement in favour of instituting the Diet was launched by the late Taisuké Itagaki and others.

Revised Press Law The government's desperate policy of oppression toward the liberals of the period, which resulted in the prohibition of the formation of political associations and the oppression of newspapers and magazines, came to a definite halt on December 26, 1887, with the enforcement of a new government decree. Two days later a revised press law was issued, considerably modifying the strict control of the press, which had had the effect of almost exterminating all the free political organs of the country. The new press law was drafted on the basis of the principle of "freedom of the press," recognized in the Japanese Constitution which was to be promulgated shortly. The new press law was received by journalistic circles with much satisfaction. Indeed, the modified press law marks a turning point in the history of the development of the modern newspaper in this country.

Whereas under the old law a prospective publisher had to apply for a permit to start a newspaper, by the new regulations he had only to notify the authorities of his intention to issue a journal. The prefectural governor was robbed of his power to suppress newspapers or confiscate the newspaper plants and only the Home Minister was given such power. Unreserved criticism for public good was admitted, and compared with the despotic rule that had prevailed before, newspaper management under the new law became markedly free.

Emergence of Independent Dailies

The approaching promulgation of the Constitution, coupled with the removal of the ban on the formation of political associations and the growing political enthusiasm among the people, revived political newspapers. In the meantime, the Diet was instituted and the majority of the best-known editors of influential newspapers were elected to the legislature. As a natural consequence, the newspapers of these editors became their political tools and alienated public sympathy. Their popularity showed a decided tendency to wane.

The Kokumin and Yorozu While the political organs were thus losing influence, a strictly politically-independent newspaper which refused to cater for the popular taste of the people but which assumed an attitude to instruct the public was founded and caught the fancy of the intellectuals of the day. Its editing, however, was on the old lines and this newspaper never became popular. In the year 1890 Mr. Iichiro Tokutomi founded the Kokumin Shimbun, a popular newspaper. This journal enjoyed the support of the masses and soon other papers more or less imitated the style of editing inaugurated by the Kokumin. In 1892 the late Mr. Shuroku Kuroiwa founded the Yorozu Choho, which added to the Kokumin's style of editing a strong spice of sensationalism, devoting much of its space to the publication of detective and love stories. The Yorozu invaded the fields of the Miyako Shimbun, Yamato Shimbun and other newspapers then having the largest circulation. Thus, the promulgation of the Constitution served to bring about marked progress in the development of the modern newspaper in this country.

Chinese War and the Press The Sino-Japanese War (1894–5) caused severe competition in news reporting. The Osaka Asahi Shimbun, by introducing new features in covering war news, greatly increased the number of its subscribers. In Tokyo the Chuo Shimbun, closely affiliated with the military, was conspicuous for its activities in the issuance of extras and consequently gained an enlarged circulation. Other papers also sent war correspondents and featured news from the front. The Yorozu then was the most popular newspaper, having a circulation of 50,000. In point of circulation the newspapers of that time were in the follow-

ng order: The Yorozu Choho, Kokumin Shimbun, Tokyo Asahi Shimbun, Miyako Shimbun, Nihon Shimbun, Chuo Shimbun, Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun, Jiji Shimpo, Mainichi Shimbun, Yubin Hochi Shimbun and Yamato Shimbun. The war was also responsible for the appearance of influential provincial newspapers, including the Fukuoka Nichi Nichi Shimbun in Kyushu, the Shin Aichi in Nagoya, the Kahoku Shimpo in Sendai and the Hokkai Times in Hokkaido.

After the Russian War

Catering to the Public Following the Sino-Japanese War the majority of the newspapers in Tokyo adopted an impartial attitude toward politics and concentrated their efforts in popularizing pages. To advance their sales they resorted to means which often savoured of vulgarism and received public criticism. The city of Osaka witnessed a duel between the Asahi and the Mainichi not only in business but in news gathering. In the meantime, the Russo-Japanese War (1904–5) occurred to start keen competition in war coverage. The Asahi both in Tokyo and Osaka, the Osaka Mainichi and the Jiji Shimpo competed severely in the matter of extras and increased their circulation. At the end of the war the peace treaty was signed at Portsmouth, but the peace terms were found unsatisfactory and stoutly opposed by all the newspapers of Tokyo and Osaka, with the exception of the Kokumin and the Chuo, both of Tokyo, the political organs of the then Government. Anti-peace mass meetings were held in Tokyo and Osaka, and in Tokyo the participants in the mass meeting, incited by inflammatory articles in one or two newspapers, turned into a mob and attacked the building of the Kokumin Shimbun. To suppress the mob the government had to proclaim martial law. The government simultaneously issued an urgent Imperial Ordinance and suspended the publication for certain periods of the newspapers which incited the public to violence. During one month shortly after the enforcement of the Imperial Ordinance the Yorozu, the Niroku, the Miyako, the Nihon, the Jimmin, the Asahi of Tokyo and Osaka, and other papers were suspended. Of these papers, the Niroku and the Osaka Asahi suffered suspension twice in a month.

Equilibrium of Influence The panic in the newspaper world thus brought about upset the equilibrium of influence. The Kokumin was robbed of much circulation; so was the Chuo. The Yorozu, with a special appeal to the youth of Japan, increased its circulation markedly. In Osaka the Mainichi took advantage of the suspension of publication which the Asahi suffered and invaded its unfortunate yet heretofore superior competitor's field, with the result that finally their influence in business and other respects became about even.

Motion Picture Utilized Several changes for the better were effected following the Russo-Japanese War, and it is noteworthy that the changes effected all concerned with newspaper enterprises. The Kokumin, which had suffered a dwindling popularity since the paper became the object of public censure by supporting the government that signed a "humiliating peace treaty," issued provincial editions, an example which was soon followed by other newspapers. Shortly afterward the Hochi attained success by issuing an evening edition. This ambitious enterprise was also followed by several other competitors. As regards the contents of newspapers, the Yorodzu reported all sorts of sports and amusements; the Asahi bringhtened its pages with articles from the pen of famous men of letters like the late Soseki Natsumé, and the Hochi established a precedent by carrying a novel in serial form that suited home reading. On the business side, the Hochi took the initiative in establishing provincial branches. The Yamato promoted an exhibition and began a motion picture demonstration show throughout the country.

That these enterprises attained favourable results soon showed in the increased number of circulation. According to reports considered reliable, the Osaka Asahi topped the list with 350,000. The Osaka Mainichi came next with 300,000, and the other papers came in the following order: the Hochi, 200,000; the Yorodzu, the Kokumin and the Yamato each 150,000; the Tokyo Asahi, 80,000, and the others 30,000 or 40,000 each.

In the Taisho Era

Expansion of the Business One notable advance made by the press of Japan during the Taisho Era was the remarkable expansion of newspaper business. All first-class journals erected imposing structures for their offices and installed expensive high-speed presses. By the end of the era all the leading newspapers in Tokyo and Osaka had become public corporations wih their capitalizations above the ¥1,000,000 mark. The earthquake and fire of 1923 reduced

to ashes the majority of the newspapers in Tokyo, except the Hochi, Nichi Nichi and Miyako. Of the unfortunate sufferers, those financially well off got to a good start and soon recovered their former positions, but those less financially favoured failed to raise their heads again and had to be content with insignificant showings. At present the Osaka Asahi and Osaka Mainichi possess more than 1,000,000 subscribers each, and big papers in Tokyo have subscribers approaching the above figure. It is not an exaggeration to say that the achievements made by the press of Japan after the dawn of the era of Showa (1926–) are a high-water mark of Japan's modern culture.

Present-Day Newspapers

Of numerous papers, the Asahi and the Mainichi are the most widely circulated and the most popular with our intellectuals. Both of these papers have their main offices in Osaka. They also have a large office each in Tokyo, one being called the Tokyo Asahi and the other the Tokyo Nichi Nichi. Recently the Yomiuri has come to run a close second in the race for press leadership. Not only are these papers widely read in the larger cities, but they also vie with one another in outrivalling the minor local press in provincial cities and towns by issuing their own local editions which possess the features of the local press in addition to the features essentially their own.

Thus they can be said to have a vast circulation throughout the land. Exactly what this circulation is, it is next to impossible to ascertain. The exact number of copies printed is sedulously kept dark. The custom is to exaggerate. It is thought disadvantageous and therefore unwise to tell the truth in this respect at least, because the chances are that by so doing a newspaper will suffer some loss of subscribers and a decrease of income from advertisements. The differences between the real circulation and the one given out vary with different newspapers. At all events, we have no choice but to be content with guess-work based on the amount of paper consumed and on the weight of newspapers taken at railway stations from which they are dispatched to various districts.

This incidentally brings us to a consideration of the amount of paper used by Japanese newspapers. The average monthly consumption is estimated at about 50,000,000 lbs. As nearly 80 per cent of Japan's total paper production comes from the Oji Paper Manufacturing Company, Ltd., the company is at liberty to threaten the newspaper proprietors, now warning them to restrict the use of paper and now giving them a bombshell notification of a rise in the price of nearly 30 per cent. This is of course a result of the recent rapid rise of commodity prices. This increase in the price of paper used for newspapers will, in Japan as elsewhere, have to be made good by a corresponding increase of subscription fees and some adjustment of the labour of the petty employees in newspaper offices.

The more influential dailies in Tokyo and Osaka pay special attention to international news, that is, to cables from abroad. They are eager to get foreign news as speedily as possible. Japan's larget news agency, the Domei Tsushin Sha, has been and is obtaining a great deal of news from abroad in concert with the world's influential news agencies. Not to be behind, the Asahi, the Mainichi, the Yomiuri and other large papers all have their own special correspondents stationed in the principal cities of the world. So complete is its network of communications that our press, coupled with the spread of radio and periodicals, has done much to augment knowledge of international affairs on the part of the nation at large.

The following table shows the 1936 figures on the proportion of foreign news inserted in five large Tokyo dailies.

Name of newspaper	Total Number of lines covering all articles	Total Number of lines covering foreign news
The Tokyo Asahi	6,571,425	666,863
The Tokyo Nichi Nichi	6,142,514	568,683
The Yomiuri	6,466,648	508,000
The Hochi	6,671,043	459,078
The Jiji	6,561,236	500,178
Total	32,412,866	2,702,802

N.B. The figure for the Jiji is as of December 25, 1937, the day on which this paper became defunct.

It must be noted that the comparatively small proportion of foreign news indicated in the above table is due to the fact that of late years news and articles regarding amusements, household hints, literature, sports, etc., have come to occupy, as we shall see presently, more space than those on politics and economics. None the less, a glance at figures for each year will show a steady increase of space allotted to for-

eign news.

The reason why the Asahi and the Mainichi have attained the present prosperity may be found in their critical attitude towards the successive powers that be, as well as in the speed and accuracy with which they furnish news to the readers. This has been particularly so with the Asahi, with the result that it has received strong support from the nation's intellectuals. Since the Manchurian incident, however, there has been much change in the attitude of editorial writers of our dailies. Just as the press in other countries has lately been compelled to alter its functions, so in recent years our influential dailies, the Asahi, the Mainichi, the Yomiuri, etc., have come to find it necessary to modify their tone owing to the great change that has taken place in the political situation. In the main, the tendency is now for the press to support the Government's policy. It must not be supposed that the Japanese press is controlled by law. Still, one can easily imagine that a considerable change has been made in the functions of the Japanese press, whose duty it is to guide public opinion aright, simply as a result of editorial appraisal of the limits within which freedom can be exercised safely and profitably.

Reference has already been made to the fact that of late years the Japanese press has come to consider it expedient, if not necessary, to give more space to news and articles concerning household hints, literature, art, sports, radio, etc., in order to curry favour with the masses. One example will suffice. In most of our dailies nearly one full page is devoted to the daily radio programme. Whether or not this is the right path for the press to tread leaves much room for discussion. But it is perhaps unavoidable that our large dailies should resort to these practices, because they have to struggle for leadership not only in the large cities, but also in the provincial towns.

An event in 1936 was the amalgamation of the Jiji Shimbun with the Tokyo Nichi-Nichi. The Jiji Shimbun left a great footprint in the world of newspapers in Japan as one of the oldest and most influencial papers in Tokyo for over half a century.

Number of Newspapers

The number of daily newspapers in Japan proper at the end of 1935 was 1,222, showing a gain of 2 over the end of 1934, according to government statistics. In addition, there were on the same day 506 newspapers issued 4 times or more a month and 5,452 newspapers issued 3 times or less a month. All these 7,180 papers come under the category of "newspapers" and are so treated by the Government. The newspapers classified according to prefectures follow :

Prefecture	Daily Papers	Issued 4 times or More a Month	Others and Total
Tokyo	234	129	1,691
Kyoto	38	9	322
Osaka	89	52	691
Kanagawa	17	13	110
Hyogo	51	24	289
Nagasaki	13	9	70
Niigata	21	22	128
Saitama	11	2	69
Gumma	15	2	66
Chiba	14	4	79
Ibaraki	9	0	101
Tochigi	15	4	65
Nara	10	4	86
Mié	23	7	107
Aichi	83	23	515
Shizuoka	51	2	147
Yamanashi	6	1	27
Shiga	23	1	79
Gifu	14	3	77
Nrgano	39	10	267
Miyagi	17	3	53
Fukushima	24	6	87
Iwaté	13	4	48
Aomori	15	5	67
Yamagata	12	5	57
Akita	5	13	49
Fukui	14	9	72
Ishikawa	8	9	50
Toyama	8	7	76
Tottori	4	3	35
Shimané	3	1	27
Okayama	11	3	79
Hiroshima	18	10	107
Yamaguchi	27	11	108
Wakayama	18	9	71
Tokushima	4	0	22
Kagawa	2	1	49
Ehimé	20	8	129
Kochi	4	4	32
Fukuoka	67	30	317
Oita	29	2	77
Saga	11	7	51
Kumamoto	8	4	60
Miyazaki	15	2	48
Kagoshima	4	3	49
Okinawa	5	6	17
Hokkaido	80	20	357
Total	1,222	506	7,180

Mainly in Tokyo and Osaka The majority of leading newspapers are pub-

lished in Tokyo and Osaka. This is because Tokyo is the capital of the Empire and Osaka is the centre of social and economic life in West Japan. The combined number of daily newspapers in the two largest cities is 30 per cent of all and their combined circulation covers almost all parts of this country. Large daily papers have their own provincial editions of more than 20 kinds. The spheres of provincial editions are divided between the large papers of Tokyo and Osaka. Tokyo papers publish provincial editions for Eastern Japan, Hokkaido and Saghalien, while Osaka papers issue those for Western Japan, Shikoku, Kyushu, Korea and Formosa. These provincial editions eat into the business spheres of country papers. Recently, Tokyo and Osaka papers have been issuing Manchurian editions. Next to these cities in the number of their papers come Aichi (Nagoya), Hokkaido, Kyoto, Hyogo (Kobé), Fukuoka and Nagano prefectures, reflecting the extent of cultural development of those localities. Okinawa prefecture (Loochoos) issues only 16, the smallest number of all, and 19 are issued in Tokushima prefecture in Shikoku.

Increase or Decrease The following table gives the number of newspapers which increased or decreased each year, from 1926 to 1935 :

		With Guarantee Money				With Guarantee Money			
	Sum Total	Total	Daily	4 Times or more Monthly	3 Times or Less Monthly	Total	Daily	4 Times or More Monthly	3 Times or Less Monthly
1926	7,600	5,089	861	344	3,884	2,511	174	165	2,172
1927	8,350	5,438	916	380	4,142	2,912	177	170	2,565
1928	8,445	5,482	966	399	4,117	2,963	184	178	2,601
1929	9,191	5,917	1,020	417	4,480	3,274	201	193	2,880
1930	10,130	5,995	1,031	428	4,536	4,135	184	221	3,730
1931	10,666	6,290	1,083	476	4,731	4,376	197	247	3,932
1932	11,118	6,301	1,124	463	4,714	4,317	206	241	4,370
1933	11,860	6,678	1,179	461	5,038	5,182	210	261	4,711
1934	12,166	7,081	1,219	470	5,392	5,084	215	258	4,611
1935	12,101	7,180	1,222	506	5,452	4,921	219	295	4,407

Circulation

Circulation Unpublished The circulation of daily newspapers in Japan ranges from about 4,000 to about 1,500,000. Japanese newspapers never make public their exact circulation. For this reason, it is impossible to get the exact figures of circulation of each or any. What is believed to be comparatively correct of the daily circulation of more than 1,100 newspapers is an estimate of about 19,000,000. The number of households in Japan is over 17,500,000. Newspapers are far more widely read in cities than in provinces and they are read more in commercial and industrial districts than in agricultural districts. Tokyo has the largest number of daily newspapers, and the more powerful ones are a well-defined force in society. Among them are the Tokyo Asahi Shimbun, the Yomiuri Shimbun, the Hochi Shimbun, the Jiji Shimpo, the Miyako Shimbun, the Kokumin Shimbun and the Chugai Shogyo Shimpo. The first-mentioned two papers are predominant, having an overwhelming influence in newspaper circles. As organizations for news reporting these two giant papers rank among the world's largest newspapers.

Osaka City has a relatively small number of daily papers, 86 in all, but, as regards circulation, the Osaka Asahi Shimbun, which is the head office of the Tokyo Asahi Shimbun, and the Osaka Mainichi Shimbun, which controls the Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun, predominate all, and their circulation is said to be nearly the same. The two papers have practically the whole of Western Japan under their control, and their influence is felt stronger in Kyushu districts by the publication of the "Kyushu Asahi" and the "Western Mainichi" commenced in February, 1935.

Estimated Circulation Estimated circulation of leading dailies in Japan at the end of 1933 was as follows :

Tokyo	
Tokyo Asahi Shimbun	1,100,000
Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun	1,000,000
Yomiuri Shimbun	1,000,000
Jiji Shimpo	200,000
Chugai Shogyo Shimpo	150,000
Kokumin Shimbun	150,000
Hochi Shimbun	300,000

Osaka	
Osaka Asahi Shimbun	1,300,000
Osaka Mainichi Shimbun	1,200,000
Leading Provincial Paper	
Shin-aichi, Nagoya	200,000
Fukuoka Nichi Nichi, Fukuoka	180,000
Hokkai Times, Sapporo	100,000
Kahoku Shimpo, Sendai	100,000

Subscriptions Subscription fees of Japanese daily papers in large cities range from ¥1.00 to ¥1.50. Airplanes are used for transportation between Osaka and Fukuoka, but in most cases it is done by trains and electric cars.

English-Language Papers English-language daily papers in Japan proper and colonies are as follows : The Japan Advertiser (American), The Japan Times (Japanese owned), both in Tokyo ; the Osaka Mainichi English Edition (controlled by the Osaka Mainichi Shimbun); the Japan Chronicle (British), in Kobé ; the Seoul Press (Japanese), in Keijo ; and the Manchuria Daily News (Japanese), Dairen.

News Agencies

The long contemplated merger of the Shimbun Rengo Tsushin Sha (later Domei Tsushin Sha) and the Nippon Dempo Tsushin Sha has been finally realized on June 1, 1936, the new agency assuming the name of the Dōmei Tsushin Sha. The Dōmei Tsushin Sha consists of over 200 Japanese daily newspapers as members and its directorate is organized by representatives of larger dailies and the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan. It maintains close relations with the Tass, A. P., U. P., Stefani, Reuter, D. N. B., and Havas, which have their branch offices in Japan in the Domei Building. Branch offices are located in Washington, New York, San Francisco, Los Angeles, London, Berlin, Paris, Moskow, Bangkok, Manila, Batavia, Singapore, Shanghai, Nanking, Hong Kong, and other important cities in China. The Nippon Dempo remains as a purely advertizing service agent after the merger.

LEADING NEWSPAPERS AND THEIR PRESIDENTS

	Capitalization	Presidents or Representatives
Tokyo		
Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun	¥10,000,000	Minoru Oka
Tokyo Asahi Shimbun	6,000,000	Seiichi Uyeno
Hochi Shimbun	1,100,000	Seiji Noma
Yomiuri Shimbun	Private	Matsutaro Shoriki
Chugai Shogyo Shimpo	2,000,000	Tokichi Tanaka
Miyako Shimbun	3,000,000	Eisuké Fukuda
Yamato Shimbun	Private	Fumio Iwata
Kokumin Shimbun	3,000,000	—
Chuo Shimbun	400,000	Katsuzo Horikawa
Niroku Shimpo	—	Yonekichi Matsumoto
Yorozu Choho	Private	Zenji Hasegawa
Tokyo Maiyu Shimbun	320,000	Masajiro Kimura
Tokyo Yukan Shimpo	Private	Tetsuyaa Nakajima
Japan Advertiser	150,000	B. W. Fleisher
Japan Times	500,000	Hitoshi Ashida
Osaka		
Osaka Asahi Shimbun	6,000,000	Seiichi Uyeno
Osaka Mainichi Shimbun	10,000,000	Minoru Oka
Osaka Jiji Shimpo	500,000	Nobuyoshi Shindo
Other Prefectures		
Fukushima Minyu Shimbun (Fukushima)	330,000	Kiyoshi Ujiié
Kahoku Shimpo (Miyagi)	Private	Jiro Ichiriki
Iwaté Nippo (Iwaté)	200,000	Seiro Goot
Akita Sakigaké Shimpo (Akita)	300,000	Wafu Ando
Niigata Shimbnn (Niigata)	200,000	Sukesaku Yamada
Shinano Mainichi Shimbun (Nagano)	300,000	Takeo Kosaka
Shinaichi (Aichi)	1,500,000	Ukichi Oshima
Nagoya Shimbun (Aichi)	1,050,000	Matsunosuke Yora
Shizuoka Minyu Shimbun (Shizuoka)	200,000	Mitsunosuke Oishi
Gifu Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Gifu)	Private	Katsumi Takahashi
Isé Shimbun (Mié)	300,000	Yoshiharu Matsumoto

Other Prefectures	Capitalization	Presidents or Representatives
Hokkoku Shimbun (Ishikawa)	150,000	Masataké Hayashi
Goshu Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Shiga)	200,000	Shichiemon Nakamura
Kyoto Hinode Shimbun (Kyoto)	Private	Seinosuke Gokawa
Kyoto Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Kyoto)	Private	Fumio Yamané
Kobé Shimbun (Hyogo)	500,000	Nobuyoshi Shindo
Kobé Yushin Nippo (Hyogo)	500,000	Kazuo Nakaki
Japan Chronicle (Hiyogo)	Private	Douglas George Young
Chugoku Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Hyogo)	200,000	Takeo Segawa
Tokushima Nichi Nichi Shimpo (Tokushima)	150,000	Rishi Ichihara
Sanin Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Tottori)	250,000	Eijiro Miyoshi
Chugoku Minpo (Okayama)	300,000	Makoto Omori
Chugoku Shimbun (Hiroshima)	300,000	Saneichi Yamamoto
Kwammon Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Yamaguchi)	Private	Tetsunosuké Suemitsu
Fukuoka Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Fukuoka)	1,000,000	Shingo Nagaé
Kyushu Nippo (Fukuoka)	600,000	Hisashi Morita
Nagasaki Shimbun (Nagasaki)	100,000	Choichi Kondo
Kyushu Shimbun (Kumamoto)	300,000	Daishiro Takagi
Kagoshima Shimbun (Kagoshima)	Private	Saneyoshi Kodama
Hokkai Times (Sapporo, Hokkaido)	300,000	Yoshio Abé
Otaru Shimbun (Otaru, Hokkaido)	460,000	Ikutaro Yagami
Hakodaté Mainichi Shimbun (Hakodaté, Hokkaido)	300,000	Kiyoshi Sato
Karafuto Jiji Shimbun (Maoka, Karafuto)	150,000	Mihachi Kurioka
Taiwan Nichi Nichi Shimpo (Formosa)	1,000,000	Toru Kawamura
Keijo Nippo (Korea)	500,000	Akio Tokizané
Manshu Nippo (Dairen)	750,000	Yoshimori Murata
Manchuria Daily News (Dairen)	Private	Yasutaro Takayanagi
Hoten Mainichi Shimbun (Mukden)	200,000	Kinshi Matsumiya
Shenking Jihpao (Mukden)	350,000	Yosuzo Soméya

Newspaper Organizations

The Japan Newspaper Association (Nippon Shimbun Kyokai) This consists of daily newspapers, news agencies and advertising agencies under Japanese management; it was founded in 1913. His Imperial Highness Prince Naruhiko Higashikuni has been honorary president of this association since 1926. Count Keigo Kiyoura, former Premier, is president and Mr. Hoshio Mitsunaga, president of Nippon Dempo, is director-in-chief. It has among its honorary members noted persons such as Mr. Iichiro Tokutomi, Mr. Yukio Ozaki, Mr. Seiichi Uyéno, Dr. Yujiro Miyaké, Dr. Minoru Oka, Mr. Ukichi Oshima and Mr. Takeshi Azuma. The association membership includes almost all the Japanese daily newspapers. The Shunjukai is a social club of newspaper editors, magazine writers and correspondents. It was organized in 1908 and has among its members leading newspapermen and magazine writers of Tokyo. The Nijuichinichikai is composed of high editorial staff members of daily newspapers. It was established in 1926. Its members are editorial directors, managers, news editors and other men of important positions in the editorial service of influential papers. The Shimbunkisha Club (Newspapermen's Association) consists of newspapermen and news agency reporters mostly connected with the business of the Imperial Diet. The Federation of Newspapermen and News Agency Reporters was organized in 1931. It consists of 46 newspapermen and news agency reporters' clubs which are connected with various governmental institutions and economic and financial bodies. Leading newspaper and news agency reporters' clubs are as follows:

Naikaku Kisha Kai	Connected with the Cabinet
Kasumi Club	Foreign Office
Yamashita Club	Seiyukai
Sakurada Club	Minseito
Shinto Kisha Kai	Kokumindomei
Rōdō Kisha Kai	Proletarian Parties
Kunai Kisha Kai	Imperial Household Department

Kokuchokai	Navy Ministry
Shinyu Club	Army Ministry
Naisei Kenkyu Kai	Home Office
Hitotsubashi Club	Ministry of Education
Zaisei Kenkyu Kai	Ministry of Finance
Kinyu Doshi Kai	Bank of Japan
Nosei Kisha Kai	Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry
Unéme Kai	Ministry of Commerce and Industry
Tokiwa Club	Ministry of Communications
Kabuto Club	Stock Exchange
Tetsudo Issin Kai	State Railways
Hosei Kenkyu Kai	Ministry of Justice
Tokumu Club	Ministry of Overseas Affairs
Tokyo Undo Kisha Club	Modern Sports

Newspaper Courses in Universities The Meiji University and Jochi University, Tokyo, opened their newspaper courses in April, 1932. The Newspaper School (Shimbun Gakuin), founded by Mr. Shinjiro Yamané, of the Kokumin Shimbun, sent out its first graduates numbering 40 in December, 1932. The Tokyo Imperial University Journalism Course, established as a section of the Department of Literature was opened in April, 1932. Mr. Hideo Ono is in charge of the course. Lecturers include noted newspapermen and magazine proprietors having many years' journalistic experience. The Newspaper Course of the Jochi University was opened in April, 1932. Mr. Ono is in charge of this course also.

Students' Newspapers At the end of 1932 there were 51 so-called students' newspapers in Japan. These papers are published by universities and schools once a week or once or twice a month. The Teikoku Daigaku Shimbun, issued by the Tokyo Imperial University, is one of the largest of its kind and is issued every Monday. It is an eight-page paper, which was founded in 1920. The Kyoto Imperial University also issues a newspaper of the kind. The Mita Shimbun is issued by the Keio University and is one of the oldest and most influential of those published by private universities. It was founded in 1917.

Publications

A Historical Summary

The number of books published in Japan prior to 1881 is not accurately known. But judged from the records and catalogues of books now existing, they may be roughly taken as follows :

About 1,800 between the time of founding the country and one year before the time when the Shogunate Government was established at Kamakura.

About 5,000 since the establishment of the Shogunate Government at Kamakura until one year before the time when the Tokugawa Shogunate was established.

About 60,000 between the establishment of the Tokugawa Shogunate and the Meiji Restoration.

About 130,000 between the 1st and the 10th year of Meiji, 33,819 between the 10th and the 13th year of Meiji, and 679,368 between 1881 and 1924. Statistics for latest years follow :

1927	19,967
1928	19,880
1929	21,111
1930	22,476
1931	23,110
1932	22,104
1933	24,025
1934	26,331
1935	30,347
1936	28,737

Publications in 1936

Publications in 1936 were specially characterized by a great increase of books on social science. According to the statistics of the Home Department for 1936 (from January to November), the increase and decrease of publications, according to subjects, are as follows :—Publications on politics made a gain of 68 over 951 of 1935 ; those on law, 113 over 709 of the previous year ; economics gained by 509 over 1319 of 1935 ; books on sociology increased by 355 over 690 of 1935. Each of these categories showed a considerable increase during the year, due perhaps to an unstableness in social conditions since February 26th incident. Books on Shintoism increased by 133 over 191 of

1935 ; in philosophy there was an increase of 61 over 1077 of 1935 ; educational books increased by the large number of 529 over 1895 of the year before. On the contrary, books on other religions showed a decrease of 77 from 1440 of 1935. A noteworthy feature of the year is the great increase of books on technical subjects, as follows :— Publications on engineering increased by 35 over 734 of the year before ; those on medicine showed a gain of 177 over 744 of 1935 ; books on industries increased by 343 over 1315 of 1935. The fact that there was a large increase of books on industries and engineering is perhaps due to the expansion of war industries in recent years. Publications on literature showed a gain of 560 over 2325 of 1935 ; those on languages increased by 213 over 908 of 1935. The increase and decrease of books on other subjects are as follows :—The increases are 144 in geography ; 236 in mathematics ; 82 in transportation ; 176 in fine arts ; 165 in amusements ; 59 in technical arts. The decreases are 60 in military affairs ; 89 in statistics ; 687 in textbooks ; 56 in history ; 55 in biography ; 35 in travel ; 64 in science ; 183 in music ; 410 in home life ; 1 in dictionaries, 934 in miscellaneous books. In respect of book-form, books of the size of pamphlets have increased by 3446, and those of ordinary size have decreased by 1788, indicating a rapid production in books of pamphlet size.

Classification The total number of publications in 1936 from January to November was 28,737, including books, pamphlets, leaflets, handbills, maps, drawings, musical notes, printed pictures and toys. They are classified as follows :—

Kinds	No.	Kinds	No.
Shintoism	324	Transportation	215
Religion	1,363	Fine arts	1,014
Philosophy	1,138	Music	1,102
Education	2,424	Amusements	676
Text-books	1,375	Home life	1,209
Literature	2,885	Handicrafts	186
Language	1,121	Politics	1,019
History	429	Law	822
Biography	434	Economics	1,828
Geography	1,238	Sociology	1,048
Travel	63	Military Affairs	294
Mathematics	558	Statistics	147
Science	541	Dictionaries	94
Engineering	769	Series	351
Medicine	921	Miscellaneous	1,405
Industry	1,694	Total	28,737

Following is the classification of the publications according to their form :—

In the form of	Number
Books	13,332
Pamphlets & leaflets	12,545
Handbills	1,226
Maps, drawings, musical notes, photographs, & toys	1,634
Total	28,737

Imports and Exports During the Meiji and Taisho eras the imports of publications far exceeded the exports. The balance, however, gradually decreased because of a steady increase in exports. In 1935 the total value of imports amounted to ¥2,066,000 against ¥2,255,000 of exports. The destinations of the exports were mainly the countries where the Japanese are residing in great numbers, such as the Kwantung Province, Manchoukuo, the U. S. A. the Hawaii Islands and China. The countries from which books are exported to this country are, in the order of importance, England, Germany, the U. S. A. and France. Details follow :

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF BOOKS AND PERIODICALS

(In yen)

	Exports		Imports	
	1934	1935	1934	1935
Manchoukuo	412,755	512,046	9,456	13,531
Kwantung Province	577,903	669,160	6,378	12,160

	Exports		Imports	
	1934	1935	1934	1935
China	210,559	208,824	21,807	19,264
Hongkong	8,968	9,870	—	60
British India	2,988	18,918	961	218
Straits Settlements	48,538	46,796	649	990
British Borneo	1,500	2,067	—	—
Dutch East Indies	8,243	36,516	383	6,113
French Indo-China	66	4,064	—	400
Asiatic Russia	806	30	40	40
Philippine Islands	26,277	34,444	—	150
Siam	170	1,582	185	310
Great Britain	15,550	16,490	818,827	604,418
France	10,901	7,611	139,540	113,237
Germany	44,643	29,323	790,828	739,311
Belgium	214	1,082	1,954	1,149
Italy	—	870	5,327	18,210
Switzerland	431	1,500	9,135	4,942
U.S.A.	293,112	318,016	446,789	510,150
Canada	23,811	28,131	3,470	4,119
Peru	2,968	6,037	—	—
Brazil	40,969	40,029	—	3
Australia	5,887	24,610	—	268
Hawaii	173,616	211,883	—	—
Other	1,921,996	2,255,883	2,266,436	2,006,678

Public Libraries Public libraries both official and private are to be found in all parts of Japan. During 1933 there were 4,686 public libraries throughout Japan.

The largest public library in Japan is the Imperial Library situated in Uéno Park, Tokyo. There are 500,000 volumes of old and new books stored for public perusal. The Tokyo Imperial University Library, rebuilt following the earthquake and fire of 1923, is another large library in Japan.

The following table gives detailed figures regarding the number of public libraries, both official and private, and the number of visitors, and the number of books collected :

Table Showing No. of Libraries, Visitors and Collection of Books

Year	No. of Libraries	No. of Collection of Books	No. of Visitors
1929	4,490	8,592,000	22,847,000
1930	4,553	9,276,000	22,835,000
1931	4,609	9,636,000	23,355,000
1932	4,609	10,138,000	24,980,000
1933	4,686	10,563,000	24,766,000
1934	4,881	10,993,394	26,383,674

Magazines

Historical One of the oldest magazines in Japan was the "Meirokuzasshi" which was published in 1873. But this magazine was full of heavy material only suitable for scholars. It was four years later that a number of magazines to cater to popular interest came into existence. The magazine named "Marumaru-chimbun", for instance, was one of these and was full of sarcastic verses, popular lyrics and also of many laughter-provoking cartoons. Short stories were also favourable reading matters in it. For novels principally appeared the "Hodan-zasshi". For pleasure-reading the "Robun-chimpo." There also appeared a magazine named "Tokyo-shinshi" written chiefly in Chinese, but decidedly erotical. There were also such ones as the "Homei-shinshi," "Moon and Snapping Turtle" and "Kwagetsu-shinshi," and "Shimbunshi."

The "Homei-shinshi" was a more or less imitation of the "Tokyo-shinshi." The "Tsuki-to-Suppon" (Moon and Snapping Turtle) was largely a cartoon paper. The "Kwagetsu-shinshi" (Flower and Moon Magazine) was a pure literary paper under the editorship of Ryuhoku Narishima and lasted about five years from 1879. The "Shimbunshi" (New Proses and Verses) was under the editorship of Shunto Mori. Political magazines also were not slow to arise. The "Ohmei-shinshi" was a private organ of democratic politicians such as Saburo Shimada, Ikuzo Ohoka and Ryo Koyezuka and was full of fervent articles of democratic principles. The "Fuso-shinshi" was also another of this type of magazines, and there were many others of this sort of

papers. No one, however, lasted long, because they all evoked official ban soon. Among these political magazines there was one "Dekinei-sodan" which is remembered by the imprisonment of Eitaro Komatsubara, later Education Minister, on account of his anti-Government articles. It was not, however, Mr. Komatsubara alone who was sent to jail on account of outspoken expression of political views in letters. Many were imprisoned on account of similar offences. Ryuhoku Narishima of the "Kwagetsu-shinshi" was once forced to spend months in jail. As the day of the first opening of Parliament drew nearer, the number of political magazines increased. In 1886 the "Chuo Koron" (Central Review) was first published. The year 1887 was an epoch-making one in the history of magazines in Japan as it was in February of that year that Mr. Iichiro (Soho) Tokutomi started a publishing society named "Minyusha" with the "Kokumin-no-tomo" as its organ which surpassed all other periodicals of the day in the amount of circulation. A few months later the Kokumin Shimbun, a daily paper, was published by the same society headed by Soho Tokutomi. In June the Hakubun-kwan was brought into existence which soon published the "Nippon Taika Ronshu" (Essays by Great Scholars). This resulted in a big success. The "Jogaku-zasshi" (Ladies' Magazine) of Zenji Iwamoto, the "Kyoiku-hochi" (Educational News) of Sannosuké Kusakabé and the "Tetsugakukwai Zasshi" (Philosophical Association Magazine) of Yenryo Inouyé, were published almost simultaneously. The circulation of the aforesaid "Nippon Taika Ronshu" was indeed epoch-making in the sales of all published matters in those days. In 1889 the Hakubun-kwan published the "Nippon no Shonen" (Children of Japan) which surpassed the "Nippon Taika Ronshu" in the amount of circulation. Even that, however, counted only ten thousand, a fact quite uncomparable to the modern colossal number of successful publishing matters. The business condition of the Hakubun-kwan went on successfully and in January, 1895, they published the "Taiyo" (Sun) which soon secured 50,000 readers. In 1904 another hit was made by the issue of the "Nichi-Ro Senso Shashin Gaho" (Graphic News of the Russo-Japanese War) which was published alongside the "Nichi Ro Senso Jikki" (True Stories of the Russo-Japanese War), with 150,000 copies published. Some months later such magazines as the "Jitsugyo no Nippon" (Japan of Business), "Fujin-sekai" (World of Women), "Nippon Shonen" (Youths of Japan) etc. were published by Mr. Giichi Masuda which caused a great sensation among the magazine people. Another noted publisher of those days was a certain Mr. Shimada who published a number of periodicals for youths and children and also for artists which was an equally big surprise to other publishers. It is of interest to note that both Mr. Masuda and Mr. Shimada as well as Mr. O-hashi of the Hakubun-kwan were men from Niigata prefecture. In 1919 the "Kaizo" was published and became a good rival of the "Chuo Koron" which had attained leading position in the magazine world of Japan by this time. Years later came another big magazine man and he was Mr. Seiji Noma, now president of the Dai Nippon Yubenkai (Eloquence Society of Great Nippon) and also president of the Hochi, one of the leading dailies in Tokyo. His first periodical enterprise was the "Yuben" (Eloquence) which was followed by the "Kodan (Heroic Story) Club", "King", "Fujin(Women) Club" and "Gendai" (Present Day). It is a matter of surprise, indeed, that the circulation of the "King" numbers one million copies monthly. In the meantime, the "Taiyo" of the Hakubun-kwan which lasted 36 years disappeared from the magazine world. Soon a rival of the "King" in the bigness of circulation appeared and that was the "Shufu-no Tomo" (Friend of Household Wives) by Mr. Takeyoshi Ishikawa.

Present State Surprisingly many and varied are the periodicals, mostly monthlies, published in this country. A casual visit to a book-stall or the book section of any of our department stores, will give one some indications of the amount of mental pabulum provided to the masses by this type of publication. Statistics show that in 1936 Japan had 8,578 monthly magazines in all. Add to this those published semi-monthly or quarterly, and the number reaches more than 13,700.

What purport to be periodicals of a serious nature intended primarily for intellectuals deal with a wide range of subjects including social problems, science, literature, sports, as well as political and economic subjects. Representative of such magazines are the Chuo Koron, the Kaizo, the Nippon Hyoron, and the Bungei Shunju. Apart from its rich contents, the remarkable thing about any of these "big four" is the tremendous number of pages it has. Every one of them has the thickness of a fairly big volume, containing

from 500 to 600 pages in octavo. What is more, these magazines become stouter still at least four times a year when special numbers are issued. So far as the number of pages is concerned, these monthlies most probably stand in a class by themselves in the whole world.

The contents of any of these so-called reviews include, among other things, detailed reports of news relating to political and economic problems, and frank comments by experts on such problems. Besides, every one of these journals contains, as a rule, a treatise or two of topical interest, usually examinations, from all sorts of standpoints, political, philosophical, religious, literary and what not, of some of the heritages of Japan's past which remained ignored while the country was busy transplanting Western civilization to her soil. It may be stated in this connection that the view often held by Western journals that the tendency is for Japan to turn Fascist and become imbued with a bellicose spirit at the expense of liberalism, is not a sound one, if credence is to be given to the opinion reflected in these high-class reviews which are enjoying wide popularity among the country's intelligentzia.

Needless to say, journals in Japan, as in other countries, have to be censored. And it is a fact that of late years censorship has become very strict, but freedom of speech, though thus circumscribed, is far from dead. What there is of freedom of speech in this country is quite different from that crippled freedom which prevails in other countries. Certainly it is many degrees removed from that which one sees in Russia where speech is entirely monopolized by the Government.

Another feature of the aforementioned reviews of Japan is that a large number of contributors write for each issue. The number averages about forty-five, of which from one-third to one-half are generally considered as first-rate pens of the day. Among them are—to mention only a few at random—Nyozekan Hasegawa, Tsunego Baba, Hitoshi Yamagawa, Yoshitaro Ohmori, Masanori Ito, Hakucho Masamuné, Kiyoshi Miki and Itsuro Sakizaka. The writings of these men, excellent both in substance and style, make good reading, when they enrich the pages of Japanese periodicals, and are always warmly received by Japan's intellectuals.

Yet another feature of these reviews is the large space devoted to short stories and dramas by coming writers. Each issue contains as a rule three or four such pieces of work, and in the case of a special number anything from five to seven. Short-story writing has been and still is occupying an important place in the literary field in this country. One of the cogent reasons for the healthy growth of this branch of literature in this country may be sought in the great favour shown by magazine editors to young writers able but unknown to fame. It has been the custom ever since the Meiji era for almost all literary efforts by writers, who have since found niches in the temple of fame, to be introduced to the public first through the pages of magazines of a serious type.

As these serious magazines are intended for readers of the highest level of intellect, they naturally have a limited circulation of from 30,000 to 70,000 each. Magazines which have a larger circle of readers are those catering to the tastes of the masses, young and old, and those edited primarily for the fair sex.

Most of our popular magazines intended for amusement are published by the Dai Nippon Yubenkai Kodan Sha, the president of which is Mr. Seiji Noma, known both at home and abroad as a magazine king. This publisher owns nine magazines, all enjoyed with avidity by the millions. Of these the more popular are the King, the Kodan Club, and the Fuji, the first-named being literally the king of Japan's popular magazines. These journals are said to have a circulation of from 300,000 to 400,000. Then there are two or three other magazines, such as the Hinodé and the Hanashi, which, though they are not published by Mr. Noma, boast nearly as many readers. These popular magazines have from 500 to 600 pages each. As might be expected, editors of such magazines are out to put in stories calculated to move the reader to tears or tickle his or her sense of humour. Here is a vast scope for popular writers of tales replete with those deeds of derring-do which reflet the ethos of the feudal days. Sentimental love stories by popular novelists are hailed with great delight. The Edgar Wallaces and Wodehouses of Japan find in these journals a great demand for their thrilling and side-splitting stories.

Keeping pace with these journals in point of popularity are women's magazines. The more popular of these are the Fujin Koron, the Fujin Club, and the Shufu-no-Tomo. They contain, among other things, articles on social problems previously touched upon in newspapers,

such as the love affairs concerning film stars, cases of double suicide, scandals of noted ladies and many other sensational topics. Space is not allotted to sensationalism alone. A great deal of space is also devoted to articles on conventional things, such as hints on cookery, sewing and the care of babies—rehashed and repeated year in and year out—as well as romances by popular writers.

Another remarkable thing about all these popular journals is that whenever special numbers are issued, generally three times a year, two or three extra volumes, running up to 200 pages each, are thrown in as a token of gratitude to the reader. This idea of showing generosity was originally hit on by Mr. Noma. The extra volumes thus given into the bargain generally contain articles on the ABC of manual art, or else articles meant purely for amusement. All this goes to show, if nothing else, that publishers of such journals are great consumers of paper.

Of the monthly magazines described above, those of a serious nature generally see the issues of the following month out on or about the 19th of each month, popular magazines much earlier, that is, at the beginning of each month. As soon as they are out a half-page advertisement, showing the contents with subjects and names of writers of feature articles printed in large type, is inserted in turn for two or three days on end in the principal newspapers. There can be no doubt that this sort of advertisement serves as a powerful magnet.

As already stated, there are at present more than 8,500 varieties of monthly journals in Japan. Of these about 800 are on sale in Tokyo. Below are given figures representing some of the principal magazines :

Magazines of a serious nature	250
Magazines for amusements	58
Women's magazines	25
Young men's magazines	95
Juvenile magazines	30

There are practically no weekly periodicals of any importance in Japan. The Asahi, one of the most important daily newspapers in this country, once started publishing a weekly of a serious nature, giving news of the previous week lumped together and comments made on the principal international problems, mainly political and economic. The result of this enterprise was not so satisfactory as expected, and the weekly in question degenerated in less than a year into a periodical catering for the amusement of the public. Much the same fate was shared by the weekly undertaken by the Osaka Mainichi, another influential daily. It may be that the very fact that here in Japan the unit of the economic life of the people is the month, and not the week, stands between weeklies and their success.

LIST OF PRINCIPAL PERIODICALS

Politics and literature:
- Chuo Koron (Central Review)
- Kaizo (Reconstruction)

Politics and law
- Sekai Chishiki (World Knowledge)
- Shakaiseisaku Jiho (Social Policy Review)
- Kokusai Chishiki and Hyoron (International Knowledge)
- Gaiko Jiho (Diplomatic Review)
- Hogaku Shimpo (Science of Law)

Finance and Economic Magazines:
- Toyo Keizai Shimpo (Oriental Economic Review)
- Economist
- Diamond
- Nippon Hyoron (Japanese Review)
- Keizai Chishiki (Economic Knowledge)
- Keizai (Economy)

Popular Magazines:
- King
- Hinodé (Rising Sun)
- Kodan Kurabu (Kodan Story Magazine)
- Gendai (Present Generation)
- All Yomimono (all Stories)
- Hanashi (Story)
- Shinseinen (New Young Generation)

Literary Magazines:
- Bungei Shunju (Literary Review)
- Bungei (Literary arts)
- Bungaku (Literature)
- Bungaku Hyoron (Literary Review)
- Shincho (New Tide)
- Araragi, a waka magazine
- Hototogisu, a haiku magazine
- Butai (Stage)

Woman's Magazines:
- Fujin Koron (Woman's Review)
- Fujin Kurabu (Woman's Club)
- Shufu-no Tomo (Friend of Ladies)
- Fujin-no Tomo (Woman's Friend)

CHAPTER XXXV

LITERATURE, ARTS AND MUSIC

Literature

History

Yamato Period The history of Japanese literature may be divided, in accordance with the political development of the country, into 6 periods : the Yamato, Heian, Kamakura, Muromachi, Yedo and Tokyo periods. The Yamato period comprises the Kodai (archaic period) and the Nara age that followed. The term, Yamato, is derived from the district of Yamato, Nara prefecture, wherein was the seat of the Imperial capital throughout that age. This nascent age of Japanese literature ended in 781 A. D., with the removal of the Imperial capital to Kyoto, then called Heian, by the Emperor Kammu. It may seem improper to include so long a period under one section, but this early stage of Japanese literary growth can thus conveniently be considered as one concrete age, and be studied as such.

(1) Literary Works. The literary works which reveal the mind of the Yamato period and which are still extant, are : the Kojiki, Nihonshoki, Fudoki, Norito, Senmyo, Mannyoshu, Kaifuso, and Nihonraiki. The principal writers are : Ohno-Yasumaro, Tonerishinno, Yamabé-no-Akahito, Kakinomotono-Hitomaro, Yamanoeno-Okura, Otomono-Yakamochi, Ohmino-Mifuné, besides certain sages of the prehistoric age. The last mentioned, Ohmino-Mifuné, was proficient in Chinese classics and poetry.

(2) Development and Classification. Narrative prose and lyric verse assumed concrete form in this period. From a literary point of view the writings of the period can be divided into two sections : works in descriptive style, of which the Kojiki is the main representative ; and poetry that followed, with the Mannyoshu[1] anthology as the typical poetic composition.

Individual self-consciousness realized meagre general development ; instead, a collective sense controlled society. But ample evidence of a pure national spirit is seen. In the latter part of this period alien ideas were introduced from China and India, but could not find their way deeply into the minds of the people. It is not to be wondered at, therefore, that the literary achievements of this awakening period are instinct with the noble national spirit of loyalty and ancestor-worship, permeated with the national traits of optimism, frankness, and genuine simplicity.

Heian Period The Heian period starts from the year in which the Emperor Kammu removed the Imperial palace to Kyoto, then called Heian, and ends in 1186 when the Shogunate government was established by Yoritomo Minamoto at Kamakura. This second literary period, covering nearly 400 years, following the period of dawn, saw Japanese prose and poetry reach full bloom.

Generally speaking, the literature of the period emerged from a style of clear-cut simplicity to one of elegance and delicacy, all literary productions assuming a mood of refined sentiment. In presentment likewise there appeared the graceful kana syllabary, in keeping with current ideas. This harmonization of content and form in the literature of the Heian period set an example to succeeding generations. The Heian period is thus the golden age of Japanese literary achievement. The

1 Mannyoshu (or Manyoshu). The anthology is considered to be one of the greatest poetical attainments of the nation not only in this period, but all through the history of Japanese literature. Its compiler is unknown. The period in which the poets of the book lived covers 450 years from 313 to 764 A. D., and the range of the social standard of the poets extends to all classes from the Emperor down to the farmer or the hermit. The book contains 4,496 poems, which consist of 262 long poems, 4,172 waka and 62 others. Their themes are taken from human relations, love, lamentation, the four seasons, and natural scenery. They are written in the Yamato dialect with Chinese characters. The eminent anthologists in it are Kakinomotono-Hitomaro of the epic long poems; Yamanouéno-okura of the long lyrics who took his themes from social and economic problems of his day; Yamabeno-akahito, the only nature poet among the group; Ohtomonoyakamochi who is believed by many critics to be the compiler of the book and Nukatano-ohogimi and Sakanoé-iratsumé, who distinctly tower above many poetesses who left beautiful love songs with the anthology to their posterity.

period may further be subdivided into the following four sections :

Early Heian period (781–884)
Middle Heian period (885–980)
Mature Heian period (981–1064)
Last Heian period (1065–1182)

(1) Early Heian Period. During this period, imported Chinese culture exercised no small influence on the literary circles of the country, resulting in the popularity of Chinese classics and poetry. Among the poetical works are the Ryounshu, Bunkashureishu, Keikokushu, while among the authors were the Emperor Saga, Kukai, Onono-Takamura, Miyakono-Yoshika, Oyeno-Otondo, Sugawarano-Koreyoshi, Tachibanano-Hirosuké, Sugawarano-Michizané, Fujiwarano-Sukeyo and Miyoshi-Kiyoyuki. With the overwhelming influence wielded by these imitators in the domain of the newly imported Chinese literature, the Japanese waka (31-syllabled poem) was threatened at one time with relegation to obscurity. But the situation was saved through realization of a proposal from Sugawarano-Michizané to discontinue the customary visits of Government envoys to China. In consequence, Chinese literature gradually lost its former influence, and the eminent position once occupied by this alien form of belles-lettres was taken by Japanese poetry. The forerunner of the revived waka verse was the Rokkasen, a collaboration of six representative poets, namely, Ariwarano-Narihira, Ononо-Komachi, Bunyano-Yasuhidé, Kisenhoshi and Otomono-Kuronushi. A further literary achievement of the period is the appearance of works in the Japanese kana syllabary, such as the Taketori-monogatari and the Isé-monogatari.

(2) Middle Heian Period. This is the age of national consciousness when the waka poetry triumphed over Chinese forms, pushing itself forward like a tidal wave. In poetry, works like the Kokin-wakashu and Gosen-wakashu are prominent, while in fiction such works as the Utsubo and Ochikubo and Tosanikki, in Japanese kana syllabary, are representative products.

(3) Mature Heian Period. This is the period in which the literary development of the Heian era attained the highest perfection, creating a golden age of prose. In the field of waka we have such poets as Izumi-shikibu, Akazome-Emon, Fujiwarano-Kinto, Fujiwara-Sanekata and Noin-hoshi, while in the realm of prose there appeared women novelists, like Murasaki-shikibu and Seisho-nagon. the former being the authoress of the Genji - monogatari,[1] while the latter composed the Makurano-soshi, opening up a literary régime of women, as if flowers of innumerable variety and colours blossomed all at one time.

(4) Last Heian Period. A general survey of the period gives the impression of its being politically transitional from Imperial rule to Shogunate administration. Along with the decline of the Fujiwara family in power, literature also hastened towards decline. And in consequence, in the early part of the period the literary cult turned from novels to historical works, producing the Eiga-monogatari and Okagami. In the realm of poetry also a new tendency was apparent, which gave birth to such noted poets as Toshinari Fujiwara and Saigyo-hoshi ; and at the same time a scientific criticism of poetry was initiated and prevailed under students like Mototoshi Fujiwara, Toshiyori Minamoto, and Kiyosuké Fujiwara.

(5) General Development. The most characteristic feature of the period lies in the movement from impromptu and lyrical poetry to stories and narration which require plots and objectification of things. The instinctive or primitive sentiment of the Mannyoshu precedes the more intellectual Kokinshu ; and the Shikashu that followed is pervaded by more meditative and philosophical reflections. With reference to prose, the myths and legends appearing in the Mannyoshu and Kiki (short for Kojiki and Nihonshoki) underwent mutation and took the form of narrative tales in the Taketori-monogatari and the Isémonogatari. This realistic tendency

1 Genji-monogatari. The author Murasaki-shikibu (975-1031) was born a daughter of Tametoki Fujiwara, a family of the illustrious Fujiwara clan, and served at Court for some years as lady-in-waiting to the Empress Akiko. She is known as Lady Murasaki, but her personal name is not known. The book is a large one (nearly 1,900 pages in Arthur Waley's English translation), written in pure old Japanese, extremely refined and pregnant, with Japanese character, or kana. sentences, and literary critics agree in the opinion that it belongs to the greatest masterpieces of the novels of the world.

Genji-monogatari means the Tale of Genji, mainly a love story between the hero Genji and several heroines. It is also a most vivid picture of a civilization, nine hundred years ago, probably as refined, though in the central city only, and certainly as colourful, as any the world has ever known. The most striking thing about the book is the impression it creates upon us of its modernity and universality of feeling. It reflects the Oriental characteristics in every line and still shows human nature very much the same as the Occidental.

was further augmented by the Utsubo-monogatari, and later produced the famous Genji-monogatari, turning its direction thenceforward toward historical compositions, such as the Eiga-monogatari and the Okagami. To enhance this realistic tendency of the time, legends and fairy tales, mingling with current realism, regained their former influence, producing the Konjaku-monogatari, a fairy tale dealing with supernatural and supersensuous things. Furthermore, amid this abundance of literary composition there are others with characteristic features common to meditative, lyrical literature, namely the Tosa-nikki, Murasaki-shikibu-nikki, Makurano-soshi, Izumi-shikibu-nikki, Tombo-nikki, Tonominé-shosho-monogatari and Sarashina-nikki.

Kamakura Period The period of about 150 years, beginning with the Minamoto-no-Yoritomo Shogunate government at Kamakura in 1182 and ending in the Kemmu Era of 1334, is called the Kamakura period, in the history of our literature. For the first 50 years literature was under the influence of the preceding Heian period ; but the one hundred years that followed saw two literary currents sweeping against each other, one at Kyoto, the cultural centre, and the other at Kamakura, the pivot of political authority. Although, during the period, there was no literary movement worthy of special mention, yet it created its own literary atmosphere which resulted in the production of numerous so-called war-tales and religious literature.

(1) Kamakura Literature. The fact that the emotional and sentimental tendency of earlier ages gradually turned to philosophical meditation during this period explains why the works of the time are generally void of individual touch while being true to type. Buddhist pessimism then dominated social thought. The popularization of the Buddhist religion in this period was the result of the natural growth of that religion on the one hand, and of the reaction of public sentiment against the ceaseless civil wars, on the other.

(2) Representative Works. War literature, like the Hogen-monogatari, Heiji-monogatari, Heiké-monogatari and the Gempei-seisuiki, is the most outstanding production of the age. Just as in the preceding period, when literary themes were gathered from historical facts, so in the Kamakura period subjects were sought for from the social conditions of the times when bloodshed, existing side by side with the simple, artless life of the samurai, completely saddened and subdued public sentiment. With reference to waka, inspired by the advent of well-known poetical works like the Shin-chokusenshu, were born the Zoku-gojuishu and Kinkaishu. The Shin-kokinshu, another anthology of poetry, shows the highest point that Japanese poetry had so far reached. The Kinkaishu suggests a return to the Mannyoshu, while the Shin-chokusenshu gives an impression of having reached the acme of poetical refinement, retracing its way back to the beauty of simplicity. It is a pity, however, that rival influences between groups of literary men and critics holding different theories of literary values left the healthy development of literature very much handicapped. Ranking as principal poets of the period were Gotoba-joko, Tsuchimikado-joko, Juntoku-joko, Yoshitsuné, Sadaié, Iyetaka, Jakuran and Sanetomo.

Muromachi Period The Muromachi period is the term applied to the 270 years sandwiched in between the Kamakura and Tokugawa periods, beginning in 1335 when Takauji Ashikaga rebelled against the Emperor Godaigo and terminating in 1603 when Iyeyasu Tokugawa removed the Shogunate government to Yedo.

(1) Muromachi Literature. In consequence of civil disturbance in the preceding age, the literary movement of the period was rather stagnant : the Court nobles were deprived of their positions, while the militarists, taking advantage of the disorderly administration of the central government, exercised an unfavourable influence on the natural development of literary talent generally. Nevertheless, even in such helpless social conditions, the period had the literature peculiar to such an age. Despite the troublesome yoke of historical events, there emerged a certain free and simple literary style ; hence, instead of the waka, tales, and diaries, that flourished down to the close of the last period, such descriptions of war and historical tales as the Masukagami, Jinnoshotoki, Taiheiki, Yoshitsuneki and Soga-monogatari were born, besides rambling notes like the Tsurezuregusa, with their own characteristic attractions.

(2) New Forms of Literature. It is worthy of special mention that in this chaotic period originated such new literary forms as the renka, yokyoku (utai), kyogen and otogisoshi, which saw full development in the following period. Tanka (or waka) verse developed and gave birth to a more diminutive mode, the haikai (or haiku) ; kyogen evolved into joruri and drama ; while otogisoshi reappeared in the form of novels and plays, all in the period that

followed. Herein we notice the beginnings of modern thought, the product of classicism evolving into modernism, and aristocracy into plebeianism. The Muromachi period thus occupies an important position in our literary history, functioning as a bridge that connects the preceding periods with the more illustrious Yedo literature. Another thing worthy of note in this connection is the creation at this time of the Kanazawa Bunko, the Ashikaga-gakko and the Gozen-bungaku, the first two being seats of learning and the last a branch of literature.

Yedo Period The Yedo period begins in 1603 when the Tokugawa Shogunate took up the task of civil government in Yedo, and ends, after 265 years, in 1868, when the Meiji Restoration was accomplished. This forms the most important section in the history of Japanese literature. The Yedo literature succeeded the decadent Muromachi literature and handed on its wealth of achievement to the Meiji period. The remarkable fecundity of this era is to be attributed to various factors, but to none more fundamental than the good government of Iyeyasu Tokugawa, the first Shogun of that line. Realizing the importance of the diffusion of learning for good government, he engaged Confucian scholars, published books, started schools and collected rare literary works. The example thus set by the first Shogun was emulated by the succeeding Shoguns, each striving to open up the way for easier access to knowledge and culture both in town and country, until in the Genroku Era under the rule of the fourth Shogun, Tsunayoshi, national culture reached its highest stage of development. The Yedo period may be divided into the following four sections : centered around Osaka and Kyoto,

1. Period of enlightenment (1603–1680)
2. Period of development (1681–1741) Yedo as the centre,
3. The period of eastward advance of literature (1741–1791)
4. Period of maturity (1791–1868)

(1) Period of Enlightenment. True to its name, this period, following the establishment of the Tokugawa Shogunate in Yedo, saw the collection and publication of ancient books, and annotations thereof, as well as translations of Chinese literature. It is but natural that during this period nothing worthy of note was produced save as foundation work in preparation for what was to come. From another viewpoint this is the age when our traditionally mystic view of art, and our undue belief in tradition, greatly wanes in influence.

(2) Period of Development. A bird's-eye view of the period gives the impression of a rapid development in popular literature, with Osaka and Kyoto as the centre and the Genroku Era as its climax. The origin of this literary movement is traceable to the Mitogaku, which later led to a renaissance of the classics ; we see a revival of haikai verse under Basho, the poet ; and then the appearance of Chikamatsu's joruri. Each made unfettered development within its own sphere of influence. Towards the close of the period, however, these branches of literature lost popularity, until eventually they could scarcely enjoy public recollection.

(3) Eastward Advance of Literature. This is the period when the so-called Kamigata literature of Kyoto and Osaka, began its movement eastward to establish a new literary movement in the city of Yedo, the seat of the Shogun's government. By this time the popular literature founded by Chikamatsu and Saikaku had declined. Buson became the representative haikai poet of the time. Besides haikai, there came into vogue in Yedo various kinds of short poetry, namely, senryu, witty epigrammatic verse ; kyoka, comic verse ; and kyobun, nonsense notes. Also in this period the so-called literature for men of the world cropped up, following the publication of the kibyoshi and sharébon.

(4) Period of Maturity. It was in this period that the construction of the main body of Yedo literature was completed. As a result of the encouragement of learning by the Shogun's highest official, Sadanobu Matsudaira, both art and learning made a remarkable advance, producing a number of artists, and authorities on Japanese and Chinese classics. Parallel with this phenomenal development of classics, popular literature resumed its firm grip on the public. Inasmuch, however, as during the latter half of the period the country was completely upset by troubles both from within and without, most of the literary progress was confined to the early part of the period. Nevertheless, this is known as the period when Yedo literature was crowned with full maturity.

What most characterize Yedo literature are its fecundity in kinds, volume of production and sphere of influence. Not only was it prolific but, all branches of art and learning, from the aristocratic classics down to kyoka, senryu, haikai, joruri (gidayu) and popular novels, showed systematic advancement. The social structure in those days could

not but react on the taste and sentiment of the people, as is evidenced by the two different literary currents that prevailed throughout the period. Whereas the so-called aristocratic literature, which dominated those days, stood on a foundation of Bushido and Confucianism, the popular literature strove to create the epicurian's world. Each of these tendencies went on cultivating its own field of influence in its own respective class, yet what most aptly represents the characteristic features of Yedo literature is the stronger public appeal of popular literary works. These intellectual diversions of the common people, unlike the traditional, conservative and retrogressive taste of classical literature, are optimistic, and charged with the spirit of uplift and mirth. But the negative policy of the Tokugawa government proved an impeding factor in the healthful growth of popular literature, resulting in a gradual loss of individuality. In this way authorship gradually kept aloof from essential requirements of progressive art; the most glaring example of this deplorable tendency is clearly noticeable in Bakin's works.

Tokyo Period The Tokyo period of Japanese literature begins with the Meiji Restoration of 1868 and still happily continues in our present Showa Era. In this short period of sixty-five years the volume of national literature surpasses any other period in Japanese history. The same can be said of its quality.

(1) A general survey of the literary movements of this period reveals the enormous influence exercised by Western literature; all works have thus been enriched in quality and enabled to rank among the most advanced literatures of the West. The present period can conveniently be subdivided into four sections in the following way, chronological figures being given for form's sake :

1. Period of transition (1868–1886)
2. Period of new literary movement (1887–1901)
3. Period of naturalism (1902–1910)
4. Period of neo-romanticism (1911–)

..(1) Period of Transition. During this time the new and old forms and types of literature maintained coexistence, beginning with the earliest years of the Meiji Era and terminating about the 12th year, when the Shosetsu-shinzui by Shoyo Tsubouchi was published. In the early part of the period, still under the influence of the reserve energy of the preceding Yedo period, the novels of Kanagaki-Robun, the plays of Kawataké-Mokuami, the Sosho style haiku all made their influence felt; but the tendency to inertia could not cope with the destructive invasion of European thought and principles; namely, the utilitarianism of Britain and America, the universal love and altruism of Christianity, French liberalism and German nationalism. To be more concrete, in the realm of fiction there appeared, through the influence of such English writers as Lytton and Scott, the Keikoku-bidan by Ryukei Yano, the Kajinno-kigu by Shiba-Tokaisanshi, Setchubai by Tetcho Suehiro, Ryokusuidan by Suto Nansui, and Bunmeitozenshi by Meikaku Fujita, which were brought out one after another. All these are political novels. Following these came the Shosetsu-shinzui and Tosei-shoseikatagi, written by Shoyo Tsubouchi, sign-posts pointing to the new-born movement in national literature. Coincident with the rise of the new literary movement appeared a new form of poetry with the publication of the Shintaishisho. Mingled with these new renaissance phenomena the cultural and literary aesthetics of France and Britain were being introduced through translations.

(2) New Literary Movement. The most outstanding characteristic of the literature of this period is that it completely relinquished Yedo influence and established its own assimilation of the romantic thought then sweeping over Europe and America. Realism, especially psychological delineation, came to be demonstrated by novelists like Shoyo Tsubouchi and Futabatei Hasegawa. They were soon followed by Koyo Osaki, Rohan Koda, Bizan Kawakami, Kyoka Izumi, Ryuro Hirotsu, Chugai Goto, and Ichiyo Higuchi, a woman novelist. These fiction writers dealt with either idealistic, pungent or psychological materials. Especially noteworthy for phenomenal activity in poetry were Toson Shimazaki and Bansui Tsuchii, composers of long poems; and Tekkan Yosano, Saishu Onoé and Kunen Kaneko in the sphere of tanka verse. Furthermore, there was the Negishi school initiated by Shiki Masaoka, and the Araragi school by Sachio Ito. As to haiku verse, under Shiki Masaoka were composers affiliated with the Nihon school; under Koyo Osaki was founded the Shiginsha school, and with the combined efforts of Seisetsu Sassa, Shiei Fujii and Shachiku Ōno was formulated the Tsukubakai.

(3) Period of Naturalism. The trend of literary movement during the last quarter of the Meiji Era was toward

the domination of naturalism. In this sudden rise of naturalism, much influence was exercised by the works of French, German and Russian novelists. Representative Japanese novels indicative of this new movement include works by Doppo Kunikida, Toson Shimasaki, Katai Tayama, Hakucho Masamuné, Shusei Tokuda, Seika Mayama, Homei Iwano, Seiko Nakamura and Shuko Chikamatsu. Against this realistic trend there appeared in the literary arena Soseki Natsumé, Kyoshi Takahama and Ogai Mori, upholding the transcendent school, commonly called the Kotoha. In the realm of literary criticism Hogetsu Shimamura. Tenkei Hasegawa, Tengen Katakami and Gyofu Soma wielded their pens under the banner of art for life's sake. In the domain of drama, plays depicting social thought came into existence under Ibsen's influence. A similar trend was apparent in general poetry and short verse, represented by Yumei Kamowara's and Kyukin Susukida's symbolic poems, Gyofu Soma's poems in colloquial style, Rofu Miki's free verse and Hakushu Kitahara's prose-poems. In the sphere of short poems, came Bokusui Wakayama, Aika Doki, Takuboku Ishikawa and Yuguré Maeda, exploiting new fields, just as Hekigodo Kato and Seisensui Ogiwara did in the realm of haiku. Literature created in the atmosphere of naturalism is generally too much involved in representation of the ugly side of human life, failing thereby to see the whole of life. It is not unnatural, therefore, that the naturalistic trend of the period did not long enjoy public support and was obliged to effect a change towards the close of the Meiji Era.

(4) Period of Neo-romanticism. We may be doing injustice to modern literary movements by crowding all their complex currents under the one category of neo-romanticism . Yet, it is a fact that after the predominant sway of naturalism, every new branch of literary activity obviously based itself on the reactions of the naturalism of the preceding period. Contrary to the negative, sceptical and pessimistic view of life as evinced by naturalism, neo-romanticism attempts to draw from life with the eye upon reality and humanity, in a positive attitude and a spirit of optimism. At the back of this new movement were the pragmatism of William James, Bergsonian philosophy, Tagore's mysticism, Tolstoy's humanism, and the ideas of several other influential Occidental writers. Neo-romanticism was, in its early days, supported by Rinsen Nakazawa, Yohei Ishizaka, Jiro Abé, Saneatsu Mushakoji and other youthful thinkers. It was at that time that the European War broke out. This greatly stimulated the literary movement, pushing it further into the actual life of the people ; eventually it built up such intimate human relations that a drastic renovation was considered unavoidable. This welcomed the rise of many new novelists and playwrights ; among whom were Saneatsu Mushakoji, Takeo Arishima, Yoshio Nagayo, all holding fast to their principles ; Toyohiko Kagawa and Koyata Ebara initiated the vogue of religious fiction and literature ; Naoya Shiga, Ton Satomi, Ryunosuké Akutagawa, Yoshio Toyoshima, Masao Kumé, Haruo Sato and Kan Kikuchi cultivated their own field, in a characteristic style of description. In addition to these fiction writers there arrived on the scene, Seikichi Fujimori, Mimei Ogawa, Kan Eguchi and Hiroichiro Maedako, as representative socialistic writers ; and no small number of novelists producing popular literature. Similarly, in the circle of drama quite a number of new playwriters appeared : of these, Kichizo Nakamura, Yuzo Yamamoto and Junichiro Tanizaki were the most noted. Shoyo Tsubouchi, aforementioned, opened up a new field in pageant and juvenile plays. Another novel phenomenon worthy of note is the powerful growth of scenario writing. With reference to poetry, the long form gradually developed into prose, while folksongs came to the fore, in Yaso Saijo, Shogo Shiratori, Sakutaro Hagiwara and Ujo Noguchi. The overwhelming vitality of the ever-growing literary movement also lent stimulation to the composition of short poems which, following the revival of Mannyoshu study, tried to assimilate nature while giving birth to new verse composed in colloquial style. As to haiku, there is nothing which requires special mention, save the tendency to re-establish itself in couplet form. Summing up all these facts, we arrive at the conclusion that Japanese literature has made wonderful strides and built up a nation-wide sphere of influence that qualifies it to rank with world literary attainment, without forgetting to maintain its own traditions and thereby to create a new and distinct literature of its own.

Contemporary Tendencies

Some of the more prominent movements in modern Japanese literature passed through so many critical phases after the middle of the Taisho (circa

1916), that they began to suffer decline at the close of the period ; and then new movements began to appear.

The First Stage First there is the movement towards proletarian literature, Ohmi Komaki, Yobun Kaneko. Hirabayashi, Aono and Maedako made the first systematic attempt to create literary movement for the proletarian classes, and it was in this circle that such promising writers as Hayama, Kuroshima, and Taiko Hirabayashi were brought up.

The Second Stage Launched by a few younger writers who gathered around Kan Kikuchi, eminent novelist and dramatist, this group promoted new ideas of sensual beauty by abandoning the old conventions and aesthetic notions. Riichi Yokomitsu, disclosed a new realm of style in fiction, being much influenced by the French novelist, Paul Morand.

The Third Stage The third stage in our present-day literature is marked by a powerful appeal from the "Literature for Majority." Kan Kikuchi changed over to this new movement in fiction. In the tenth year of Taisho (1920), "Madam Pearl" was brought out, and this incited the emulation of many other writers.

There are two aspects indicated in the "Literature for Majority." One of these tends mostly to depict modern life struggles in an attractive way ; Kikuchi, Kumé, and Kato are included in this circle. Shirai, Maki, Naoki, and Osaragi are mostly concerned in producing historical and biographical fiction, full of fantastic descriptions.

To the Proletarian groups already mentioned can be added another group of novelists like Nakano, Murayama, Kobayashi, Hayashi, Tokunaga, Fujimori, Ineko Kubokawa ; and critics like Kurahara and Miyamoto. On the other hand, a type-setter, Choku Tokunaga, produced a clever work, "The Street without the Sun," which was translated into German. The labourmen, Sui and Kanechika, are also beginning to produce able and promising works.

The prominent phenomenon of the literary world in 1933 was the decline of proletarian literature. The leading periodicals began to keep the young communistic writers at a respectful distance from the January number of the year and the old writers who had their days in the Meiji Era were reinstated in their place. The tendency of the year was decidedly reactionary in literature, especially in novels.

In the world of drama almost no original work was published, except some translations of Western dramas.

In 1934 religious literature began to flourish, as waves of the so-called Renaissance of religion swept through Japan, while magazines of poetry witnessed a greater cirulation.

Introduction of French literature represented by Valéry and André Gide, and a fresh study of Russian literature, which once was most influential in the literary circles of Japan, has given a new mode of thought to young writers.

Literature in 1936

Trend of Thought The social conditions in the latter half of 1935 and the beginning of 1936 had been comparatively calm, until the sudden outbreak of the February 26th incident threw society into great consternation and uneasiness, exercising not a little influence upon the trend of thought in the country. For nearly four months after the occurrence of the event, the general public was bound to a policy of non-expression of views, and the periodicals were forbidden to give out any criticisms on the Incident. With the easing of tension, after the lapse of some months, however, the Incident became the topic of much severe criticism among the journals, and the seriousness of the situation was sufficiently borne in upon the people. The general opinion was against the violent measures employed by the young leaders of the revolt, who sought to realize their fascist ideals by those means. The Incident gave rise to two distinct and opposite groups of thought, the nationalistic group and the socialistic or liberalistic one. Almost all papers and periodicals were in support of the latter group, and very little appeared in the press in favor of the former. Among the leading contributors of liberalistic thought were the following :—G. Omori, H. Hasegawa, H. Yamakawa, T. Baba, T. Morito, T. Miyazawa, K. Arahata, M.Royama, K. Tanaka, E. Kawai, T. Yanaibara, S. Sasaki, H. Arisawa, K. Miki, K. Abe, K. Kiyozawa. The nationalist or fascist thought found few champions among the leading writers, with the exception of the following :—S. Tokutomi, R. Kita, S. Nakano, M. Kanokogi, K. Chihara, and H. Kurata. Even these writers were not all agreed in their interpretation of the fascist ideals.

During this critical period of political unrest, yet another movement, the "Front Populaire", was introduced from France and Spain and stimulated the Marxist and radical elements in labour groups, though it achieved no tangible results. During its active period in November, G. Omori, a leading com-

munist thinker contributed an article to the "Chuokoron" (The Central Review), wherein he pointed out that the political thought of the world was divided into two conflicting groups, the fascist group and the communist one, and that every individual was obliged to take sides with one or the other of the two.

The need for a humanistic mode of thought was advocated by K. Miki who has been endeavouring to make his ideas the guiding principles of the nation, in order to counteract the feudalistic conceptions still prevalent in Japan.

Towards the end of 1936, the leaders of the various groups of thought, radical as well as moderate, paused to consider how far their concepts were in harmony with the traditional characteristics of the Japanese people. This gave an incentive to historical studies of the peculiarities of Japanese national characteristics. The indiscriminate introduction and admiration of Western culture became the object of severe criticism by leading writers. N. Hasegawa contributed a significant article on the "Characteristics of the Japanese Concept of Culture" (The Nippon Hyoron, August), wherein he maintained that the standards of Japanese culture differred fundamentally from those of the West, as, for instance, the ideal of beauty which expresses to the Japanese in the incomplete and the unsymmetrical, as opposed to the complete and the symmetrical which is the standard of beauty to the Westerner.

K. Miki, in his article "Japanese Fascism" (The Central Review, November) pointed out that what was popularly known as Nipponism was only another form of Fascism imported from the West, but that the true Japanese psychology was incompatible with the Fascist ideals and behaviour.

Literary Events In April, 1936, a new association for the protection of the rights of translators of Western literature was organized at the proposal of D. Horiguchi, Y. Yamanouchi, K. Miki, and other translators. The need for this Association arose from the fact that the original authors in foreign countries demanded heavy payments for infringement of translation rights, which the translators were unable to pay, because of the low payment they receive from publishers.

In May, the Bungeika Kyokai (Literary Men's Association) installed Kan Kikuchi in the chair, and made a plan to establish a Literary Men's Club for the propagation and development of literature, and held its first meeting to make preparations for the collection of building funds.

In July, Toson Shimazaki, the chairman of the Japanese Pen Club, left for Argentine to attend the International Conference of the Pen Club held at Buenos Aires on the 5th September.

A monument in memory of Ichiyo Higuchi, a famous woman novelist of the Meiji Era, was erected in Ryusenji Temple at Shitaya, Tokyo, on the 26th July, under the initiative of the famous Waka poet Nobutsuna Sasaki, and other writers. Another monument was erected in memory of Doppo Kunikida, a well-known novelist of the Meiji Era, at Yugawara, Kanagawa prefecture.

The year 1936 was marked by the visits of famous Japanese literary men to foreign countries. Yone Noguchi, a poet of international fame, visited India, at the invitation of the Calcutta University to deliver a series of lectures on Japanese culture; Kyoshi Takahama, the famous Haiku poet went on a trip to the West and the famous novelist, Saneatsu Mushakoji visited Germany and France.

The literary world of the country suffered great losses in the deaths of the following eminent men of letters:— Choko Ikuta, who translated the complete works of Nietzsche and wrote a historical novel of the life of Buddha; Chisetsu Omori, a versatile writer of Kabuki plays; Miyekichi Suzuki, a prolific writer of stories for children; and Shinkichi Makino, a promising young novelist.

Novels and Stories Literary activities in the realm of novels and short stories proceeded without interruption by political events. The output of literature in this branch during the year showed a considerable increase as compared to that of the year before. A special feature of the year was the large addition of young writers among the ranks of novelists, indicating that literary talent was active among the young, and promising a bright future for the literary world.

Among leading novelists of established fame, such as Shusei Tokuta, Ton Satomi, Shuko Chikamatsu, Haruo Sato, Hakucho Masamune, Junichiro Tanizaki, Saisei Murow, and others, the most prolific during the period were Satomi and Murow, but the works that were much acclaimed among literary circles came from the pen of Tanizaki and Shusei, They were "Shozo, a Cat and a Woman" by the former, and "Kaso Jinbutsu" (Disguised Persons) by the latter.

Shiro Ozaki, a powerful writer of the middle class life, completed his long

story "Jinsei Gekijo" (Theatre of Life) which appeared as a serial in the columns of the "Miyako". The story is written, partially as an autobiography of the author, but dealing chiefly with the people of the lower stratum of society with whom he frequently comes in contact. Riichi Yokomitsu, completed his long novel "Kazoku Kaigi" (Family Conference) which was published serially in the columns of the "Nichi Nichi", and had attracted much attention, "A Great Eagle" by Mitsujiro Serizawa is a remarkable story of petit-bourgeois society, a subject which the author has dealt with in all his novels.

Among proletarian novelists, Kensaku Shimagi was most distinguished in his work "Sanjudai Ichimen" (An Aspect of a Man of Thirty), in which he depicts the distresses and aspirations of the younger generation chafing under the political and social burdens of the age.

As a writer of psychological love-stories, Fumio Niwa contributed frequently to the pages of literary journals during the year. Yojiro Ishizaki's "Mugi Shinazu" (A Grain of Wheat Never Dies) was a much criticized work dealing with the love affairs of intellectual people.

Among longer stories dealing with present-day themes, the following were the most noteworthy: "Gekai no Nagame" (Scenaries of the Underworld) by Rintaro Takeda; "Shusen" (An Autumn Letter) by Mitsujiro Serizawa; "Somenshin" (The Double-faced God) by Kunio Kishida; "Nadare" (An Avalanche) by Jiro Osaragi.

Among the works of younger authors, the following stories, classed under pure literature, were the most outstanding and were awarded the Akutagawa prize: "Koshamain Ki" (Story of Koshamain) by Tomoya Tsuruta, a tragic story describing the life of a chief of the perishing Ainu tribe in Hokkaido; "Jogai" (Out of the City Wall) by Takeo Oda, a record of the author's experiences as a diplomat in Hanchow; and "Kento Sen" (A Messenger Ship to China) by Taku Takagi, an adventurous life-story of Nakamaro Abe, a scholar of the Nara period, who was sent to the Tang Court as a student of Chinese learning.

Among popular stories by leading authors, the most noteworthy work in 1936 was "Miyamoto Musashi" by Eiji Yoshikawa, which appeared serially in the "Asahi". The story describes the life of Musashi Miyamoto, a great swordsman of the Tokugawa Period, to whom the author gives an entirely original interpretation from a modern standpoint. Otokichi Mikami's "Nichiren", a biographical story of the famous founder of the Nichiren sect of Buddhism, was another widely read and much appreciated work of the year. Among writers who regularly contributed historical stories to newspapers and periodicals during the year, the most conspicuous were the following: Shin Hasegawa, Kyoji Shirai, Kodo Nomura, Shiro Kunieda, Matsutaro Kawaguchi.

The following were awarded the Naoki prize which is instituted for the recognition of young authors writing on historical themes:—"Yoshinocho Taiheiki" (Taiheiki of Yoshino Period) by Uko Washio and "Tensho Onna Kassen" (Women's Struggles in the Tensho Era) by Chogoro Kaionji.

A writer of detective stories, Dr. Hayashi, who writes under the pseudonym of Takataro Kigi, contributed several stories to journals which were read with much interest.

Plays Among prominent play-wrights, Seikichi Fujimori, Juro Miyoshi and Yobun Kaneko were the most active during the year. Fujimori's plays, "Watanabe Kazan" and "Takano Choei" were received with much approbation. These plays dealt with the lives of two powerful revolutionary characters who lived at the close of the Tokugawa period, the days preceding the Meiji Restoration. Watanabe Kazan, a distinguished painter and scholar of Dutch learning who carried on his studies in secret because of the ban on foreign studies imposed by Tokugawa Shogunate, and after being caught and imprisoned, ends his life by committing suicide. Choei Takano is another progressive scholar, a contemporary and friend of Kazan, and ends his life under similar tragic circumstances. Among plays dealing with modern life Kaneko's "Furusato" (Native Country) and Miyoshi's "Hikoroku Laughs Heartily" were the most popular, and were accorded very good reception in their cinema version.

The two progressive groups of players, the Shinkyo Gekidan and Shin Tsukiji Gekidan became keenly alive to the need of presenting plays in a purely realistic way, so as to depict the true conditions of society on the stage with the object of bringing out its defects as well as good points. Shinkyo Gekidan group presented Goethe's "Faust", Toson's "Yoakemaye", Fujimori's "Takano Choei" and other plays. The Shin Tsukiji players' group produced "Watanabe Kazan", "Jinsei Gekijo", a dramatic adoption of the story by Shiro Ozaki, Fujimori's "Yo-

gaku Nendaiki" and other plays, including translations of foreign ones.

Poetry Poems in Western style continued to gain in favour, in spite of the opposition to new forms of verse by the followers of the classical styles. Among poets of the Western style, two schools of poetical theory vied with each other for prominence, the one insisting on musical effect as the most important factor in a poem and the other contending that picturesqueness of thought must be held as of vital importance. The dispute ended in a success for the former opinion and musical effect began to be aimed at in a poem.

Ryuko Kawaji, a well-known poet of the Western group, advocated the desirability of introducing poetical recitations into radio programmes.

The following were the most promiment works published during the year by poets of the Western school: "Ichijitsu Shu" (Poems of a Day) by Kaoru Maruyama; "Bogan" (Country Rock) by Shimpei Kusano; "Iyarashii Kami" (The Disagreeable God) by Fuyuhiko Kitagawa.

Tanka Tanka (waka), the thirty-one syllabic poem, continues to be the most favourite verse-form with the Japanese poets. The following were the most prominent among the Tanka poets: Hakushu Kitahara, Isamu Yoshii, Bummei Tsuchiya, Eiichi Matsumura, Fumoto Oka, Nobutsuna Sasaki, Utsubo Kubota, Mokichi Saito, Kunen Kaneko, Yugure Mayeda, and Jun Ishihara. The leading tanka poets publish journals of their own in which their poems appeared. Among the tanka journals, Saito's "Araragi" (Araragi Plant), and Sasaki's "Kokorono Hana" (Flower of the Heart) were the most widely read. Though there exist various schools of poetic expression among tanka poets, the "Mannyo-cho" (the Mannyo style) is generally followed by all as the accepted standard of style. Some variations in tanka verse-form, tending to greater freedom from metrical restrictions were tried successfully, during the year, by such poets as Kubota, Mayeda and Ishihara.

Haiku Haiku, briefer form of verse, composed of seventeen syllables, continued to enjoy steady popularity. During the period under review, two distinct schools of haiku came into conflict with each other. The one, known as "Hototogisu" (Nightingale) school, under the leadership of Kyoshi Takahama, maintained that the representation of the objective world was the chief purpose of the haiku, and the other, led by Shuoshi Mizuhara. insisted on the description of inner reactions to outer things, or the emotional response as the chief theme of a haiku poet. The latter view was strongly supported by young haiku writers, though no decision was arrived at in the controversy. Another movement was introduced for discarding the convention of "Ki", which is an implied rule that no haiku poem is worth its name unless its theme is suggestive of season in which it is composed.

Notable among the books of haiku poems, published in 1936, were Yoshi Kosugi's "A Collection of Haiku", and Suiha Watanabe's "Hakujitsu" (A Bright Day).

Fine Arts

History

Pre-Asuka Period This period, corresponding to what is called the dark age of art, has nothing specially to describe, although it is perhaps the longest period, extending, as it does, from the age of myths down to about the 7th century, A.D.

According to archaeology the ancient Japanese worked in stone, artifacts such as stone images being used in ancestor worship. These are rough hewn sculptures, representing persons clad in armour, wearing a sword, or other arms, all having been used in burial as guardians of the tomb. It was customary, too, in ancient times to have a similar primitive engraving, in the form of a ladder or a wheel, made on the coffin; the plain, artless impression thus conveyed is expressive of the simple mode of living in that remote age.

The dwellings were also in very simple style, constructed of barked but unhewn timber. Even in this simplest type of building there were two styles, known as the Izumo and the Isé; which implies that the ancient culture of Japan was dual, derived either from Izumo or Isé. The former style of structure is represented by the Izumo Shrine, Izumo province, present Shimané prefecture; and the latter by the great shrine of Ise, although these now give no more than a vague idea of what must have been the prehistoric architecture of the country.

In addition to the above, there are

earthen figures called haniwa which arrest the attention not only of archaeologists but also of artists. According to historical records, the Emperor Suinin, who abdicated in 2 B.C., abhorred the cruel old custom of burying people alive around the grave of a high personage, certain individuals being selected from among those persons who were under patronage of the deceased in life. At the instance of a retainer, Nomino-Sukuné, he caused earthen figures to be interred in place of living persons, when the Empress Hihasuhimé died; and this was the origin of haniwa. It is believable, however, that the haniwa existed before Suinin's time. The haniwa is, from an artistic point of view, by no means of high value. It is, nevertheless, the only art product of Japan before the importation of Buddhism. Moreover, its value rests on the fact that it is a work produced solely by the Japanese before they had been influenced by Chinese art. Besides, it is invaluable in that it gives some idea of the life of the people of its day. The variety of haniwa may be roughly classified into human figures, birds and animals, architectural structures, household articles and arms.

Asuka Period As has been stated in the preceding section, for sometime after the foundation of the Empire by the Emperor Jimmu, there was nothing worthy of mention in the realm of art. The Asuka period covers the reign of the Empress Suiko (592–629), when the Imperial palace was in the province of Yamato, Nara prefecture. Already, as early as the time of the Emperor Yuryaku, in the middle of the 5th century, a painter named Isura came over from Chosen, with which country Japan then had frequent intercourse, and through which Chinese civilization had been introduced. Later, during the reign of the Emperor Sushun, towards the end of the 6th century, another painter called Hakka came with carpenters to build temples. But it was not until Shibatatto came over from China, in the reign of the Emperor Keitai (507–531), that Buddhism was introduced into Japan, despite the fact that communication had long before continued with Chosen, then called Kudara.

Shibatatto must have been an expert in the art of sculpture, for he was the grandfather of Kuratsu-kurinotori who cast the large image of Buddha now in the Horyuji temple, in the Empress Suiko's time. Nevertheless, it is evident that the country which contributed most toward founding Japan's fine art technique was Kudara.

The development of art in the Suiko régime was really wonderful. Prince Shotoku, a man of wide learning and an enthusiastic devotee of Buddha, spurred on the ever increasing devotion to art. The leading structures of the period were the Horyuji and Tennoji temples; but those parts of them that have best withstood the wear and tear of time are the two-storied kondo, gate, the five-storied pagoda of the Horyuji temple and the three-storied pagodas of the Horyuji and Horinji temples. No doubt the creative design of the Prince must have been woven into them, but it is nevertheless true that they were modelled after Kudara architecture. It is only from these structures that one can form any idea of what Chinese architecture in those days might have been. The Tamamushi-no-zushi, (a miniature temple) in the Horyuji temple, is valuable not only as a model of ancient architecture but as an example of the structural art and craft of the Suiko régime. The honeysuckle design on the metal fittings of the miniature temple bears close resemblance to similar art motives of Greece. The sculptures of the Suiko period are not all from one source, some coming from China or Chosen, while others are home creations, either from the hands of Chinese sculptors, or the combined efforts of Japanese and naturalized aliens.

The fine art of the Suiko period has thus great depth and width, and at the same time affords invaluable reference for study.

Hakuho Period In the history of Japanese fine art, following the Suiko Era comes the Hakuho period which starts in the reign of the Emperor Jomei, terminating in that of the Emperor Mommu, 629–697. In the 15th year of the reign of the Empress Suiko the custom of sending a government envoy to China, then called Sui, was established, followed by increased intercourse between the two countries. Later, in the 2nd year of the Emperor Jomei's administration, the first envoy was despatched to the T'ang Court in China. By the establishment of this custom art products of China came direct to Japan instead of through the Korean Peninsula, as they had done up to that time. Moreover, the Taika Reformation, by which the political system of China came to be closely followed from the time of the Emperor Kotoku, contributed much toward developing Hakuho art.

(1) Painting. One of the most outstanding facts in the art of this period is that paintings were imported from the Continent, and Buddhist pictures were

painted by priests from China and India. The mural paintings of the kondo of the Horyuji temple testify to this; Its fresco work is further advanced in technique than that of India, and is prized as the leading example of mural painting in any extant wooden building. This and other examples of imported pictorial art technique during the period eloquently speak of the inflow from Indian sources into Oriental countries.

(2) Bronze. The most representative work of the period consists in the big bronze images of Buddha and the two disciples at the Yakushiji temple at Nara. Upon their pedestals are engraved a hoshokumon design in lieu of honeysuckle which by that time had ceased to command preference. The hoshokumon design is the art of inlaying or setting jewels in necklaces, armlets, pedestals, and halos around the heads of images. In connection with the Yakushiji temple's three images, it is interesting to notice that, side by side with the hoshokumon, there is an engraving of arabesque design in grapes. This grape pattern also has its origin in the west of India, whence it came to China during the Han dynasty and prospered in the age of Tang.

(3) Architecture. The only model of architecture constructed in this period and still extant is the three-storied pagoda of the Yakushiji temple at Nara. Another example of the best architectural technique of the period is to be seen at the Nara Imperial Museum where models of five-storied pagodas of the time are preserved.

Tempyo Period The Nara period (707–780) is called the Tempyo Era in the history of Japanese fine art. Through the zealous efforts of the Emperor Shomu and Empress Komyo, who were unrivalled in piety, Buddhist doctrine was thoroughly demonstrated in the capital of Nara, with a consequent development of Buddhist fine art. It was the veritable golden age of fine art in religion. The casting of the Daibutsu (great image of Buddha) at the Todaiji temple and the construction of he temple itself may be pointed out as the greatest examples of art within the period. The Daibutsu has several times suffered from fire, which made it necessary to repair the image; and, in consequence, only the petals of the lotus blossom upon which the image sits retain traces of contemporary art motives. On the surface of these petals are engraved scenes from the sacred world of Buddha, which, from the view point of technique in painting are decidedly excellent. In front of the building occupied by the colossal statue of Buddha there is a bronze-lantern which minutely exemplifies the characteristics of the Tempyo period. Other remains representing the sculptures of the period include several images in the same temple.

(1) Shoso-in Museum.[1] After the

1 The Shōsō-in is located in the precinct of the Tōdaji temple at Nara. The building is a typical wooden storehouse of old Japanese Aze-kura style. No metal nails are used and no walls of earth. The whole building consists of three separate sections which have no windows but one entrance door for each. In the interior each section is two storied with an attic. The dimensions of the building are approximately 108 feet by 30 feet, the height from the ground to the roof top being 39 feet.

Formerly the treasures were kept out from light, and untouched for a long period of years. Since 1872 the doors are being opened annually for airing for two weeks, from November 1st to 14th. All the precious objects are kept in glass cases. In the northern section are kept treasures of the Imperial House before and at the time of the Emperor Shōmu, mirrors, desks, musical instruments, screens, medicine, etc. The middle section contains arms and armour, cases, glass and lacquer wares. The southern section largely contains religious antiques of the Tōdaiji temple.

The Shōsō-in apparently existed in the precinct of the Tōdaiji temple before 756 A.D. when the Empress Kōmyō, widow of the Emperor Shomu, dedicated to the Vairocana Buddha or Daibutsu the Imperial treasures as a memorial of the deceased. Weather has beaten it of course. Battles went on around the sacred ground and the Shōsō-in itself was once stricken by a thunderbolt. But the wooden storehouse has been mysteriously preserved through 1,179 years, with partial repairs. Most of its contents listed in the "Tōdaiji Kemmotsu Chō" (catalogue of donation), dated June 21, 8th year of Tempyō-shōhō (756 A.D.), have been kept unharmed solely due to the loyalty of the officials and people to the Imperial House to whom the Shōsō-in belongs.

The most important treasures are the "Kemmotsu Chō" (catalogue of donation), letters of the Emperor Shōmu, essays written by the Empress Kōmyō, slung sword of the Emperor Shōmu, Kin-gin Hyomon Kin (gold and silver ornamented Oriental harp), Shitan Genkwan (a stringed instrument), Gogen Biwa (a five stringed lute) Mokuga Shitan Kikyoku (a sandalwood checker board ornamented with wooden mosaic), Toriké Tachionna Byobu (a screen with a female figure who wears feathered garments), Urushi Ko Hei (a lacquered carafe), Yōraku or diadems and fragments of the crowns of the Emperor Shōmu and Empress Kōmyō, Gingaku Men (masks used in an old performance "gigaku"), bronze mirrors, swords and other arms and armour; Imperial edict engraved on a bronze plate, glass cup, lacquered chest painted with gold and silver dust, gold and

demise of the Emperor Shomu all the objects of art and craft he possessed were donated to the Todaiji temple by the Empress Komyo. Nearly all were treasured in the Shoso-in Art Museum of Nara, and have safely been handed down to the present. Perfect preservation of art products from so remote an age could be expected only in such a country as Japan. The national treasures of the Shoso-in not only abound in rare paintings but also in many objects of industrial art, such as textiles, lacquer-ware as well as gold and silver ware, porcelain and writing utensils. Especially noteworthy are the T'ang masterpieces from the Imperial household of China. In addition to those of Japanese and Chinese production, examples from the East Roman Empire, Persia, India and countries west of China are found in the museum. Thus the Shoso-in Art Museum is representative of the art products covering both East and West from even before the 7th century.

(2) Ganjinwajo. A priest known as Ganjinwajo in Japan with a number of disciples, visited Nara, then capital of the country, not long after the completion of the Daibutsu. He and his followers had drifted ashore in the southern part of Kyushu. These foreigners left an indelible impression on the history of Japanese art, because they belonged to a group of leading artists of the Tang period of China. Their skill in art was woven into the art of the Tempyo period, not only in the fields of painting and sculpture, but also in architecture. That art products from their hands must have been as great in number as in variety is evidenced by the art treasures of the Toshodaiji temple in Yamato province, Nara prefecture. The image of Buddha enshrined in that temple exhaustively represents the characteristics of the art of the Tang dynasty. Besides these there are several wood-engravings in which, it is surmised, the sculptures of the succeeding period had its origin. Among the foreigners were persons of other than Chinese nationality. Gumporiki, as he was called in Japan, was an expert sculptor, from the country of Kunlunkuo the exact location of which is still a question. Judging by the fact that the Gajinwajo party included people from the west of China, it is but a matter of course that the engravings at the Toshodaiji temple resemble the fresco art of countries west of China. From what remains, there is sufficient reason to believe that some of the descendants of the Persians driven out of the country by the Mohammedans, arrived in Japan with the party.

All kinds of cultural forms and products were imported during this period. These the Japanese could digest and work with a skill not inferior to that of the foreigners. A general impression of the Tempyo period, however, is that there was too much copying of Chinese art and so, too little originality. This one-sided trend of evolution gave rise to a movement in following periods for a revival of art genuinely Japanese in origin.

Konin Period The Konin period (782–888) begins about the time that the Emperor Kammu transferred the capital from Nara to Kyoto, lasting till the reign of the Emperor Koko. The outstanding characteristic of the Konin period lie in the phenomenal rise of native art at the hands of noted priests. Kobodaishi and Chisho-daishi were priest sages of refined artistic endowment. Quite a number of pictures and sculptures of the period are from their hands. The Toji, Koyasan and Miidera temples treasure works of theirs. As one of the prominent painters of the time we may name Kudara Kawanari on whom there are a number of books, but none giving reliable historical information about him. He must have been among those artists summoned by the Emperor Saga to paint the pictures of landscape and rough seas seen on the walls and paper sliding-screens of the Seiryoden Hall of the palace. The custom of painting landscapes and characters on screens of the Imperial palace was thereafter developed setting a fashion in drawings which please the eye. In those days screens were popular, and this helped to popularize landscape painting.

The typical sculptures of the period are such sacred images as are seen at the Shingoji temple, Kyoto, known as

silver ornamented leather box, hangings with figures of Buddhas, Mitta Ebon (a painted tray), silver bottle, and censer with a handle.

Priceless documents of the Tempyō period are stored in Shōsō-in, 779 in all. They include census registers, maps, official documents, I. O. U. and books, and present indispensable materials for the study of official and civil life 11 centuries ago.

For protection, inspection of the treasures of the Shōsō-in is not permitted to the general public, but the pictures of all treasures are published in book form named "Tōyei Zuko," and all the documents may be found in the "Dai Nippon Ko Mon Jo" (Japan's old documents),

the Shingoji style sculpture, and others at the Murofuji temple in Nara prefecture, known as the Murofu style. The rise of the art of engraving images of Japanese gods may be mentioned as a memorable event of the age.

As regards architecture the period shows very few examples that now remain, the representative structures being the main hall and five-storied pagoda of the Murofuji temple. The Heian Shrine constructed in Kyoto, closely modelled after the structures of the age under review, offers excellent material for the study of Konin architecture.

Fujiwara Period The Fujiwara period (889–1186) covers the three hundred years between the reign of the Emperor Uda and that of the Emperor Antoku. At the beginning of the period the Emperor Uda, at the suggestion of Michizané Sugawara, discontinued the custom of despatching envoys to China, thereby cutting off facility of communications with the continent. During the consequent isolation Japanese art was afforded a chance to cultivate its native genius and its own field of influence. The continental art that had been freely absorbed and adopted up to that time commenced to produce national characteristics as is demonstrated by yamatoyé work in the sphere of painting.

(1) Painting. Koseno-Kanaoka was probably the most skilled landscape painter of the period. His reputation was such that the horse he painted on a paper sliding-door was credited with getting out of the screen at night to feed on bush clover in the yard. Koseno-Hirotaka, a well-known painter, was one of his descendants. As skilled painters of that age we may mention also Motomitsu Fujiwara, Mitsunaga Fujiwara, Takayoshi Fujiwara and his son Takachika, besides Toba-sojo and Kakuyu, all of whom specialized in painting yamatoyé or native style, which had developed from a school in the T'ang period of China, called Karayé. Japanese paper-doors and folding screens were what they selected to paint on.

Besides yematoyé many other schools of Japanese style paintings were started, as the kamiyé, utayé, ashideyé, and okoyé. The last mentioned was a school of comic genius whose premier artist was Toba-sojo, a noted priest of the day. Three albums of comic pictures from his brush are treasured at the Kozanji temple. Another important arrival was the yemakimono (paper-scroll) which later developed until reaching its golden age in the Kamakura period. The aforementioned three artists were the most popular masters of the age. Some of their work still survives.

Consequent upon the ever inculcated Buddhist precepts, Buddhist paintings flourished, so much so that specialists in that art were always in evidence. In this religious sphere of painting also national characterization was effected to no meagre extent. The most outstanding of the Japanized Buddhist schools was named the Eshinfu, started by Eshinsodzu, a priest, first affiliated with the Tendai sect of Buddhism, but who later preached the doctrines of the Jodo sect. Probably this school was second to none at that time in Japanization of technique. Tameto, commonly called Great Takuma, who did the fresco work of the Ho-o-do at Uji, Kyoto, belonged to the Takuma family, producing accomplished painters of the time. The most representative Buddhist paintings are treasured at the Hokkeji, Yamashiro Chohoji, Yamato Horinji, Koyasan, the Toji temples and the Imperial Art Museum of Tokyo.

(2) Sculpture. Remarkable advancement in the realm of Buddhist sculpture was revealed in consequence of effective doctrinal propaganda by the Tendai and Shingon sects. Wood-engraving stood unrivalled, but that art, unlike the same mode of the previous age, was mainly in what is called parquetry work. Sculptors collaborated, and in most cases images were constructed in separate parts, each carved by a different artist, under an accomplished specialist. It is interesting to note that even in the carving of hands, feet, head and body there was a division of labour into smaller parts, and each section was put in charge of one sculptor. When completed, the several parts were put together, painted with lacquer and gilded.

Guilds of sculptors, like the shichijobussho, Shichijo-omiya-bussho, Rokujomarikoji-bussho and Sanjo-bussho, established studios one after another. Especially noteworthy in this field was the Shichijo-bussho started by the famous artist Jocho who was practically supreme in the realm of sculpture in the Fujiwara period. The peculiarity of the Jocho school of his creation lies in its soft, mild features with smooth, elegant textile folds or plaits, which characterize the most glorious period of Fujiwara art. The images of Amitabha enshrined at the Ho-o-do, Hokaiji, Saikyoji and Chusonji temples are all representative works of the Fujiwara period.

(3) Architecture. Along with the development of Japanese style painting,

a new Japanese architecture, as seen in what is called the Shinden-zukuri (main building of a peer's residence), prevailed. This style gradually encroached on the domain of sacred structures, as is well exemplified in the Ho-o-do and Konjikido, above cited.

Within three hundred years after the country's adoption of a seclusion policy, an indigenous style characteristic of the Yamato race made the fullest possible development in all branches of art.

Kamakura Period Between the Emperor Gotoba and Emperor Godaigo the Kamakura Shogunate assumed the reins of government. The Kamakura period (1192–1337) of political history is at the same time that of Japanese art. During those 140 years traditional Japanese sentiments and thought developed vigorously against the aristocratic culture which had gained influence in the previous period. Such a turn of cultural development could not but react on art; the anti-traditional spirit of the age began to tell on artistic creation. Not only from within but also from without the country a radical change was introduced, because in those days the Yuan period succeeded the Sung in China; and its highly favoured cultural attainments came flooding into Japan. The two movements, of foreign and domestic origin, combined to lay a foundation for modern fine art which started and developed in and after the Muromachi period.

(1) Painting. Continued civil wars, military administration, and war literature, all contributed to the voluminous production of yemakimono (picture-scrolls) based on themes from battle scenes. Another kind of yemakimono worthy of special mention was painted for the purpose of propagating the doctrines of newly risen sects of Buddhism, such as the Zen and Jodo. This pictorial demonstration of religious doctrines proved quite effective; for, by depicting the life and work of founders, a more direct appeal was made to prospective converts. For the same reason the yemakimono came to serve also as a means to propagate knowledge of the origin and development of shrines. Quite a number of picture-scrolls of the period still remain in perfect condition, those reckoned among the greater works being the History of the Kitano Tenjin Shrine, Murasaki-shikibu-nikki, Sanjurokkasen, Moko-shurai - ekotoba, Honen - shonin - gyojo - edzu. The last mentioned is a yemakimono depicting the personal history of Honen-shonin, the noted priest who founded the Jodo sect of Buddhism. Among scores of yemakimono painters, Nobuzané Fujiwara, Keion Sumiyoshi, En-i, Takakané Takashina and Yoshimitsu Tosa were the most popular. A further noteworthy event of the period was the rise of portrait painting. Generally speaking, until this period there was no other method for reproducing figures except by sculpture. The term for portrait was niseyé. But toward the end of this period a new mode appeared. The technique of portrait painting made rapid advance from the time of Takanobu Fujiwara, Taira-no - Shigemori, Minamoto - no - Yoritomo whose works are treasured at the Shingoji temple, all rare masterplieces.

With reference to Buddhistic painting, the aforementioned Takuma school gradually improved in technique; and with the appearance of Shoga, a descendant of the Takumas, the Takuma school of Buddhist painting was founded, drawing a clear line between the old and the new delineations.

(2) Sculpture. The Kamakura period was also a fecund age in the direction of sculpture. Compared with the work of the preceding period it appeals with more virility. The Shichijo-bussho, the most important sculptors' association or guild, which had been making steady progress, produced a group of consummate artists in Koei, Unkei, Jokaku, Kwaikei, Tankei, Jokei, Koben and Kosho, all contemporaries. Among them the most skilled were Unkei, Tankei and Kwaikei, who are recognized as the best sculptors since the time of Jocho. Whereas Unkei and Tankei excelled in producing the expression of passion, as in statues of nio (Deva kings), Kwaikei specialized in gentle, elegant figures, like those from the chisel of Jocho.

(3) Industrial Art. Lacquer-ware technique, too, made a remarkable advance. The art of engraving also progressed, especially with the appearance of the Kamakura-bori (Kamakura style of engraving). Technique in metal work, also saw much development, inheriting the characteristic virtues of the Fujiwara period. Up to that time the native ceramic art was in so primitive a stage that only unglazed ware could be manufactured. After Kato Shirozaemon-Kagehisa returned from Sung, marked progress was made in this field, and fine chinaware became a home product.

(4) Architecture. The mansions of nobles had been built in the Shinden-zukuri style, but during the Kamakura period the Buké-zukuri style of architecture started and soon dominated.

This is a simple, plain style with an unusual number of sliding-doors to let in light. Though this style of structure has gone out long ago, one can get an idea of it through various yemakimono in which this style of architecture is represented. After the advent of the Zen sect of Buddhism under Eisai-zenshi from China, then called Sung, and the establishment of the Kenninji temple at Kyoto, Zen style of architecture came to attract attention. A good example of this style, still intact, is the Enkakuji temple at Kamakura.

Muromachi Period Succeeding the Kamakura age came the Muromachi period (1337–1573), which, after the two centuries and a half of civil strife, ended with the downfall of the Ashikaga Shogunate. In China the civil disturbances of the late Yuan dynasty had been brought under control by the rise of the Mings, resulting in the advent of the golden age of Ming culture, which exercised some influence on Japan.

(1) Painting. As was customary whenever Chinese culture attained its zenith, communication between the two countries, which had been on the wane, revived again, resulting in the gradual decline of yemakimono, portrait and Buddhist painting, handed down from the preceding Kamakura period, which were unable to cope with the powerful influence of Sung-Yuan style of painting in China. Early in this period there were not a few yemakimono worthy of note such as the Gosannen-gunki by Korehisa Fujiwara and the Yuzu-nembutsu-engi, joint work of Hiroyuki Tosa, Yukihidé Kasuga, Mitsukuni Fujiwara, Ryuko Awataguchi, Jakusai Rokkaku and Eishun Hogan. The latter still remains in the form of a coloured wood-engraving, perhaps the most widely known as our oldest example of this art.

Typical portrait work of the period is that of the Emperor Godaigo in the Daitokuji temple, Kyoto, and of Yoshimochi Ashikaga, at the Shingoji temple. Far more characteristic of the age, however, are the portraits of Zen priests or so-called "Chinso." The most typical chinso is, perhaps, the portrait of Seiichi-kokushi, painted by Mincho, preserved in the Tofukuji temple. Strictly speaking, chinso has more similarity to the Sung-Yuan style than to the Tosa school of portraits.

Buddhist painting of the Muromachi period may roughly be adjudged stationary. Copying of old works seemed to have been the only task attracting artists, among whom a priest named Myotaku-zenshi was known for skill in painting Acala pieces; the principal works of this priest-painter are treasures of the Imperial Art Museum. The most distinguished pictorial artist throughout the period, however, was Mincho. Among his works handed down to the present are the portrait of Seiichi-kokushi, above-mentioned, Gohyakurakan (five hundred disciples of Buddha) in the Tofukuji temple, and Dainehanzu, known as the largest painting in the country. In his brush work are ample traces of the style of the Sung-Yuan period in China; and he was, moreover, the leading painter of the age by whose art the Continental technique, introduced with the Zen sect in the Kamakura period, was digested, assimilated and consummated.

Special mention should be made of the advent of the Sung-Ming style in yamatoyé work, enhancing the traditional style of that art. This new movement was no doubt made possible by the Ashikaga policy of encouraging trade with China, then called Ming. In consequence, numerous Chinese works of art continued to be imported, greatly stimulating the domestic art world. Among various merits and demerits then inherited from the Continent, kakemono (hanging pictures) and a more advanced technique in painting flowers and birds were perhaps the most outstanding. It is also a fact worthy of special mention that the Sung-Yuan style of sumiyé painting (black and white) became popular throughout Japan, under artists like Jasoku Soga, Sotan Oguri, Shinno Nakano, Sesshu and Masanobu Kano. These five sumiyé painters were talented pupils of Shubun who enjoyed the confidence of the Shogun and occupied an important position under the Shogunate government as a painter.

(2) Sculpture. Images of Buddha continued to be supplied by the Shichijobussho of which mention has already been made. But these products gradually lost their artistic value. The aforementioned Shubun was also a good sculptor. It is said of his skill that the great wooden statue, 40 feet high, of Amitabha, enshrined in the Unkyoji temple, was originally the work of a Nara sculptor, but was retouched by Shubun's chisel and improved.

(3) Industrial Art. In this epoch the development shown in industrial art was mainly due to the whimsical enthusiasm of the Shogun. Chanoyu (tea ceremony), a ceremonial etiquette genuinely Japanese, gave rapid rise to various branches of industrial art especially in fine porcelain, the climax of which

was reached during the latter part of the period. This progress was not only in works of manual art like tea-cups, trays and so on, but in kakemono and tokonoma (alcove) furnishings of the tea-room, and the building itself, all of which are required for the full ceremony of tea-serving. Most of the tea-cups used for chanoyu in those days were of Chinese make, or imports from the South Seas.

(4) Architecture. The Zen style of architecture greatly improved. This, combined with the cult of chanoyu lent impetus to the construction of simple but tasteful habitations and temples, with gardens and arbours harmonious to the main building, well represented by the Kinkakuji and Ginkakuji temples in Kyoto.

Momoyama Period The 25 years from 1574 to 1598 is termed the Momoyama period. During this comparatively short interval civil disturbances stirred up the whole country under the governments of Nobunaga Oda and Hideyoshi Toyotomi, acting as military dictators.

(1) Painting. Eitoku Kano was perhaps the greatest painter of the period. Nearly all the mural pictures in the castles of Azuchi and Osaka and the mansion at Shuraku are attributed to the brush of this famous artist. The peculiarity of the painting of the period lies in its grand scale and gorgeous, bright colouring. This is especially true of Eitoku Kano's work. Another noted landscape and ukiyoyé painter was Sanraku Kano; in the Sesshu school of sumiyé were Kogan Unkoku and Tohaku Hasegawa; the Tosa school had Mitsuyoshi who succeeded to the Tosa school which had by that time been reduced to a school only in name.

(2) Sculpture. The most striking feature of the Momoyama sculpture is its clever adaptation to decoration of architecture. Besides Hidari-Jingoro, whose fame as an accomplished sculptor and engraver still enjoys nation-wide popularity, there were skilled artists like Yuzaemon Miyanishi and Matayemon Okabé. As in the Muromachi period, the art carving "No" masks came into vogue.

(3) Industrial Art. Metal work experienced remarkable improvement. The sword-guard artists evolved novel designs. Also in the technique of bronze casting no insignificant progress was made by casters like Yashichiro Nagoya, Dojin Nishimura, Yojiro Tsujido, Yayemon Nagoya and Echizen-no-Shojosansho. The current of the age could not but influence the art of raised lacquer, handed down from previous periods; now works on large scale, fit for the decorative purposes architecture, began to dominate the situation. The Kannon-do of Chikubu-shima inland, Biwa lake, and the Kodaiji temple of Kyoto best represent the technique of this period.

Ceramics also were greatly enhanced in technique. Impelled by the nation-wide use of chinaware, due to the popularization of chanoyu, imported articles grew insufficient. As a natural consequence, home industry in this direction was greatly stimulated, resulting in Nagasuké Chojiro invention of the rakuyaki style and Rokubei Mikazuki's bizenyaki style of ceramic ware. In the realm of textile art, what is to be noted is that in the Tensho Era (1573) a new technique in weaving was introduced from Ming, China, and reached Nishijin, Kyoto, where it appeared in the form of Yamato-nishiki, ito-nishiki, karaori-nishiki, kinran (gold brocade), donsu (satin damask), rinzu, and so on.

In conclusion it may be said of the art of the Momoyama period that, while developing such gorgeous and imposing structures as the Shurakutei and Momoyama Castle, it popularized the exclusive, austere and polite art of chanoyu. Thus two diametrically opposed arts developed all through the Momoyama period.

Yedo Period The Yedo period (1603–1867) started with the Tokugawa Shogunate in Tokyo, then called Yedo, and terminated with the downfall of that government just before the Meiji Restoration. During the 260 years of the Tokugawa Shogunate Yedo flourished, cultivating its own culture as against that of Kyoto, giving the country two centres of culture, one in the east and one in the west.

In the early Yedo period communication with countries beyond the sea opened and foreign trade was thereby greatly stimulated. Whereas hitherto Japan had had little or no dealing with Europeans, save Spaniards and Portuguese, Japan now began to be visited by Hollanders and Britons who came to her shores for commercial purposes. Relations with neighbouring countries also increased in intimacy, due to improved communication facilities. Nevertheless, the people were not satisfied with official passivity but extended their trade with Siam, Cochin, Tonking, Luzon. Furthermore, Iyeyasu Tokugawa, the first Shogun of that line, even attempted to trade with Spain and Mexico, sending envoys for that purpose. By this improved intercourse with foreign countries traditional Japanese art was greatly

influenced. In the Kan-ei Era (1644), Yemosaku Yamada first produced pictures in Western style painting. Fortunately or unfortunately, however, the third Shogun, Iyémitsu, with a view to stamping out Roman Catholicism pursued and imposed an isolation policy by prohibiting the entrance of all foreigners except Hollanders and Chinese. Under this high-handed policy the infiltration of foreign influence was almost completely checked, and domestic genius again came into its own, developing another golden age of fine art.

(1) Painting. The Kanos, who had flourished since the Muromachi period, produced skilled artists like Yasunobu, Naonobu, Tsunenobu and Morinobu, all of whom had the honour of serving the Shogunate as official painters. But this special favour proved a cause of decline in the Kano school later. Among the foregoing four principal members of the Kano school, the last mentioned, Morinobu, was the most excellent, known by the pen-name of Tan-yu. Tsunenobu ranks next in artistic skill. The Tosa school, which had been waning in influence, recovered its laurels in the days of Mitsuoki who was promoted to the Emperor's service. In those days the Sumiyoshi school originated from the Tosa, and became firmly established under Jokei, younger brother of Mitsunori. Toward the close of this period an attempt was made for the revival of yamatoyé, by Totsugon Tanaka, Ikkei Ukita and Tametaka Okada, among whom the latter was pre-eminent. The yamatoyé of the Meiji and Taisho eras started from their work. Yosai Kikuchi is another painter of the group.

One of the greatest painters of the age was Korin Ogata whose art may be traced back to that of Sotatsu school which was originally a style of painting for decorative purposes. Under Korin were Kenzan, Shiko Watanabé and Hoitsu Sakai. Their work suprised foreign eyes as a revelation of the peculiar excellence of Japanese art. Being used for decoration the work of the Koetsu school had close relations with textile, dying, ceramic and other technical industries of the time.

Ukiyoé, which for originality is one of the salient art products of the Yédo period, developed hand in hand with popular drama and popular literature. It is said that the Ukiyoyé or genré style of picture, was started by Iwasa-Matabei-shoi; certainly he and Choshun Miyagawa, Shunsho Katsukawa, Utamaro Kitagawa, Kiyonaga Torii, and Hokusai Katsushika are known as the most accomplished ukiyoyé painters. Of ukiyoyé there are two kinds, namely, hand-painting and colour-print. The latter form was most characteristic of the age. The black and white prints, started by Moronobu Hishikawa, were forerunners of beniyé, which is a coloured print made on coloured wood blocks, an engraved block for each colour. Before this printing process was adopted for mass production, brushes were used for colouring. At first two colours, red and green, were used for printing from engraved blocks, but Harunobu Suzuki later invented an improved process of printing in five colours, starting the nishikiyé which met with popular favour as time went on. Later, in the hands of masters like Utamaro and Hokusai, the process of colour-printing from wood-engravings saw marked improvement, until the finished pieces far surpassed the original hand-painted work in artistic value. Landscape prints in ukiyoyé style were started by the famous Hiroshigé Ando. Some people may look down upon ukiyoyé as vulgar art; but nevertheless it was art most true to the life of the Yédo period. In later years it was not seldom that European collectors of works of fine art were found ready to pay even several thousand yen for a sheet of mere colour-print. This was not without reason.

Special mention should also be made of the arrival of Ifuchieu, a painter of the Ching dynasty in China; for it was through this artist that the Nan-Sung literary school of painting was first introduced into this country. In the early days of the Nan-Sung style of painting, Nankai Gion, Hyakusen Sakaki, Taiga Ikeno and Buson Yosano were its most excellent exponents. Later, with the rise of Chinese classics, the Nan-Sung literary school made great progress and its influence practically dominated the country, producing such noted names as Unsen Kushiro, Daizen Hirosé, Kaiséki Noro, Chikuden Tanomura, Kazan Watanabé, Aigai Takaku, Baikan Sugai, Hanko Okada, Chikudo Nakabayashi and Baiitsu Yamamoto, among whom Chikuden Tanomura was reputed the most excellent. Kazan Watanabé and Baiitsu Yamamoto enjoyed popupar favour next to Chikuden.

Buncho Tani became the most brilliant artist of the age, both in Pei-Sung and Nan-Sung styles of painting; he was a pupil of Kangen Kitayama who learned technique from Fei Hun-yuan and Chu Ko-chin who entered Japan during the Ching dynasty of China. There were some other very important painters, too, namely, Rikyo Yanagisawa, Jakuchu Ito, Sosen Mori

and Ganku. Especially popular were the pictures of domestic fowls by Jakuchu, and monkeys by Sosen.

An important event, moreover, was the appearance of the Maruyama school with Okyo Maruyama as its founder. Okyo's style was derived mainly from Ming and Ching paintings, and developed into what resembled sketches. His pupil, Goshun Matsumura, established the Shijo school, which in later years grew to be as popular as the Maruyama school. By these two styles the Kyoto world of pictorial art was dominated.

(2) Architecture. The Momoyama architecture of the preceding period developed into a far more elaborate style, and with more elegance. This elaborate rococco style of Yedo architecture had less value as fine art than as mere decoration. Examples of the architecture of this period are found in the celebrated buildings at Nikko, which, as everybody can recognize, are more worthy to be called an excellent decoration than an excellent example of fine art.

(3) Sculpture. Although there is not much to be said about the sculpture of this period there are yet two outstanding instances that exemplify the use of Chinese carving; there are the Mampukuji temple at Uji, Kyoto, by a Chinese, Ingenzenshi, and the art of Zenshu-chokoku (Zen architecture), by a Buddhist sculptor, Fan Ton-sheng, from Foochoo, China.

(4) Industrial Art. Both manual and industrial art greatly advanced in technique, and metal, textile, dying, lacquer and ceramic industries flourished like all sorts and varieties of flowers. A Chinese introduced from Ming the process of decorating ceramics with brilliant colours or in gold or silver. And through the efforts of Kakiémon Sakai and others the famous Arita and Imari potteries were founded. In this field of fine art the name of Jinsai Nonomura should be remembered, for he occupied the highest position. Cloisonne ware also experienced a remarkable promotion in technique, along with other branches of industrial art.

The time arrived at last when the people awoke from their age-long sleep, and the doors that had been closed to foreigners were opened. Besides Hollanders, came Russians, Britons, Frenchmen and Americans, in spite of the national agitation to keep the country shut against foreign intercourse. Already from Holland Western learning and art had percolated in through Nagasaki. Oil painting in Western style was attempted by Gennai Hiraga. The new style of painting spread far into the country even to Akita prefecture, and reached consummation under Kokan Shiba later. Thus towards the close of the Yedo period the urge of Western art reached Japanese shores in great force.

Meiji Art The modern age in the history of Japanese fine art started over 60 years ago when the Emperor Meiji established the Imperial government in Tokyo. The Oriental fine art, which first originated in Mesopotamia, made eastward advance blending with Indian and Chinese art until it reached the Far East and established its central influence in Japan.

(1) Architecture. With the Meiji Restoration came a turning point in our history; the country was opened to free foreign intercourse, followed by the inflow of European culture like a flood. Western civilization soon began to exercise an overwhelming influence all over the country, and eventually everything foreign met with enthusiastic popular favour. This phenomenal change in the country directly influenced architecture; and European-style of structures sprang up here and there. Even in the Japanese style of building were mixed Western modes of architecture. These radical changes in the architectural world of Japan had no small influence on other branches of our fine art.

(2) Japanese Painting. In the early part of the period Nan-Sung literary painting still prevailed, supported by Kyou Hoashi, Koseki Nakanishi, Shoka Watanabé, Gokaku Hirano, Rozan Yasuda, Soun Tasaki, Yukoku Noguchi, Aizan Taniguchi, Kwatei Taki, Chokunyu Tanomura, Seiko Okumura, Kampo Araki, Shohin Noguchi and others.

It so happened that in the 11th year of Meiji Prof. Ernest F. Fenollosa, an American professor in the chair of philosophy at Tokyo Imperial University, being charmed with Japanese paintings such as the ukiyoyé and Kano and Tosa work, proposed to start a movement for the preservation of these schools of art. In conformity with his suggestion, the Government, in the 21st year of Meiji, established the Tokyo Academy of Fine Arts. As a result of the movement, the old schools of Japanese style of painting revived and a number of painters regained influence, of whom the more distinguished were Hogai Kano and Gaho Hashimoto of the Kano school; Kangyo Morizumi, Kangi Yamana, Mitaté Kawabé, Fuko Matsumoto of the Tosa school; Zeshin Shibata, Kansai Mori, Bairei Yukino, Gyokusho

Kawabata, Keĭnen Imao of the Maruyama school; Chikudo of the Kishi school; Honen Tsukioka and Gekko Ogata of the ukiyoyé school.

In the 40th year of Meiji the first art exhibition was opened by the Education Office; and since that time it has been held once every year, greatly stimulating the resurrection of traditional Japanese art. The Tokyo circle of Japanese style painters was represented by Taikan Yokoyama, Kanzan Shimomura, Kogyo Terasaki, Gyokudo Kawai, Tomoné Kobori, Jippo Araki, Suiun Komuro, Somei Yuki, Kiyokata Kaburagi, Reika Yoshikawa, Eikyu Matsuoka, Hyakusui Hirafuku and Keigetsu Matsubayashi; while in the Kyoto circle were well-known painters like Kokyo Taniguchi, Hobun Kikuchi, Seiho Takeuchi, Shunkyo Yamamoto, Kako Toji, Keigetsu Kikuchi and Suisho Nishiyama. All of these leaders displayed great activity in nurturing the Japanese style of painting as we see it today.

(3) Western Painting. Towards the end of the Yedo Era the foundation of the Occidental style in painting had already been laid by Kokan Shiba and Denzen Aodo; and now came Togai Kawakami, Yuichi Takahashi, Horyu Goseda, Hosui Yamamoto, Shinkuro Kunisawa, Chu Asai, Shotaro Oyama, Kiyowo Kawamura and Naojiro Harada, for whom the former foundation work became the basis for a new start. In the early Meiji days, English and Italian painters came to give lessons at the fine art department of the Tokyo Imperial University. Later, in the 21st year of Meiji, the Meiji Bijutsukai was founded for the purpose of enhancing the Western style of painting. It was, however, not until Kiyoteru Kuroda returned from France and opened a department for Western style painting in the Tokyo Academy of Fine Arts, that the Occidental mode really became established. Important artists in the new style in those days were Saburosuké Okada, Eisaku Wada, Takeji Fujishima, Kotaro Nagahara, Mankichi Kobayashi, Fusetsu Nakamura, Kunishiro Mitsutani, Sanzo Wada and Kunzo Minami. The models set by these great painters still prevail to-day, but will in future be more subjected to the influence of the Japanese style before reaching consummation, just as the Japanese style will assimilate Western motives and technique as it keeps on its forward march.

(4) Industrial Art. The ceramic industry made rapid advancement after the arrival of Wagner from Germany with a new technique; and with the help of Kozan Miyagawa, Yohei Kiyokazé, Dohachi Takahashi, Rokubei Shimizu and Sobei Kinkozan. In recent years Hazan Itaya, Rokubei Shimizu and Ichiga Numata have won distinction in this sphere of art. During the Meiji Era, fine cloisonne was manufactured and exported in abundance. Metal work also developed to a remarkable extent, producing a number of skilled artists. In the domain of lacquer and dying industries no less improvement brought Japanese industrial art to the verge of its golden age.

The tendency of Western countries to vie with one another in holding Japanese art exhibitions amply endorses the international value of Japanese art.

(5) Sculpture. Upon opening the Tokyo Academy of Fine Arts, Kyuichi Takeuchi and Koun Takamura gave lessons in traditional Japanese wood sculpture. Western style sculpture was also taught, by an Italian instructor in the academy, side by side with lessons from Shukei Naganuma who had returned from Italy, followed by Fumio Asakura, Taimu Tatehata, Seibo Kitamura. From Koun Takamura and Kyuichi Takeuchi we come down to Choun Yamasaki, Unkai Yonehara, Denchu Hirakushi, Shin Naito. In the Meiji Era the rise of ivory carving was also conspicuous, producing engravers like Gyokuzan Asahi and Komyo Ishikawa.

What helped the phenomenal ascendency of all branches of art were the Bunten (Education Office's art exhibition) which later came to be called Teiten (Teikoku Bijutsuin art exhibition), and the Inten (Nihon Bijutsuin art exhibition). Besides, there were and are exhibitions held by many other smaller groups of painters. From the viewpoint of art, it is not too much to say that Japan is to the Orient what France is to Europe.

Present Day Art

The period since the close of the Meiji Era has been no less remarkable in the art history of Japan than the previous period, evincing brilliant activity in every direction. Since 1919, when the Imperial Academy of Fine Arts was established, a systematic movement in the art world of Japan has been promoted. During the Taisho and Showa eras many institutions and organizations have been created, and new schools successively introduced from Western countries, especially from France, Germany, and Italy. Western-style painting, coming first under the sway of French impressionism, and later passing through many stages of European influence, has

produced vigorous and progressive artists who are thinking hard and exploring the furthest reaches of European pictorial thought. They have already reached the level of their Occidental benefactors, in technique. At a time when all the visual arts, if not all others as well, seem to be aspiring towards Occidental ideals of art, it must yet be noticed that our native art traditions are still retained, and characterize all works of purely Japanese fine art, with its classical rhythm and beauty.

Japanese-style Painting There are now in this country various exhibitions of Japanese-style paintings held by many institutes, wherein members are always seeking to achieve a more perfect expression of their ideals through traditional form and long-fostered technique. In the earliest stages of modern Japanese art, Kakuzo Okakura and other leaders, entertained this ideal, along with a number of artists and art societies, as well as such pioneers as Hogai Kano or Gyokusho Kawabata; and they joined efforts in the development of this school. Western realism, however, instead of the old traditional method, is gaining gradual influence among painters.

The "Teiten" or Imperial Fine Art Academy Exhibition, which includes various Sections of Fine Art, in 1931 celebrated the 25th anniversary of its establishment. As the only art exhibition under management of the Government, it has, since its foundation, been exerting a profound effect upon this sphere of art, along with the Institute of Japanese Art (Nihon Bijutsuin), which is a private institution established specially for Japanese-style paintings. This was organized in 1898 under the direction of Kakuzo Okakura and Gaho Hashimoto. These two institutes have continued to hold an exhibition every year. They have given birth to works of admirable achievement and merit, under such masters as Seiho Takeuchi, Taikan Yokoyama, Eikyu Matsuoka, and Hyakusui Hirafuku, all of whom are contributors to the native school.

On the other hand, there are other painters who also produce extremely creditable work, bringing out the profundity of the Oriental spirit and rising high above the conflict between Japanese traditionalism and Western realism. They are all grouped in organizations. Seison Maeda, Yukihiko Yasuda, Usen Ogawa, Sofu Nagano and Reimei Mamichi belong to the Nihon Bijutsuin; and Somei Yuki, Eikyu Matsuoka, Tsusen Ogiu, Ren Yamada, Shokin Katsuta, Nanyo Inui, Katsuji Koizumi, Ryuko Tsutaya, Gengetsu Yazawa and Saiten Tamura comprise the Japanese Painting Society (Nihon Gakai).

In the Kansai district, the Free Painting Society of Japan (Nihon-Jiyugadan) was organized by certain artists grouped in Kyoto, which has in itself special significance for lovers of genuine Japanese art. The members were Keisen Ikeda, Bunto Hayashi, Keigaku Nishi, Kokan Watanabé, Shunki Tayama, Manshu Ueda and other painters.

Western-style Painting It is not too much to say that the striking progress of Western-style painting is chiefly owing to the efforts of the Nikakai members, who, dissatisfied with the purely academic tendency of the Imperial Academy of Fine Arts, freed themselves from its restraint, and organized a society of their own. The Nikakai was organized in 1913 by an active group of rising painters of fresh and advanced ideas, the members being Ikuma Arishima, Yuzo Fujikawa, Hakutei Ishii, Moriichi Kumagai, Jutaro Kuroda, Tokusaburo Masamuné, Katsuyuki Nabei, Kigen Nakagawa, Hanjiro Sakamoto, Shintaro Yamashita, Sotaro Yasui, Haruyé Koga, Seifu Tsuda, Seiji Togo, and foreign painters, André L'Hôte and Zadikine. In 1922 was founded the Shunyokai by Misei Kosugi and other artists who had formerly been associated with the Western-style painting Section of the Institute of Japanese Art, but who had seceded from it, together with Ryuzaburo Umehara. The other members were Hakuyo Kurata, Noboru Hasegawa, Kanaé Yamamoto, Gen-ichiro Adachi, Shohachi Kimura, Tsuruzo Ishii and Ippei Okamoto. The Pacific Art Society, the oldest Western-art organization of the Meiji Era, was established in 1905, and with them instruction in Western-style painting was first begun. Toraji Ishikawa, Banka Maruyama, and Kunishiro Mitsutani were conspicuous collaborators.

The Kaijusha was formed in 1924, supported by such able painters as Juji Kanazawa, Itaru Tanabé, Soshichi Takama, Sakujiro Okubo, Yoshihiko Kumaoka, Yori Saito and other artists.

In 1930 the Independent Art Association was founded by certain extremists in the art-world, like Katsuzo Satomi, Zenzaburo Kojima, and nine other members of the Nikakai, who had been dissatisfied with the mannerism of that society and left it. The new body consisted of 13 congenial artists, who aimed at working for a new art movement, by opening up a fresh course for students of Western-style. The painters

of note in this group were Moriichi Kumagai, Kinzo Kuniyeda, Haruyé Koga, Tokusaburo Masamuné, Katsuyuki Nabei, Kigen Nakagawa, Hanjiro Sakamoto, Seifu Tsuda, Reiichi Yokoi, Giken Kinoshita, Kanemitsu Hamada, Shogo Taguchi, Genichiro Adachi, Noboru Hasegawa, Shohachi Kimura, Misei Kosugi, Hakuyo Kurata, Issei Nakagawa, Ippei Okamoto, Zennosuké Tanaka, shozo Yamazaki, Kanayé Yamamoto, Kotaro Takamura, Sadao Tsubaki and Tsusei Kono.

In addition to these societies, there are some minor organizations such as the Hakujitsu-Kai, the Japanese Painting Society (Nihongakai), the Creative Print Association of Japan, and the National Art Association, all of them no less remarkable than the Societies previously mentioned.

Sculpture For the promotion of plastic art, there are many organizations which contain, each of them, sculptors of distinction. Besides the "Teiten" and the "Nikakai" which have also Sculpture Sections, there is the "Kozosha", organized in 1926, for study in the various branches of plastic art. At the time of organization, it was supported by Sogan Saito, Jitsuzo Hinako, Saburo Hamada, Miézo Shimizu, Kanji Yo, Taménari Hirai, Minato Kozu, Takézo Sato and other artists.

Applied Art Our applied arts have developed in their own way, giving birth to many works of really admirable craftsmanship, some being of more artistic merit than those of Europe. At every exhibition, various branches of applied art are represented. Many artists, some using all their traditional technique, or others creating wholly new forms, are striving to satisfy the demands of present-day life. The Fine Art Association of Japan is a leading organization, having Hozuma Katori, Keigi Nakata, Choun Yamazaki, Shunzan Yagioka, Hiromi Minakami, as directors.

Architecture After the earthquake and fire of 1923, Tokyo and other cities witnessed the erection of many new buildings; and almost all these structures reveal a lively modernism under the influence of European styles, though some are more or less marked by national-classical characteristics. At present, Japan has acquired the modern mentality for steel and reinforced concrete; and many buildings in Japanese cities are as large and expensive as those in America. On the other hand a dozen or more able architects are thinking out greater possibilities in the adoption of newer European styles of architecture Already in the new Mitsui Bank and the Mitsubishi Bank, as well as in many other new buildings, Japan can show imposing examples of architecture unsurpassed for art and utility by any other country.

The 1935–36 Exhibitions

The 10th and 11th exhibitions of the National Painter's Society was opened on April 28, 1935 and April 3, 1936 in the Tokyo-fu Art Gallery. The number of works sent in for examination reached 1,726 for the 10th and 1,841 for the 11th exhibition. Details follow:

	1935		1936	
	Works Submitted	Works Accepted	Works Submitted	Works Accepted
Western painting	1,182	140	1,251	140
Sculpture	199	38	211	26
Block colour-print	169	26	197	38
Industrial art	176	80	182	80

The submitted works to the Shunyo-kai Art Exhibition which was opened on April 28, 1935, in the Tokyo-fu Art Gallery in Ueno Park numbered 2,455 of which 263 were accepted. New painters numbered 38. The number of paintings submitted to their exhibition which was opened on April 3, 1936, was 2,653 of which 124 (7 new) were accepted.

The 22nd Nika-kai exhibition was opened on September 3, 1935, in the Tokyo-fu Art Gallery at Ueno. The number of works submitted was 4,105 (3,927 Western paintings and 178 sculptures). The number of Western paintings accepted was 369 and that of sculptures 49. Among new admissions there was Harberd Wagner, while a foreign number of the society Mr. Aslan of France sent his works to the exhibition.

The 22nd Nihon Bijutsuin Exhibition (Inten) was opened on September 7, 1935, in the same building with the Nika-kai. As the result of amalgamation with the Teiten mentioned below, the exhibition was changed to a private one, works being submitted by the members and their pupils only.

A new organization of the Imperial Academy of Fine Arts was initiated by the Education Ministry in May, 1935, and the new Academy was organized on May 29, increasing the number of members from 30 to 50, so as to take in all representative artists who had been divided into three groups, i.e. the Imperial Academy of Fine Arts, the Nihon Bijutsuin and the Nika-kai, and certain improvements were effected in the way

of examining the works submitted.

The new Teiten (Imperial Academy of Fine Arts) Exhibition was opened on February 25, 1936, and closed on March 25, the résumé was as follows :

	Works Submitted	Works Accepted
Japanese painting	1,731	191 (70 new)
Western painting	(Omitted for this time only)	
Sculpture	194	17 (13 new)
Industrial art	797	214 (66 „)

The 1936–37 Exhibitions

Tokyo art lovers were fortunate to have exhibitions of art productions by foreign geniuses such as the French painter Emil Belneral or the German sculptor Georg Kopel in the spring of 1936, besides over 70 exhibitions of Japanese productions which gained press comments during the 12 months, from April, 1936 to March, 1937.

The 23rd Nihon Bijutsuin Exhibition (Inten) was held in the Tokyo-fu Art Gallery in Ueno Park, for a month beginning with September 2, 1936, to which 520 Japanese paintings were submitted for examination and 53 were accepted including 12 works by new painters, while the number of sculptures submitted was 185 of which 50 were accepted including 10 new names.

The 8th Seiryusha Exhibition was held in the same building with the Inten for four weeks from September 1 to 28, and out of the 124 Japanese paintings submitted to this Exhibition, 49 were accepted.

The 23rd Nika-kai exhibition was held in the same building with the other two in September, to which 4,224 Western style paintings were submitted, of which 358 were accepted including 92 works by new young painters, while the number of sculptures submitted was 235 of which 59 were accepted, including 16 new names.

The Imperial Academy of Fine Arts adopted a new policy in 1936 and put an end to the former Teiten exhibition and decided to hold two kinds of exhibitions in the name of the Education Ministry, one for the works accepted after examination and the other for works accepted without examination and those of the members of the Academy. The First Exhibition of the Education Ministry (Bunten) was held in the Tokyo-fu Art Gallery from October 16 to November 3, the exhibits were as follows :

	Works Submitted	works Accepted	Works by New Artists
Japanese paintings	1,561	367	106
Sculptures	415	124	35
Industrial art	769	194	46
Western paintings	3,006	374	174

The first exhibition of the other kind which was called Shodai (invitation) Exhibition was held for about a month beginning with November 6, in which 97 Japanese paintings, 119 Western paintings and 88 sculptures by representative artists of Japan were exhibited.

Art Museums

A list of the more important art museums follows :

1. Tokyo Imperial Household Museum: Ueno Park, Tokyo; open daily from 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.
   Departments: Art and History.
   Officials. President: Eisaburo Sugi; Manager: Masaaki Yajima.
2. Imperial Household Museum at Nara: In Nara Park; open daily from 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.: closed from Dec. 25 to Jan. 5.
   Departments: History and Art. Director: Gunichi Wada.
3. Kyoto Onshi Museum: In Shichijo, Kyoto; open daily from 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.; closed from Dec. 25 to Jan. 5. Departments: Art and History.
   Officials. Director: Fujio Wada; Advisers: Torajiro Naito and Yasunosuké Seki.
4. Chokokan: In Uji Yamada, Mié. Director: Kotaro Sakamoto.
5. Reihokan: At Koya-san, Wakayama. Director: Chito Izumi.
6. Treasure house, Kanshin-ji: In Kanshin-ji-mura, Minami-Kawachi-gun, Osaka.
7. Treasure house, Koryuji: At Uzumasa-mura, Kadono-gun, Kyoto.
8. Reihokan, Ninnaji: At Omoro, Kadono-gun, Kyoto.
9. Museum of the Faculty of Letters, Imperial University, in Kyoto.
10. Kankokan: in Hiroshima.
11. Treasure house of the Itsukushima shrine: At Miyajima, Hiroshima.
12. Kokuhokan: at Kamakura.
13. Sanda Museum: at Sanda, Arima-gun, Hyogo.

14. Governmental Museum: at Seoul, Chosen. Manager: Ryosaku Fujita.
15. Keishu Museum: in Keishu-gun, Keisho-hokudo, Chosen. Manager: Hideo Moroshika.
16. Prince Li's Museum: in Seoul, Chosen.
17. Kanto-cho Museum: at Port Arthur, Kwantung Province. Director: Naomiki Hirose.

Music

The First Period

Primitive Music The development of Japanese music may be divided into four periods. The first period originates in prehistoric times and ends about the reign of the Empress Suiko (592–629 A.D.). This is the music of the ancient Japanese (Yamato), and is here named, for convenience, primitive music. To regard the music of this stage as primitive may seem inappropriate, because towards the close of the 6th century Yamato civilization had advanced quite beyond primitive culture. The word primitive is applied here because, although music should show some development of artistic form, no such form was known in the music of this period.

The Second Period

Introduction of Foreign Music The second period started about the end of the Suiko régime in the 7th century, and continued till about the end of the Heian period, at the close of the 12th century. The characteristic feature of this period lies in the building up of Japanese music upon a foundation of Chinese, Korean and Indian music, which possessed a markedly advanced form and was then being freely introduced into Japan.

(1) The First Half. In the first half of this period imported music was imitated. Music was first introduced from Korea (Chosen), then from India and lastly from China. Of the three, only that from China continued to come freely thereafter. The Chosen music then imported was widely different from the music introduced from China and India, especially in the degree of its evolution. But even such undeveloped music as that of Chosen (then called Sankan), was far more advanced than Japanese music. It is, therefore, but natural that there was a great gulf of difference between the standard of the Japanese music of the early period and that later imported from China and India. Moreover the early models were monopolized by the nobles; the masses could not share the privilege of enjoying the advanced art but had to be content with the same old primitive music. For two to three hundred years this state of things continued, until the reigns of Emperors Saga and Nimmyo when genuine Japanese Court music, called gagaku, came into vogue. But even this gagaku was of foreign origin too.

(2) The Second Half. During the second half of the second period, foreign and domestic music became harmonized, producing a new Japanese style in vocal music. Founded on the imported music staff, the vocal music of this period cannot be compared with the purely national music that prevailed in a later period. The varieties then developed were kagura, saibara, roei and imayo, all of which can be included in the following two groups:

(a) One group was modelled after foreign music but set to the key of Japanese music of the primitive age; and hence the reconstruction thus effected in ancient Japanese music was only in form. The most conspicuous examples are the kagura, Azuma-asobi, Kumé-uta and Yamato-uta. No doubt the kagura existed in the prehistoric age, as may be inferred from Japanese history, but not until past the middle of the Heian period did it appear in the regular form of music. The kagura is a sacred dance with music, practised on the stage of a shrine at village festivals. The kagura now observed, however, is fundamentally different from that staged in those days; it saw marked development in the Heian period. In the early days of the sacred Kagura dance it adopted so primitive a form of vulgar indecency that it could not be performed today.

During this latter part of the second period all the other three branches of music, namely, Azuma-asobi, Kumé-uta and Yamato-uta, were also practised at shrine festivals. Originally they had no relation with shrines, the first two having developed from folk-songs, and the third from a war-song sung during the triumphant expedition into Yamato under the Emperor Jimmu. The adoption of those folk-songs in the rites of sacred festivals was made possible by the advanced music of foreign origin employed at

Buddhist temples; better music also became indispensable at Shinto shrines in order to rival the advanced Buddhist music. Unlike Buddhist temples, the Shinto shrines hesitated to make use of the imported variety; and so they had no alternative in those days but to improve their music on the ancient models of the country. The principal instruments employed for this purpose were the six-stringed Japanese koto and the six-holed kagura flute, remodelled.

(b) Those modes that come under the category of the other group are the saibara, roei and imayo, which were combinations of imported and Japanese music then in vogue. As regards saibara, it is believed that it was a sort of folk-song that prevailed in the Nara period, but the sihara, a folk melody of the Nara period, can not be compared with the saibara which was an artistic vocal song of the Heian period; in form they are widely apart. The saibara in the Heian period was in fact an artistic product. These branches of music served for the amusement and diversion of nobles, and had nothing to do with religious services. They were exclusively of foreign origin in form.

The Third Period

Seclusion of Domestic Music The third period begins with the Kamakura Era and terminates towards the close of the Tokugawa Shogunate, or from the beginning of the 13th century to the middle of the 19th century. A characteristic of the period was its seclusive tendency in music. By the term seclusive music, however, is not meant national seclusion, but that music, like other arts, throughout the period, was driven into seclusion in consequence of incessant civil war in Chosen and China, which prevented its development in Japan. Save for the material brought back by priests from China no foreign culture entered Japan during that age; and it is for this reason that the term seclusive represents the third period. Characteristic features of the third period are seen in the relations of music with literature.

(1) Music and Literature. As a natural result of the interruption of intercourse with continental civilization, the influence of the Japanese language made itself felt on music, so much so that in form music seemed to belong to language, both evolving together; in fact, story and song became the essential requirements of music.

(2) The Range of Influence. Next, the range of influence of each school was narrowed, until such forms as kiyomoto, joruri, shinnai and itchubushi became representative during the third period, but each of them was cultivated in a limited locality and time. In this connection joruri was most conspicuous, because, based entirely on the national literature, it appealed only to the people who understand the language used. Kiyomoto music thrived in Yedo, joruri prospered in Osaka, and itchubushi flourished in Kyoto. Thus none of the music that was born and popularized in the third period was of national, far less of international, character, having been limited to a certain locality. This, however, is by no means a proof of retrogressive tendency in music; for the harmony thus realized between Japanese literature and music was of no meagre advantage. It was natural too, for, in the evolution of art, song is older than speech, poetry than prose.

(3) Music and the Military. Then there was the relation of music to military administration. The government was in the hands of feudal lords. In the preceding period music was regarded as a means of culture, and treated as such by the leisured class, because, among the nobles, proficiency in this art constituted an essential element in anyone aspiring to be a man of character. Under the feudal lords, however, asceticism rose to influence among the samurai class, and music was looked down on as no more than a mere luxury which military men should despise as effeminate. This trend of the times gradually transferred music from the control of the nobles down to the lower orders of the community. This is why samisen music did not develop among the upper class but the lower stratum of society, where it thrived. The exclusion of samisen music by the intelligentsia was a glaring defect of the military administration. Naturally all branches of music in those days had to develop on the basis of popular knowledge and common sense.

Although civil strife is a great deterrent to the art of music, this was not so true in Japan as in China, for in Japan the Imperial household, whose existence and dignity suffered practically no change on account of the new military government, music was encouraged in Court circles. Then again it was protected and cultivated by priests; new music was fostered especially by Kamakura priests. The Heiké Biwa originated and developed under priestly auspices; and the shakuhachi (a kind of bamboo flute) music was introduced from China and popularized in the Buddhist domain, and

through its efforts. The shakuhachi music now in vogue had its origin in this period.

The Muromachi Era The Muromachi Era, sandwiched in between the Kamakura and Tokugawa eras, corresponds to a middle third period in the history of music. Between the Kamakura and Muromachi Shogunates a striking difference is noticeable in that, while a military administration was possible under the former, it was denied to the latter. Beginning with the Muromachi Era the Ashikagas removed the Shogunate from Kamakura to Kyoto. Since Kyoto was the seat of the Imperial household, the officials who were military men could not do without etiquette in their association with Court officials of the Imperial household. They had to be familiar with the art of flower arrangement, the tea ceremony and the yokyoku music of the lyrical drama, or Noh dance. Thus from the necessity of studying these arts of social etiquette, military men had to approve and promote them. The introducers of the sarugaku dance were priests who returned from China, and used this sort of drama for moral or religious purposes, like the miracle and morality plays in England. The Noh dance was probably derived from primitive forms of sarugaku and other musical dances.

Early Yedo Era The last period begins and ends in the early Yedo Era. All through this period popular music prevailed; the samisen, a popular musical instrument introduced into the country at the end of the Ashikaga Era, rose to great influence. Naturally, therefore, such popular music as the joruri, nagauta, kouta and hauta developed rapidly; they were especially popular among merchants and artisans.

The samisen was not only a representative musical instrument throughout the Yedo Era but also occupies a most important position in Japanese music today. This three-stringed Japanese guitar has now come to enjoy worldwide recognition as an advanced musical instrument. Nearly 400 years ago, toward the end of the Muromachi period, it arrived in the country through the Ryukyu islands and is supposed to be of Spanish or Chinese origin. Compared with the sho and biwa, imported in the 5th or 6th century, the samisen is a thing of but yesterday. Yet it is found everywhere in Japan as an accompaniment to vocal music.

The Fourth Period

Internationalization of Japanese Music The fourth period covers the Meiji and Taisho eras (1868–1926) when domestic music rose to join the world current of music. The people awoke from their long slumber throughout the isolated Yedo Era, and exchanged anti-foreignism for free intercourse with the outside world. With this epochal open-door movement came the Meiji Restoration which eliminated the Shogunate and restored the old Imperial régime. In obedience to the august wish of the Emperor Meiji all welcomed the introduction of the supposedly more advanced European civilization. Music was no exception. European music then imported was enthusiastically imitated all through the period. Production of imitative art was not the only task assigned to that age, for side by side with the movement the reconstruction of native music occupied the serious attention of musicians. A similar tendency is noticeable in and about the Nara period in the 8th century, when advanced ideas, imported from the continent, afforded models on which the ancient music of the country was reconstructed. Yet, a great difference is evident between that and the movement now under review; because, whereas in that day home music still lingered in the primitive stage and imitation of alien models was effected only with extreme difficulty, improvement in the native music of the Meiji Era was so easy a matter that reconstruction could be carried out by mere importation of new staves. This fourth period, which corresponds to the Meiji and Taisho eras, can be studied from three points of view, with reference to the development of the art.

(1) Innovations in Traditional Music and Revival of Ancient Music. In the Yedo period the development of music in form was insignificant, because importance was placed on expression of sentiment. People who realized this defect in the traditional Japanese music, agreed on the necessity of introducing radical innovations in this direction. This new movement was responsible for the stimulus given by the extensive introduction of European music, which in form was far superior to Japanese. Up to about the 16th year of Meiji considerable effort was expended towards eliminating this defect. As a practical attempt to attain this object, a movement was created for reconstruction work on the form of sho music which had deplorably degenerated in the Yedo Era, due to the influence of samisen music then at the height of popularity. The rise of the Yamada

school in Tokyo is an example. Shakuhachi music likewise could not escape being influenced by the reconstruction current of the times.

For revival of ancient Japanese music the Gagaku Bureau was created in the Imperial Household Office in the 3rd year of Meiji. A large number of authorities on gagaku became officials of the bureau and strove to effect reorganization of the ancient music of Japanese parentage. These Court musicians set about composing new music out of gagaku, for use in elementary schools. The national anthem, Kimigayo, is a product of that bureau. Precisely speaking, Kimigayo ought to be played in gagaku, but, instead, it has come to be rendered with European instruments; for in those days they were the only musical instruments in educational institutions. Kibigaku, which is still popular in the Kansai district, is a form of gagaku somewhat vulgarized, at the time, by Hoshu Kishimoto, an Okayama musician.

(2) Diffusion of European Music. One of the outstanding features of musical development in the Meiji and Taisho eras is that Japanese musical education was placed on the foundation of European music. The introduction of European music into Japan can be traced as far back as the entrance into Japan of Christianity. This, however, had been monopolized by the introducers themselves in their respective localities of influence, until in the 2nd year of Meiji it entered the capital for the first time. In this year Japanese soldiers learned military band music from an English naval band master at Yokohama, which is perhaps the first instance of our official use of European music. Soon afterwards, in the 5th year of Meiji, both army and navy bands were inaugurated. Later, in the 12th year of Meiji, an investigation commission on school musical education was established in the Education Office. A commission, headed by Mr. Shuji Izawa, conducted inquiries as to the best method of teaching European music in Japanese schools. In the following year, the Education Department invited an expert from America, and, under his superintendence, made music a part of elementary school education. Three years after, the Tokyo Academy of Music was established. This is but a brief outline of the growth of European music in Japan during the Meiji Era. It was mainly due to Government encouragement that European music was popularized in Japan much earlier than generally expected. But, for sounder and more thorough instruction in European music we must look to the era of Taisho. Rapid progress of music in the Taisho Era was made possible principally in the following ways:

(a) Propagation by Gramophone. This invention enabled inhabitants of even the remotest corners of the island Empire to appreciate the great foreign music masters.

(b) European War and Visiting Musicians. At the outbreak of the European War many well-known musicians of the West went to America and Oriental countries in order to avoid being involved in the turmoil, and to find appreciation of their music in more peaceful environment. These world-famous musicians gave a number of concerts in Japan, and thus afforded us an opportunity to hear the best music the world can produce. So fortunate an event contributed much toward cultivating a taste for music in this country. Not long afterwards came radio, also from the West; and, like the gramophone, radio also greatly helped the public towards a more intelligent appreciation of European music. Radio, however, should be regarded as more properly belonging to the present era of Showa.

(3) Internationalization of Japanese Music. The diffusion of the knowledge of European music demonstrated to us its international qualities, systematized form and aesthetic structure. The vast difference between this international music of the West and Japanese music which is but national, served to spur on the reconstruction movement among the Japanese interested in music. The movement originally started in the middle of the Meiji Era, but at that time it had no fixed goal at which to aim. Now, however, renewed ambition moved in three definite directions:

(a) The attempt to harmonize European instruments with the rhythm of Japanese music was laudable, but this seems to have been confined only too largely to Japanese students of European music.

(b) The movement to produce European rhythm with Japanese musical instruments, such as the samisen, sho and shakuhachi, was the task of those musicians who specialized in domestic music and who were yet familiar with modern ideas.

(c) A scheme to create a grand symphony orchestra of mixed foreign and domestic instruments was studied and tried by a few accomplished musicians, but the success or failure of the attempt is a question of the future.

Latest Developments

European Music (1) Schools. The Tokyo Academy of Music, established in the early Meiji Era, is the only government institution of the kind. Most of the teachers are now Japanese. Leo Sirota is an instructor of piano, and Maria Toll is in charge of vocal music. The school has an orchestra and mixed chorus, organized by students, graduates and teachers, and conducted by Mr. C. Pringsheim. They give public concerts several times a year. Generally speaking, the Tokyo Academy of Music attaches much importance to German classical music, and the orchestra plays, among other masterpieces, symphonies and overtures by Beethoven, Bach and Mozart, although modern French works, such as the Nocturne by Debussy, have occasionally been attempted. The latest performances were the Fifth Symphony by G. Mahler, 1932, and the Ninth Symphony by Beethoven in the spring of 1933. In addition to this government academy, there are several private music schools.

(2) Orchestras. Outside the schools there were also several orchestral groups, but all, except the New Symphony Orchestra conducted by Viscount Hidemaro Konoé, have dissolved. The surviving symphony orchestra separated from Konoé and is under the auspices of JOAK. A mandolin orchestra, known as the Sinfonia Mandolini Orchestra, was created in the early Taisho Era, the conductor of which is Mr. Morishigé Takei of the Bureau of Court Music of the Imperial Household Department; it gives concerts twice a year, in spring and autumn. Among foreign musicians of note who visited Japan are Mischa Elman, Efrem Zimbalist, Fritz Kreisler, Jascha Heifetz, Jacques Thibaud, John McCormack, Ernestine Schumann-Heink, Amelita Galli-Curci, Toti Dal Monte, Mischa Levitzki, Benno Moiseivitch and Leopold Godowsky.

(3) Choruses. Besides those attached to schools there are several amateur chorus companies under the leadership of professional musicians. As there are no good chorus pieces in the Japanese language, no appreciable success has yet been attained. In most ordinary educational institutions, such as universities and colleges, there are music clubs, each with its male chorus.

(4) Opera. In the early Taisho Era there was created in the Imperial Theatre an opera company under the leadership of Professor Rossi. Miss Tamaki Miura, who was regarded a prima donna at this nascent stage of Japanese opera, became a member of the company and finally won world-wide notice as an opera singer. The company later dissolved and the members organized an operetta troupe, which, after a brief period of obscure existence, met the same fate. In more recent years, stimulated by the visit of Russian and Italian opera companies a movement to revive opera was started, but no tangible success has been attained. Opera scenes have been sometimes broadcast by the radio broadcasting stations, but no native opera company has yet reappeared. Inasmuch, however, as the Tokyo Academy of Music is directing some of its talent towards this line of music, genuine Japanese opera may be expected to materialize in the near future.

(5) Religious Music. The music of the churches does not show the development that one might expect. This is, perhaps, because the members are not favoured with much musical endowment. However, recently there came into existence, outside the Church, groups which investigate religious music. At the Tokyo Academy of Music choral and cantata pieces have often been rendered by chorus and orchestra, giving Mozart's "Requiem" and the "Missa Solemnis" by Beethoven.

(6) Exhibitions. It is but recently that musical competitions have come to be held. The first trial of the kind was attempted by mandolin orchestras at the close of the Taisho Era, while chorus exhibitions were not given until the Showa Era. In 1932, under the auspices of the Jiji Shimpo, a contest of piano, violin and vocal music was arranged to be held annually, the judges to award the prizes being leading musicians of the capital. Furthermore, it was so arranged that the three most talented among those taking prizes were to be sent to Europe. A young pianist, Miss Miwako Kai, won the highest honour at the first exhibition.

(7) Composers. In the realm of musical composition Japan still lingers in the stage of research.

Messrs. K. Yamada and Kosuké Komatsu—all leading Japanese composers—have almost entirely ceased to wield influence, but seeing that there are a number of young musicians who are devoted to the study of the wake left by German music, or the harmonies of French music, it is hoped that the basis of a new Japanese music will be laid. As regards the general public, they have grown somewhat tired of German classical music and turned their attention to the lighter airs of southern Europe, of even the jazz now in vogue

in the United States. In urban centres social dances prevail to such an extent that folk-songs are set mostly to dance music. In the field of genuine Japanese music, songs akin to kouta are now in vogue. Not only folk-songs but war songs have revived, since the Manchurian incident. The old war ditties sung at the time of the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese Wars have come again into vogue, together with a new and thrilling ballad with the "Three Heroic Warriors" who made bombs of themselves at Shanghai, as its theme.

(8) Vocal Soloists. The most noted vocal soloists are Tamaki Miura, Yoshié Fujiwara, Toshiko Sekiya and Yoshiko Miyagawa. But among instrumental musicians there is no name specially worthy of notice; Mrs. Koko Ando, formerly professor at the Tokyo Academy of Music, has won distinction as a violinist under the tuition of Joseph Joachim, but she has seen her best days, and is now settled down as a successful teacher. At the Bureau of Court Music in the Imperial Household Office each musician performs on his own favourite European instrument; and there is an orchestra which at one time was quite influential. In the orchestra there are some good violinists and cellists but few who have been on the stage as soloists. There is, however, a string quartet, organized by some of the members of the orchestra, called the Haydn Quartet. Long established, it is now regarded as the only superior quartet in Japan, though occasional changes occur in its membership. As a violinist, Miss Nejiko Suwa is regarded as having the brightest future. She is now in Europe to develop her talent.

(9) The Piano. The piano is the most popular musical instrument in Japanese homes at present. Even among amateur girl pianists there are many who display fair attainment. Formerly Japanese girls used to start their musical education with the koto (Japanese harp), which, having proved too primitive and monotonous, has gradually fallen into decline, being replaced by the piano. In this way the younger daughters of the upper middle class in towns have begun to receive training on the piano. Western music in Japan is still in transition. The Japanese have become good listeners, but have not yet become good players. But there is really no good reason why in the future Japan will not turn out world-famous musicians. Encouraging signs are already evident among young musicians, especially women. For instance, Miss Chieko Hara won the first prize in the 1932 concours in Paris when she was 17 years of age.

1933–1936 Music Friedmann of Poland visited Japan in September, 1933, and his piano recital lasted for five evenings, October 2–6, in the Hibiya Auditorium.

The Tokyo Academy of Music held a special concert in the presence of the Empress on March 17, 1934 in celebration of the birth of the Crown Prince. The programme consisted of the No "Takasago", by Umekawa, Kanzé and Hosho; the nagauta "Tsuru-kamé", by Yoshizumi; the koto music, by Michiko Miyagi; Mozart's Coronation symphony, conducted by Pringsheim; Wagner's Imperial March and Bach's Prelude in E Major, by Sueko Ogura.

Leo Sirota gave a piano recital in the Nippon Young Men's Hall at Aoyama on April 23. His programme included Busoni's piece, Chopin's Ballade, Dvorák's Humoresque, Smetana's Polka and Stravinsky's third movement of Petrouchka.

Leonid Kreutzer and Nicolai Tcherepnin visited Japan in 1934 and the former gave concerts on the works of Schumann and Chopin while the latter introduced his own compositions.

Foreign musicians and dancers visited Japan during 1935 and early in 1936, and made valuable contributions to the country's music. Among them were Mr. Chaliapin who caused a sensation among Japanese lovers of music by his brilliant recitations at the Hibiya Public Hall in January and May, 1936. Other important visitors were as follows: Efrem Zimbalist, Leonid Kreutzer, Siamese dancers, Amelita Galli-Curci, Lili Kraus, Simon Goldberg, Jacque Thibaud, Mischa Elman, etc.

1936–37 Music Paul Winegarten of Vienna who is to give instructions on piano at the Tokyo Academy of Music for two years, arrived in Tokyo in April, 1936, and Joseph Rosenstock who was called by the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan as the conductor of the JOAK orchestra reached the capital in August, 1936. Other musicians who visited Japan between April, 1936, and March, 1937, were the German pianist, Wilhelm Kemp, and cellist, Emmanuel Feuermann in April, 1936; the French violinist Jacque Thibaud, and Russian vocalist Chaliapin, in October; violinist Mischa Elman in January, and French cellist Maurice Marchal in February, 1937.

On May 4, 1936, Tamaki Miura and others held a concert at Hibiya Hall in memory and honour of the late Adolfo Sarcoli, their tutor. On May 28 the

first public concert was given by the Pro Arte Band conducted by Professor Moguilewsky. The concert held at Hibiya on June 20 by the Tokyo Academy of Music, which rendered Hector Berlioz's " Damnation of Faust," was a great success. On June 27 " Madam Butterfly " was performed at the Kabuki-za by Tamaki Miura and other vocalists. An exhibition concert in honour of the new conductor Rosenstock of JOAK was held at Hibiya Hall on the 21st September 1936.

The 5th concours of Japan was held at Hibiya on October 14 and 15, and the first prize winners were as follows : Violin, Hiroshi Hatoyama ; Vocal music, Miss Tsuma Yokota ; Piano, Miss Toshi Koseki ; and Composition, Yasuyoshi Hirai.

Native Music (1) The Koto. The koto has long been popular in Japan as a domestic musical instrument. It still retains friends among all classes, although it has lost some of its former popularity. Improvements have been attempted by specialists in recent years. An authority on koto music, Michio Miyagi, organized an orchestra with koto, shakuhachi and samisen. Like most koto musicians, he showed more talent than insight on traditional Japanese instrumental piece he composed in European style, but has already attained a fair success. The " Spring Sea ", a duet for koto and violin was composed by him and rendered by Madame Renée Chemet, a violinist who visited Japan in 1932.

(2) Nagauta. This is samisen music, developed in the Yedo period, and still serves widely as an accompaniment to dances at theatres, and social entertainment in homes. But it has never been able to rise superior to its early development in the gay quarters. Through the efforts of a singer, Kosaburo Yoshidzumi, and a samisen player, Rokushiro Kineya, the nagauta texts are now being revised to suit family taste, new compositions for children being produced and new rhythms introduced. Another pioneer in this field is Sakichi Kineya, himself a noted samisen player. He once attempted the composition of a concerto for the samisen as a solo instrument with a view to cultivating a new sphere for the samisen. The success or failure of the new attempt remains to be seen. Other noted musicians of nagauta are Ijuro Yoshimura, Wafu Matsunaga ; and samisenists, Kangyoku Kineya, Eizo Kineya, Isaburo Kashiwa.

(3) Joruri. The joruri music is made up of tokiwazu and kiyomoto, besides gidayu. Kiyomoto is mostly a lyric melody for a tenor voice ; while tokiwazu demands a high baritone and is therefore rich in dramatic element. The joruri music is now employed merely as an accompaniment to stage dance and ballets ; it scarcely goes beyond preserving the old tradition. It is interesting to note in this respect that Enjudayu, a descendant of the Kiyomoto family, by which the school was founded, is a splendid lyric tenor whose art overshadows even Japanese vocalists of the Western style. The gidayu music is indispensable to the kabuki (Japanese classical play) and ningyo shibai (puppet-theatre) in their stage performances, but this music contains not only ordinary airs but has also plenty of musical recitation.

Noted joruri musicians are : kiyomoto —Enju-dayu, Kiku-tayu, Umekichi (samisenist); tokiwazu—Matsuo-dayu, Mojibeë (samisenist) ; gidayu—Shikoro-dayu Takemoto, Tsu-dayu Takemoto, Tosatayu Takemoto, Kotsubo-dayu Toyotaké and Iwao-dayu Toyotaké.

CHAPTER XXXVI

SPORTS

Japan in the World Olympics

Stockholm and Antwerp Japan participated in the World Olympic Games for the first time in 1912, at Stockholm, when only two athletes represented the country. They were Shizo Kanaguri, marathon runner, and Yahiko Mishima, short-distance runner, both of whom were miserably defeated. In the following Olympiad, which was held in Antwerp in 1920, 15 Japanese took part. Of these, 11 were track and field men, and the others were two swimmers and two tennis players. Neither the track and field men nor the swimmers placed. The tennis entrants won second place.

The Paris Olympiad Japan made its real debut in the Eighth Olympic Games in Paris in 1924, with 14 men participating. A third place in wrestling was the only official score, but Mikio Oda won sixth place in the hop, step and jump; the swimming team placed fourth in the 800-metre relay; Katsuo Takaishi came in fourth in both the 100-metre and 1,500-metre free style, and Kenkichi Saito took sixth place in the backstroke event.

At Amsterdam The year 1928 found 63 Japanese competing in the Ninth Olympic Games at Amsterdam. The late Miss Kinué Hitomi was the only girl in the Japanese delegation and the first Japanese woman to take part in the Olympics, made impressive performances. She won a 100-metre heat in 12.8 seconds and took second place in the 800-metre finals by negotiating the distance in 2 minutes 17.7 seconds. Mikio Oda not only scored for the first time but won Japan's first Olympic championship by taking the hop, step and jump event. In the swimming competition, an equally bright success was attained by Yoshiyuki Tsuruta, who took first place and the championship in the 200-metre breast-stroke. Kazuo Kimura placed sixth in the running high jump; Yonétaro Nakazawa placed sixth in the pole vault; Kanésaku Yamada placed fourth and Séiichiro Tsuda placed sixth, respectively, in the marathon; Katsuo Takaishi won third place in the 100-metre free style swim; Toshio Iriyé came in fourth in the 100-metre backstroke; the 800-metre relay team placed second. The swimmers won second place in competition with the United States, the championship winner. Japanese took part in the boxing, regatta and equestrian contests for the first time but lost.

At Los Angeles The results achieved at Los Angeles by 131 athletes were satisfactory. The delegation took seven championships, seven second places and four third places.

(1) Aquatic Meet Japan dominated the 1932 aquatic meet as no other nation had done in the past. Of 150 official points scored in the six races, 86 went to Japan and only 46 to all other nations together. The result is Japan 86 and America 33, with the rest outdistanced. Only one race was by a non-Japanese champion, the 400-metre free style, in which Clarence Crabbe, of the United States, and Jean Taris, of France, upset expectations and finished ahead of the Japanese trio in new record time. The only team race, the 800-metre relay, went to Japan by a wide margin in almost incredible time, 8 min. 58.4 sec.

The Japanese swimmers produced both world and Olympic records in the Los Angeles meet. The Japanese 800-metre relay team produced a new world record with a time of 8 min. 58.4 sec. Shozo Makino set a new world mark when he swam the first 1,000 metres in the 1,500-metre free style, broke the Olympic record, 58.6 sec., set by the great American swimmer, Johnnie Weismuller, by negotiating the distance in 58 sec. flat. Others who broke Olympic records were Reizo Koiké, who won the 200-metre brest stroke in 2 min. 44.9 sec., and Katsuo Kitamura, 15-year-old boy, who won the 1,500-metre free style in 19 min. 13.4 sec.

(2) Track and Field Events In the track and field events, the Japanese did not show up so brilliantly as did their team mates in the aquatic events. Thanks to Chuhéi Nambu, however, Japan was able to defend the hop, step and jump championship which Mikio Oda had won at Amsterdam in 1924. With a mark of 15.72 metres, Nambu not only won the championship but established a new world record. Another outstanding performance was turned by Baron Takéichi Nishi, of the Japanese Army,

who won the difficult equestrian contest, the Prix des Nations. By winning this steeplechase, Baron Nishi put Japan's horsemanship on a high plane in the eyes of the world.

The principal performances of the Japanese athletes of both sexes and their records are given below :

TRACK AND FIELD

100-metre run—Ryutoku Yoshioka won sixth place in the finals. Time, 10.8s.

400-metre relay—Japan's team placed fifth.

1,600-metre relay—Japan's team placed fifth.

Marathon—Seiichiro Tsuda placed fifth and Onbai Kin sixth. Time, 2h.35m.42s. and 2h. 37m.28s. respectively.

Running high jump—Kazuo Kimura placed sixth with 1.90 metres and Misao Ono seventh.

Running broad jump—Chuhei Nambu placed third with 7.45 metres, and Naoto Tajima sixth with 7.15 metres.

Pole vault—Shuhei Nishida barely missed the championship by losing to Bill Miller of the United States, placing second with 2.28 metres.

Hop, step and jump—Chuhei Nambu won and defended successfully the title which Mikio Oda had captured at the Amsterdam meet. Nambu's record, 15.72 metres, set a new world mark.

SWIMMING

100-metre free style—Yasuji Miyazaki won. Time, 58.2 seconds, breaking the Olympic record set by Johnnie Weismuller but Miyazaki had turned in a better record, 58 seconds, in the semi-finals.

400-metre free style—Tsutomu Oyokota placed third with 4 minutes 52.3 seconds.

1,500-metre free style—Kusuo Kitamura won. Time, 19 minutes 12.4 seconds, which broke the Olympic record set by Arne Borg.

100-metre back stroke—Masaji Kiyokawa won. Time, 1 minute 8.6 seconds.

200-metre breast stroke—Yoshiyuki Tsuruta won. Time, 2 minutes 45.4 seconds, which broke the Olympic record.

800-metre relay—Japan's team won. Time 8 minutes 58.4 seconds, which set a new world record.

WOMEN'S TRACK AND FIELD

400-metre relay—Japan's team placed fifth. Time. 50.2 seconds, which broke Japan's record.

Javelin—Miss Masako Jimbo placed fourth with 39.06 metres.

WOMEN'S SWIMMING

100-metre back stroke—Miss Misao Yokota placed fifth in the semi-finals.

200-metre breast stroke—Miss Hireko Maehata placed second, only four-fifths of a second behind the winner. Time, 3 minutes 6.4 seconds, which broke the existing Olympic and world records.

400-metre relay—Japan's team (Kojima, Yokota, Morioka and Arata) placed fifth. Time, 5 minutes 6.7 seconds.

HOCKEY

Japan's team placed second.

EQUESTRIAN COMPETITION

Lieutenant Baron Takeichi Nishi won the Prix des Nations.

Japan participated in the Fourth Olympic Winter Games held at Garmisch-Partenkirchen, Germany, for 11 days, beginning February 6, 1936. The Japanese delegation was composed of a skiing team of 11 men, speed skating team of 8, figure skating team of 5 including Miss Etsuko Inada, and ice-hockey team of 14. It was the biggest winter sports delegation sent by Japan so far. Japan, however, finished 14th place, tied with Italy and Belgium, scoring only 3 points. Shozo Ishihara of Waseda University was the only point getter for Japan, winning fourth place in the 500-metre speed skating race.

Details of the Japanese performances at the Games were :

Skiing

18-kilometre run : Kan Tadano finished 33rd with a time of 1:25.26 hour ; Shinzo Yamada, 50th ; Tsutomu Sekido, 56th ; among 75 entrants.

50-kilometre run : Kan Tadano finished 28th in 4:10.23 hours ; Tadao Okayama, 34th ; among 36 entrants.

40-kilometre relay : Japanese team (G. Yamada, Sekido, S. Yamada and Tadano) finished 12th in 3:10.59 hours among 16 entrants.

Jumping : Shoji Iguro finished 7th with 218.2 points (74.5 metres and 72.5 metres) among 28 entrants.

Combined event : Isamu Sekiguchi finished 28th with 305.9 ponits among 45 entrants.

Slalom : Isamu Sekiguchi finished 39th in 6:48.6 minutes ; Tsutomu Sekido, 44th ; Kan Tadano, 47th ; among 56 entrants.

Skating

500-metre race : Shozo Ishihara finished 4th in 44,1 seconds ; Reikichi Na-

kamura, 11th : Seitoku Ri, 16th ; among 36 entrants.

1,500-metre race : Seien Kin finished 15th in 2:25.0 minutes ; Ishihara, 19th ; Ri, 23rd ; Nakamura, 28th ; among 37 entrants.

5,000-metre race : Seien Kin finished 21st in 8:55.9 minutes ; Ri and Yushoku Cho, 27th ; among 32 entrants.

10,000-metre race : Seien Kin finished 13th in 18:02.7 minutes ; Ri, 25th ; Cho, 26th ; among 33 entrants.

Men's figure skating : Toshiichi Katayama finished 15th with 347.4 points ; Kazukichi Oimatsu, 20th ; Zenjiro Watanabe, 21st ; Tsugio Hasegawa, 23rd ; among 25 entrants.

Women's figure skating : Miss Etsuko Inada finished 10th with 368.1 points among 23 entrants.

Ice-hockey

The Japanese team was eliminated in the first-round contest, losing its matches to Sweden and England with a score of 2 goals to 0 each.

Japan took part in the Sixth International University Games held in Budapest in August, 1935, sending its all-star student track and field team of Keio University. After one week of competition among the athletic representatives of 29 countries, Japan took third place in the track and field events and second place in the gymnastics. Germany won the track and field contest with 125 points and Hungary was second with 92. Japan was third with 74 and England fourth 47.

In gymnastics, Hungary won first place with 509 points and Japan was runner-up with 478 points. Third place went to Germany which scored 475 points. Ichiro Nozaka was the best in individual scoring for Japan, being placed 8th with 97 points.

Those who won points in various events for the Japanese track team were.

100-metre dash : Monta Suzuki (Keio U.), 2nd, 10.8 seconds.

200-metre dash : Monta Suzuki (Keio U.), 3rd, 21.9 seconds.

1,500-metre run : Hideo Tanaka (Chuo U.), 4th, 4:0.58 minutes.

5,000-metre run : Hideo Tanaka (Chuo U.), 2nd, 15:24.4 minutes.

110-metre high hurdles : Tadashi Murakami (Waseda U.), 3rd 15.3 seconds ; Masao Harada (Kyoto Imperial U.), 4th.

400-metre relay : Japanese team, 4th, 42.8 seconds.

1,600-metre relay : Japanese team, 6th, 3:27.2 minutes.

Olympic relay : Jpanese team, 4th, 3:35.6 minutes.

High Jump : Hiroshi Tanaka (Waseda U.), 3rd, 1.94 metre ; Tadashi Murakami (Waseda U.), 5th.

Broad Jump : Naondo Tajima (Kyoto Imperial U.), 1st, 7.52 metres ; Masao Harada (Kyoto Imperial U.).

Pole vault : Shunhei Nishida (Waseda U.), 1st, 4.30 metres ; 2nd, Sueo Oyé (Keio U.).

Javelin throw : Saburo Nagao (Kwansai U.), 4th 57.70 metres.

At Berlin Japan spent a delegation of 248 athletes and officials, including 19 women athletes, to the 11th Olimpic Games held at the Reich Sports Field, Berlin, for 16 days started on August 1, 1936. The delegation was the biggest Japan ever sent to the Olympics, and was an increase of more than 50 athletes compared with the number it despatched to the Los Angels Olympiad.

The Japanese contingent participated in 13 events ; men's track and field, men's swimming, soccer, hockey, rowing, gymnastics, basketball, yachting, wrestling, equestrian, boxing, women's track and field and women's swimming. Japan won six championships, four second places and eight third places, and finished 8th in an unofficial standing which was far better than its performance in the Los Angels meet.

1 Track and Field. Of the most outstanding success for Japan was the triumph in the marathon race by Son Kitei. Son, a young Korean runner who set an unofficial world marathon record in Tokyo the previous year, won the event with a time of 2 hours, 29 minutes and 19.2 seconds, a new Olympic record. It was the first victory by a Japanese in this event. Naota Tajima, a Kwansai student, also lived up to his fame by winning the hop, step and jump for the third consecutive time for Japan in the Olympic Games. Tajima's winning leap, 16 metres, was a new world record. Other brilliant performers for Japan were Kohei Murakoso who won fourth place both in the 5,000-metre and 10,000-metre runs, and Shunhei Nishida and Sueo Oye who tied for second place in the pole vault event, after giving hard resistance to Earl Meadows of the United States, the winner. It was the second time Nishida placed second in the Olympic pole vault.

2 Swimming Japan successfully defended its world superemacy gained in the Los Angeles meet by winning three championships, two second places, and five third places. Three events won by Japanese were the 1,500-metre free style, the 200-metre breast stroke and the 800-metre relay. Tetsuo Hamuro, com-

peting in the Olympic Games for the first time, caused a sensation by winning the 200-metre breast stroke in a new Olympic record of 2 minutes and 42.5 seconds. Miss Hideko Maehata was the first Japanese woman to win in the Olympic aquatic event. She won the 200-metre breast stroke for women and set a new Olympic record of 3 minutes and 3.6 seconds.

After the Games, the International Olympic Committee met and awarded Japan the right to sponsor the 12th Olympic Games in Tokyo in 1940.

The Tokyo Olympic Games The Olympic Organizing Committee of the 12th Olympic Games to be held in Tokyo in 1940, was formed on December 21, 1936, with the following members.

Three members of the International Olympic Committee for Japan, Prince Iyesato Tokugawa, Mr. Jigoro Kano and Count Michimasa Soyeshima.

The Mayor of Tokyo, Mr. Ichita Kobashi.

The President of the Japan Amateur Athletic Association, Lieutenant-General Matahiko Oshima.

The Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, Mr. Kensuke Horinouchi.

The Vice-Minister of Home Affairs, Mr. Hisatada Hirose.

The Vice-Minister of Finance, Mr. Sotaro Ishiwatari.

The Vice-Minister of War, Lieutenant-General Yoshijiro Umezu.

The Vice-Minister of Navy, Vice-Admiral Isoroku Yamamoto.

The Vice-Minister of Education, Mr. Enkichi Ito.

The Vice-Minister of Communication, Mr. Kaname Hirasawa.

The Vice-Minister of Railways, Mr. Kenjiro Kiyasu.

The Chairman of the Municipal Assembly of Tokyo, Mr. Azuma Matsunaga.

The President of the Japan Chamber of Commerce and Industry, Mr. Chokyuro Kadono.

The Vice-President of the Japan Amateur Athletic Association, Mr. Ryozo Hiranuma.

Prince Iyesato Tokugawa was elected president of the Olympic Organizing Committee, and Mr. Kobashi and Lieutenant-General Matahiko Oshima were chosen vice-president of the Committee. Mr. Matsuzo Nagai, former Japanese Ambassador to Berlin, is appointed secretary general of the Olympic Organizing Committee, and is assisted by Dr. Taku Iwahara, chief of the section of physical education of the Ministry of Education, Mr. Fumio Takahashi, director of the Japan Amateur Athletic Association, and Mr. Tokimitsu Kusama, chief secretary of the Tokyo Municipal Office, all of them being members of the committee of general affairs of the O. O. C.

Two other departments of the O. O. C., game and publicity, are headed by Dr. Takashi Go, honorary director of the J. A. A. A., and Mr. Kuraji Takahashi of the Board of Tourist Industry of the Railway Ministry.

Games to be played are track and field, swimming, weight-lifting, wrestling (free style and greco-roman), boxing, fencing (foil, epee and saber), shooting (pistol and rifle), gymnastics, riding, cycling, rowing (scull, four-oared and eight-oared shells), canoeing, yachting, skiing, skating and bobsleigh.

The Main Stadium : The site of the main stadium and swimming pool will be in the outer garden of the Meiji Shrine in the heart of Tokyo, its area being 125 acres. All scientific and modern devices will be installed to insure accuracy of judging the contests, and for the comfort of the contestants as well as of the spectators. The chief events to be held at the stadium are the opening and closing ceremonies, track and field events, different games, etc. The stadium field will be laid out with track at the centre, its outer portion being devoted to racing and the inside to throwing events and different games. The track is 400 metres in length with a straight way of 140 metres on the side of the main stand. The stadium will have a seating capacity for 100,000 spectators.

The Swimming Pool : The present Meiji Shrine pool, 50 metres in length with a separate diving pool, will be used, with the seating capacity of 12,000 persons, expanded to 20,000. Other plans for grounds are as follows :

Ball-game ground : The grounds for the ball games will be laid out at Shiba Park and several others as required. These grounds will be used also for preliminary contests.

Indoor stadium : Besides the one just built in Hitotsubashi, Kanda ward, one more to be called 'Olympic Memorial Gymnasium,' will be constructed in Surugadai in the same ward, about three miles from the main stadium. The new gymnasium is to be built over 3,200 square tsubo with a cost of ¥2,000,000, and will have a stadium, gymnasium and indoor swimming pool.

Equestrian events : A new riding ground will be made at Setagaya, six miles from the main stadium, by the Japan Riding Association for Olympic contest.

Rowing course : Toda in Saitama prefecture, just outside Tokyo, is the site for the rowing course, which is to run parallel to the north bank of the canal just above the Toda bridge. This project is a tremendous undertaking, involving the excavating of a large area of agricultural land adjacent to the present canal and an expenditure of some ¥2,800,000. The work started in May, 1937, and is expected to finish by the summer of 1939. The course will be 2,500 metres long and 80 metres wide, enabling three eight-oared shell rowed at one time. A road seven metres wide, will run parallel on either side of the course. A space of 56 acres will be used for grass lawns, a grandstand to accomodate 10,000 spectators and parking room.

Yacht course : A yacht course will be constructed at Kominato, off the Yokohama harbour, with the city of Yokohama taking responsibility for the project. The work will cost ¥700,000.

Shooting grounds : The grounds 50 m. x 60 m. will be located at Higashi-Murayama, in the outskirt of the city, about six miles from the main stadium. The Tsurumi shooting grounds will be used for the American style clay target shooting.

Cycling course : The cycling course will be built at Shibaura near the heart of the city. It will be a 50-metre circular course, equipped for evening races, with accomodation for 10,000 spectators.

Marathon course ; The paved course extends from the main stadium to Tsurumi, connecting the new Tokyo-Yokohama highway which is now under construction. The course will be well shaded by trees and will not be disturbed by surface traffic.

Fine arts exhibition : The Ueno Fine Arts Gallery will be devoted to the arts, and the Hibiya Public Hall for musical performances.

Olympic Village : The village will be located at Kinuta, along the Tama River, about six miles from the main stadium. The grounds will cover 800 acres, and wooden cottages will be assigned to the participating countries. Facilities available at the village will be : 20 fields for track and field ; 10 swimming pools ; 13 football fields ; 8 hockey fields ; 10 basketball courts ; 10 gymnastic courts ; 10 boxing rings, 10 wrestling mats, 10 fencing courts ; and 10 places for weight-lifting practice.

Time of Events : At the International Olympic Committee meeting held in Warsaw in June, 1937, it was decided that the games should be started from the last week of the August, 1940. But this may be changed according to later developments. Japan prefers to hold the games during August since there is less rain in this month than in September.

Winter Games : The 5th Olympic Winter Games are also awarded to Japan, being recently decided at the International Olympic Committee conference held at Warsaw. The site of the games will be Sapporo in the Hokkaido in the northern extreme end of Japan, where an abundance of the finest snow is obtainable and national open and collegiate skiing and skating championship meets are being held every year.

Government subsidy : The 70th session of the Japanese Diet, held in early 1937, appropriated ¥4,300,000 to subsidize the 12th Olympic Games.

Details of the Japanese performances at the Berlin Olympiad were :

TRACK AND FIELD

5,000-metre run—Kohei Murakoso won 4th place.

10,000-metre run—Kohei Murakoso won 4th place.

Marathon—Son Kitei won for the first time for Japan with a time of 2 hours 29 minutes 19.5 seconds, and Nan Shoryu placed third.

Running high jump—Kimio Yada placed 5th with 1.97 metres.

Running broad jump—Naota Tajima won third place with 7.74 metres.

Hop, step and jump—Naoto Tajima won and defended successfully the title for the third time in row since the Amsterdam meet. Tajima's leap was 16 metres, a new world record.

Pole vault—Shuhei Nishida and Sueo Oye tied for second place with 4.25 metres respectively.

Women's Track and Field

Discus throw—Miss Ko Nakamura and Miss Hide Minejima won fourth and fifth places respectively.

Javelin throw—Miss Sadako Yamamoto placed fifth.

Swimming

100-metre free style—Masanori Yusa won second place, followed by Shigeo Arai and Shoji Taguchi in third and fourth places. Yusa's time was 57.9 seconds.

400-metre free style—Three Japanese mermen finished in first five, namely, Shumpei Udo in second place, Shozo Udo was timed in 4 minutes 45.6 seconds.

1,500-metre free style—Noboru Terada won with a time of 19 minutes 13.7 seconds. Two other place winners were

Shumpei Udo who came in third and Sunao Ishiwarada who finished fourth.

800-metre relay—Japan's team won, members being Yusa, Sugiura, Taguchi and Arai. Time, 8 minutes 51.5 second.

100-metre back stroke—Shoichi Kiyokawa won third place with a time of 1 minutes 6.4 seconds. Kiichi Yoshida placed 5th and Yasuhiko Kojima 6th.

200-metre breast stroke—Tetsuo Hamuro won. Time, 2 minutes 42.5 seconds. Two others who placed were Reizo Koike, third, and Saburo Ito, fifth.

High diving—Tsuneo Shibahara placed sixth.

Spring board diving—Tsuneo Shibahara took fourth place.

Women's Swimming

400-metre free style—Miss Kazue Kojima placed sixth.

200-metre breast stroke—Miss Hideko Maehata won. Time, 3 minutes 3.6 seconds.

High diving—Miss Reiko Osawa won 4th place and Miss Fusako Kono finished 6th.

Spring board diving—Miss Masayo Osawa placed sixth.

Wrestling

Free style

Featherweight—Kozo Mizutani ranked 6th.

Lightweight—Eiichi Kazama ranked 5th.

Boxing

Bantamweight — Shumpei Hashioka ranked 5th.

Equestrian competition

Steeplechase—Japanese team, composed of Captain Baron Takeichi Nishi, Lieutenant Hiroji Inaba and Lieutenant Manabu Iwabashi, placed 6th with 75 penalties.

The Tenth Far Eastern Olympiad

The Tenth Far Eastern Championship Games were held in Manila between May 12 and 21, 1934. Much trouble was created in Japan before the Japan Amateur Athletic Federation finally decided to participate in the event. The Japanese side proposed to the headquarters of the Championship Games that Manchoukuo, represented by the Manchoukuo Amateur Athletic Federation, should be allowed to participate in the event. A protest was raised by both China and the Philippines that the matter had to be submitted to a general conference of the participating countries and the Constitution of the Games be revised for admittance of Manchoukuo. This attitude angered those supporting the Manchoukuo side and caused them to advise the Japan Amateur Athletic Federation to withdraw from the event, unless the matter was accepted. The matter was telegraphed to the Manila headquarters, but the reply was that it had to be submitted to a general meeting for approval. In the midst of a vigorous opposition, the Japanese Federation submitted to its general meeting a plan whether it had to attend the games in Manila or renounce its right to participate, leaving the Manchoukuo Federation, and finally it was decided the Federation would attend it with a determination to discuss matters regarding the Manchoukuo participation in the next event and to withdraw from the Games, if Constitution could not be revised so as to let the Manchoukuo participation possible. In course of the games in Manila, the matter was discussed, but failed to be adopted by unanimous consent. In consequence, the Japanese Federation made up its mind to depart from the Games and to organize a new athletic federation with the object of promoting physical culture. Japan, however, participated in the Tenth Games throughout. On June 12, after the return of the Japanese sports delegation to Japan, it was resolved by the delegation that the Japanese Amateur Athletic Federation withdraw from the Far Eastern Championship Games and organize the Amateur Athletic Association of the Orient. Japan, Manchoukuo and the Philippines have decided to join the new Federation, but China will not join it. Thus the Far Eastern Championship Games have been forced to break up.

Results of the Tenth Far Eastern Championship Games follow:

BASEBALL

Philippines	25	to	China	1
Japan	25	to	China	1
Philippines	7	to	Japan	0
Philippines	14	to	China	0
Japan	8	to	China	0
Japan	2	to	Philippines	2

Note: Philippines 1st; Japan 2nd; China 3rd.

BASKETBALL

China	42	to	Japan	26
Philippines	51	to	Japan	35
China	48	to	Japan	47
Philippines	37	to	China	27
Japan	40	to	Philippines	37
Philippines	44	to	China	33

Note: Philippines 1st; China 2nd; Japan 3rd.

VOLLEYBALL

Philippines	3	to	Japan	2
China	3	to	Japan	2
Philippines	3	to	China	0
Philippines	3	to	Japan	1
China	3	to	Philippnes	2

Note: Philippines 1st; China 2nd; Japan 3rd.

FOOTBALL

China	2	to	Philippines	1
Duch East Indies	7	to	Japan	1
China	2	to	D.E.I.	0
China	4	to	Japan	3
Japan	4	to	Philippines	3
Philippines	3	to	D.E.I.	2

Note: China 1st; Japan, Philippines and D.E.I. 2nd.

LAWN TENNIS

Japan	4	to	China	1
Philippines	4	to	D.E.I.	1
Philippines	2	to	Japan	1

Note: Due to Japan - Philippine finals being called off, no championship was decided.

TRACK

Japan	50
Philippines	38
China	0
D.E.I.	0

Note: Japan 1st; Philippines 2nd; China 3rd.

FIELD

Japan	51
Philippines	19
China	7
D.E.I.	0

Note: Japan 1st; Philippines 2nd; China 3rd and D.E.I. 4th.

PENTATHLON & DECATHLON

Japan	18
Philippines	13
China	7
D.E.I.	2

Note: Japan 1st; Philippines 2nd; China 3rd; D.E.I. 4th.

SWIMMING

Japan	68
Philippines	15
China	0
D.E.I.	0

Note: Japan 1st; Philippines 2nd; China 3rd; D.E.I. 4th. Boxing is not mentioned, as it was not included in championship games.

To commemorate the establishment of the Amateur Athletic Association of the Orient among the Philippines, Japan and Manchoukuo, after the break of the Far Eastern Championship Games in the summer of 1934, Japan invited 20 athletes, five boxers and 15 baseball players from the philippines for a series of games in June, 1935.

Results of the games follow :

TRACK AND FIELD

Japan	98-50	Philippines	(Tokyo)
Japanese Student Stars	68-47	„	„

Baseball

Philippines 12–6 Moji Railway Bureau (Fukuoka); Yahata Iron Works 5–1 Philippines (Yahata); Philippines 2–1 Yahata Iron Works (Yahata); Philippines 11–1 Yahata Iron Works (Fukuoka); Kwansai University 4–3 Philippines (Osaka); Philippines 2–1 Kwansai University (Osaka); All Osaka 3–2 Philippines (Osaka); Philippines 12–5 Keio University (Tokyo); Philippines 5–3 Rikkyo (Tokyo); Hosei University 3–2 Philippines (Tokyo); Waseda 12–3 Philippines (Tokyo); and Tokyo Club 6–1 Philippines.

Boxing

Philippines 3–2 All Kwansai (Osaka); Philippines 4–1 All Kwanto (Tokyo); Kwanto Student Champions 4–1 Philippines (Tokyo); Pilippines 3–2 Middle Japan (Nagoya).

Development of Western Sports

The History Young When a Japanese refers to "sports," he usually means Western athletic sports, not the traditional sports of Japan, The tremendous interest of the Japanese in Western sports and the remarkable development that they have made in them have relegated Japan's own sports to the background. One may pay tribute to the athletic prowess of the Japanese and their adaptability and capacity for as-

similation, but one strong reason for the great popularity of the sports from the West may be sought in the fact that most Western sports are played collectively, instead of individually as in the case of Japanese fencing and judo, and they appear to suit the race in their modern mode of life. Western sports, moreover, offer the Japanese an opportunity to compete with other athletic nations and demonstrate their ability. This gives more incentive for their enthusiasm for foreign sports.

Despite their remarkable growth, Western sports in Japan are very young, and their history is a matter of only half a century. Sixty years ago, no Western sport worth the name existed in Japan. The fact that Japan could send only two athletes to the World Olympic Games for the first time as late as 20 years ago and suffered a miserable defeat is indicative of the slight athletic progress the conutry had attained up to that time. Except for baseball, which was played zealously even in the earlier years, it is no exaggeration to say that Japan's participation in the World Olympics provided the real incentive for the growth of Western sports in general.

The Far Eastern Olympiad It should be added in this connection that, one year after Japan's first participation in the World Olympics, the Far Eastern Olympic Games were organized, with Japan, China and the Philippines as the participants. There is little doubt that this minor Olympics had a great deal to do with athletic development in Japan. As in the case of the World Olympics, Japan had an insignificant beginning as far as points go, but in 1930 the country so completely defeated the Philippines and China that one who was acquainted with the remarkable athletic progress in Japan doubted the usefulness of further competition in the Far Eastern Olympic Games. The first meet of this junior Olympics was held at Manila in 1913, and since then successive Far Eastern Olympic Games have been held every other year. In 1930, when the last meet was held in Tokyo, it was agreed to hold the meet every four years so that it would not clash with the World Olympics. The last Far Eastern Olympic Games took place in Manila in May, 1934. In addition to the World and Far Eastern Olympic Games, there have been from time to time frequent exchanges of visits between Japanese athletic teams and those of foreign countries, which not only offered the Japanese opportunities to learn valuable lessons but proved good for a closer international friendship.

The Re-organization of the Japan Amateur Association The Japan Amateur Athletic Association was reorganized as the highest regulating body for sports in Japan, on May 19, 1936. The Association was able to perfect its organization with the affiliation of sixteen other athletic bodies and became the most important sports governing body in Japan. The important work for the Association in 1935 was the sending of the delegation to the 11th Olympiad in Berlin and exerting its best efforts to invite the 12th Olympiad to Tokyo.

As regards the sending of the delegation the Association succeeded in obtaining the fund. A subsidy of ¥300,000 was granted by the Government and public donations amounting to ¥400,000 were obtained these two making a total fund of ¥700,000 for the despatch of the delegation. It was thus possible to send 47 athletes to the 4th Winter Sports Games and also a large and imposing delegation composed of 68 officials and 246 athletes representing 13 events to the 11th Olympiad in Berlin.

Traditional Sports Of Japan's traditional sports, those which have remained from ancient times and which still hold the interest of the people include jujitsu (judo), known as the art of self-defence; kenjutsu (kendo), or fencing; sumo, or wrestling, and swimming (native styles). All these major sports are still being practised throughout the country. Probably the most popular is wrestling. At the Kokugikan amphitheatre at Ryogoku, on the bank of the Sumida River, which flows through Tokyo, a professional wrestling tournament is held twice a year, in January and May. H. I. M. the Emperor invites almost each year not only professional wrestlers but jujitsu and fencing masters of the land to the palace for matches in His Majesty's presence. In addition to these Japanese sports, there are others, such as archery and horsemanship of ancient origin, but they have suffered more or less decadence since the overthrow of feudalism.

Under Education Minister All sports in Japan are controlled either by the Ministry of Education or the Home Office. All students' sports are under the jurisdiction of the Education Ministry, and such non-student affairs as Japanese professional wrestling and professional boxing are under the control of the Home Office. Matters such as the maintenance of peace and order in and around the wrestling amphitheatre

or boxing ring are in the hands of the local police.

The leading athletic organization in Japan is the Japan Amateur Athletic Association, mentioned above, with Ryozo Hiranuma as acting president. This is the organization which controls track and field games in Japan and selects athletes for international meets. There are other similar organizations, such as the Japan Amateur Swimming Federation and the Japan Lawn Tennis Association.

Records Various statistics of records made by Japanese athletes follow :

JAPAN'S AND WORLD'S TRACK AND FIELD RECORDS

Running

Event	Japan's Record	World's Record
100-meter	10.3s. Ryutoku Yoshioka (1935)	10.3s. Ralph Metcalfe, U.S.A. (1934)
200-meter	21.2s. Mutsuo Taniguchi (1934)	20.3s. Jesse Owens. U.S.A. (1935)
400-meter	49.0s. Keiji Imai (1934)	46.1s. Archie Williams, U.S.A. (1936)
800-meter	1 : 54.0m. Kumao Aochi (1934)	1 : 49.7m. Glenn Cunningham, U.S.A. (1936)
1,500-meter	3 : 57.8m. Kiyoshi Nakamura (1936)	3 : 47.8m. Jack Lovelock, New Zealand (1936)
5,000-meter	14 : 30.0m. Kohei Murakoso (1936)	14 : 17.0m, Lauri Lehtinen, Finland (1932)
10,000-meter	30 : 25.0m. Kohei Murakoso (1936)	30 : 6.2m. Paavo Nurmi, Finland (1924)
Marathon	2 : 26.42h. Kitei Son (1935)	2 : 26.42h. Kitei Son, Japan (1935)

Hurdles

110-meter high hurdles	14.6s. Tadashi Murakami (1935)	13.7s. Forrest Towns, U.S.A. (1936)
200-meter low hurdles	24.3s. Iwao Anne (1930)	22.6s. Jesse Owens, U.S.A. (1935)
400-meter low hurdles	54.6s. Yukio Fukui (1933)	50.6s. Glenn Hardin, U.S.A. (1934)
3,000-meter steeplechase	9 : 37.4m. Tetsuo Imai(1936)	9 : 3.8m. V. Isohollo, Finland (1936)

Relay Races

400-meter	41.4s. Yoshioka, Sasaki, Taniguchi (1935)	39.9s. Owens. Metcalph. Draper, Wykoff, U.S.A. (1936)
800-meter	1 : 28.0m. Takano, Kondo, Taniguchi. Suzuki (1934)	1 : 25.8m. Borah, House, Smith, Lewis, U.S.A. (1927)
1,600-meter	3 : 16.8m. Nakajima, Masuda, Oki, Nishi (1932)	3 : 8.2m. Fuqua, Alowich, Warner, Carr, U.S.A. (1932)
3,200-meter	8 : 20.4m. Kida, Nagatani, Hori, Hamada (1929)	7 : 41.4m. Martin, Welch. Sansone, Hahn, U.S.A. (1926)

Walking

3,000-meter	14 : 1.2m. Kinji Kazama (1936)	12 : 53.8m. G. Rasmussen. Denmark (1918)
5,000-meter	25 : 51.6m. Eiiji Wada (1934)	21 : 49.0m. John Mikaelson, Sweden (1936)
10,000-meter	62 : 47.0m. Hatsutaro Akiyama (1936)	44 : 42.4m. A.H.G. Pope. England (1932)
50,000-meter	4 : 55.0h. Eiiji Wada (1933)	4 : 26.40h. Edgar Brunn, Norway (1936)

Jumping

High jump	2.01 mtrs. Yoshiro Asakuma (1935)	2.07 mtrs. Dave Albritton U.S.A. (1936)
Bread jump	7.98 mtrs. Chuhei Nambu (1931)	8.15 mtrs. Jesse Owens, U.S.A. (1935)
Hop, step and jump	16mtrs. Naoto Tajima(1936)	16 mtrs. Naoto Tajima, Japan (1936)
Pole vault	4.34 mtrs. Sueo Oye (1936)	4.43 mtrs. George Varoff, U,S,A, (1936)

Weight Events

Putting 16-lb. shot	14.15 mtrs. Shizuo Takada (1934)	17.40 mtrs. Jack Torrance, U.S.A. (1934)
Hammer throw	51.27 mtrs. Tsao Abe (1935)	57.77 mtrs. D.J. Ryan U.S.A. (1913)

Discus Throw

44.76 mtrs. Kosaku Kikumoto (1935) 53.10 mtrs. Willi Schroeder, Germany (1935)

Javelin Throw

68.59 mtrs. Saburo Nagao (1934) 77.23 mtrs. M. Jarvinen, Finland (1936)

Decathlon

7,469.595 pts. Tatsuo Toki (1932) 7,900 pts. Glenn Morris, U.S.A. (1936)

WOMEN'S JAPAN AND WORLD TRACK AND FIELD RECORD

Event	Japan's Record	World Record
50 mtrs. run	6.4s. Kinuye Hitomi(1927)	6.4s. Walasiewicz, Polond (1932)
100 ,,	12.0s. Kinuye Hitomi(1929)	11.4s. Stephens, U.S.A.(1936)
200 ,,	24.7s. Kinuye Hitomi(1929)	23.6s. Walasiewicz, Poland (1935)
400 ,,	1:1.6m. Kiyoko Itoda (1935)	58.0s. Walasiewicz. Poland (1934)
800 ,,	2:23.8m. Kinuye Hitomi(1928)	2:12.4m. Koukova, Czechoslovakia (1934)
1,000 ,,	3:32.3m. Michiyo Onishi(1935)	2:52.4m. Lunn, England (1936)
80 mtrs. hardles	12.2s. Michi Nakanishi (1932)	11.6s. Valla, Italy (1936)
400 mtrs. relay	50.2s. Muraoka, Shibata, Nakajima, Watanabe, (1932)	46.4s. National Team. Germany (1936)
800 meters. relay	1:49.2 m. Kato, Nakajima, Manabe, Itoda (1935)	1:45.8 m. National Team, Germany (1932)
1,000 mtrs. relay	2:17. lm. Koya, Ueda, Nakamura, Niibayashi, Yamamoto, Okuno, Sakai, Kawashima, Kawahara, Takino (1935)	2:4.4 m. National Team, England (1929)
High jump	1.55 mtrs. Rie Yamanouchi (1936)	1.65 mtrs. Didrickson, U.S.A.(1932)
Broad jump	6.07 mtrs. Kinuye Hitomi (1929)	5.98 mtrs. Kinuye Hitomi, Japan (1928)
Shot put	12.25 mtrs. Fumi Kojima (1936)	14.38 mtrs. Mauermeyer, Germany (1934)
Discus throw	39.75 mtrs. Hide Minejima (1936)	48.31 mtrs. Mauermeyer, Germany (1936)
Javelin throw	44.51 mtrs. Sadako Yamamoto (1936)	46.74 mtrs. Gindele, U.S.A. (1932)

JAPAN'S AND WORLD'S BEST SWIMMING RECORDS

Men's Free Style

Distance	Japan's Record	World's Record
50-meter	25.8s. Shigeo Takahashi (1934)	
100-meter	57.2s. Masanori Yusa (1935)	56.4s. Peter Fick, U.S.A. (1936)
200-meter	2:11.2m. Masanori Yusa (1935)	2:7.2m. Jack Medica U.S.A. (1935)
300-meter	3:31.0m. Hiroshi Negami (1936)	3:21.6m, Jack Medica U,S,A, (1935)
400-meter	4:45.0m. Hiroshi Negami (1936)	4:38.7m. Jack Medica U.S.A. (1934)
500-meter	6:7.2m. Gen Ishiwarada (1935)	5;57.8m. Jack Medica U.S.A. (1933)
800-meter	9:55.8m. Shozo Makino (1935)	8:55.8m. Shozo Makino, Japan (1935)
1,000-meter	12:41.8m. Hiroshi Negami (1934)	12:41.8m. Hiroshi Negami, Japan (1934)
1,500-meter	19:8.0m. Kusuo Kitamura (1933)	19:72m. Arne Borg, Sweden (1927)

Men's Breast Stroke

100-meter	1:12.2m. Reizo Koike (1936)	1:10.0m. John Higgins, U.S.A. (1933)
200-meter	2:41.0m. Reizo Koike (1936)	2:37.2m. Jack Kasley, U.S.A. (1936)

Men's Back Stroke

100-meter	1:11.2m. Shoji Kiyokawa (1936)	1:4.8m. Adolph Kiefer, U.S.A. (1936)
200-meter	2:32.6m. Yasuhiko Kojima (1936)	2:24.0m. Adoldh Kiefer. U.S.A. (1935)
400-meter	5:23.2m. Kiichi Yoshida (1936)	5:13.4m. Adolph Kiefer, U,S.A, (1936)

Women's Free Style

100-meter	1:11.0m. Kazue Kojima (1936)	1:4.6m. Den Ouden, Holland (1936)
200-meter	2:42.8m. Kazue Kojima (1933)	2:25.3m. Den Ouden, Holland (1935)
400-meter	5:49.6m. Kazue Kojima (1933)	5:16.0m. Den Ouden, Holland (1934)
800-meter	12:31.8m. Hatsue Morioka(1935)	11:11.7m. Ranghild Hveger, Denmark (1936)
1,000-meter	15:57.0m. Hatsue Morioka(1933)	14:44.8m. Helen Madison U.S.A. (1931)

Women's Breast Stroke

100-meter	1:25.7m. Hideko Maehata (1935)	1:20.2m. H. Hoelzner, Germany (1936)
200-meter	3:0.4m. Hideko Maehata (1933)	3:0.4m. Hideko Maehata, Japan (1933)

Women's Back Stroke

100-meter	1:25.1m. Misao Yokota (1932)	1:13.6m. Nida Zenff, Holland (1936)
200-meter	3:9.2m. Ai Oda (1936)	2:48.7m. E.H. Jarrett, U.S.A. (1936)

Baseball

Baseball is the most popular and most widely played game in Japan. Sumo, the Japanese style of wrestling, had been known for many years as the national game, but baseball came from the United States and caught popular fancy. The American pastime is now recognized as the de facto national game of this country. The Japanese are agile by nature and gifted with quick headwork and therefore are fitted to play baseball, although their weakness in batting is admitted. American professional players who have been to Japan and played with the Japanese have said that the Japanese are good pitchers and good fielders, but poor hitters and have recommended that efforts be made to improve batting.

Its Inception Like track and field sports, baseball was brought to Japan in the early years of Meiji. It is recorded that baseball was introduced by two American teachers in 1872. Not much progress was made until after 1890. The First Higher School is known as the first school which organized a strong team. Keio University and Waseda University also organized teams. Games began to be played between those schools with much zeal. In 1905, Waseda University sent its team to the United States. It played 27 games and won seven, but the team brought to Japan new tricks, such as winding and bunting, which had been unknown here until that time. Organized cheering was begun about the same time. From then on, American university teams, such as those of St. Louis, Wisconsin, Washington and Chicago Universities, came to Japan. At first, the American invaders were sure to win. As years went by, baseball in Japan developed greatly, however, and now it is admitted that Japanese university teams are on a par with American 'varsity nines. Hence the almost semi-annual exchange of university baseball teams between Japan and the United States.

Its Development The development of baseball in Japan owes much to the visits of American professional players. In 1913, Japan invited the leading players of the New York Giants and the Chicago White Sox to play with the Japanese and coach them. In 1931, a picked American professional team came under the management of Mr. Herb Hunter. Those Big League players not only impressed the Japanese with spectacular playing but also opened their eyes to the possibilities of further improvement in technique. In 1932, Mr. Hunter brought here Frank (Lefty) O'Doul and a few other Big League players for the purpose of coaching Japanese university players.

The University League The game was laid on a firm foundation in 1925 when

the present Six-University Baseball League of Tokyo was organized among Waseda, Keio, Meiji, Hosei, Rikkyo and Imperial Universities. Of the semi-annual league series, the most popular is the Waseda-Keio, series, the interest in which is high, as in the Cambridge-Oxford regatta, because of the historical background. Before the present league was formed, Waseda and Keio had such keen rivalry that blood shed was caused at one of the games and the series had to be abandoned for 20 years. The creation of the league revived the series, and they are now the World Series of Japan. Each Waseda-Keio game is usually attended by a capacity crowd of 60,000 at the Meiji Jingu (Shrine) grounds, Tokyo.

In the semi-annual league seasons, each university plays a two-game series with the others. The championship winners were formerly decided on the basis of the number of series won, but now the number of games won.

The following tables show the final standing of the autumn season of 1936 and the spring season of 1937 :

1936 Autumn

	Waseda	Meiji	Hosei	Rikkyo	Keio	Imp.	Won	Draw	%
Waseda	×	2	1	2	1	1	7	1	.750
Meiji	0	×	1	1	2	2	6	0	.600
Hosei	1	1	×	1	0	2	5	2	.600
Rikkyo	0	1	1	×	1	1	4	1	.450
Keio	1	0	0	0	×	1	2	3	.350
Imp.	0	0	0	1	1	×	2	1	.250
Lost	2	4	3	5	5	7			

Waseda won the pennant.

1937 Spring

	Meiji	Waseda	Keio	Hosei	Rikkyo	Imp.	Won	Draw	%
Meiji	×	2	1	2	2	2	9	0	.900
Waseda	0	×	2	1	1	2	6	0	.600
Keio	1	0	×	1.5	1	2	5	1	.556
Hosei	0	1	0.5	×	1.5	2	4	2	.500
Rikkyo	0	1	1	0.5	×	2	4	1	.444
Imp.	0	0	0	0	0	×	0	0	.000
Lost	1	4	4	4	5	10			

Meiji won the pennant.

At the invitation of the Waseda University, members of the baseball team of the Yale University, star nine of the Eastern Collegiate League of the United States, arrived in Tokyo on August 17, 1935, for a series of games against the members of the Tokyo University League. Their performance here was poor as they lost seven games out of 11 played and drew one. They sailed back on the Asama Maru on September 11.

The results of the games :

August 18 Waseda 8–5 Yale 7–0 Waseda ; August 20 Keio 10–0 Yale ; August 22 Yale 7–5 Tokyo Club ; August 24 Waseda 8–8 Yale ; August 25 Meiji 5–0 Yale ; August 28 Rikkyo 4–1 Yale ; September 3 Yale 7–3 Waseda ; September 3 Waseda 14–0 Yale ; September 8 Waseda 9–3 Yale ; and September 9 Waseda 7–3 Yale. The last three games were played in Osaka.

Next, the American Champion Amateur Baseball squad, selected by the Amateur Baseball Congress of America, visited Tokyo in early November, 1935, right after the closing of the fall season of the Tokyo University Baseball League, and opened a series of games with members of the former league.

The American champion nine, however, failed to live up to its fame, dropping the first two games to both the freshman teams of Meiji and Rikkyo in one-sided games respectively. The Americans played eight games in Tokyo and managed to win five of them. The losing Japanese teams, however, did not use their regulars since their colleagues smothered the visitors easily with their second string. The Americans, consequently, failed to draw a large crowd at the Meiji Shrine grounds and suffered loss on their travelling expenses.

The results of the games :

November 7, lost to Meiji, 5–4; November 8, lost to Rikkyo, 7–1; November 9, won over the Yokohama Commercial College, 9–0; November 10, won over Waseda, 7–0; November 12, lost to Hosei, 5–4; November 14, won over the Tokyo Railway Bureau, 6–4; November 16, won over Keio, 5–4; and November 20, won over the Tokyo Club, 6–0.

Members of the team were :

Pitchers : George Adams (Fort Collins, Colorado) ; Joseph Copp (Springfield, Illinois) ; Lou Briganti (New York) ; George Simmons (Philadelphia); Hayes Pierce (Nashville, Tennessee) ; A. Gonzales (University of Southern California).

Catchers : Fred Herringer (Stanford University) ; Fred Waters (Laurel, Minnesota) ; Dick Offringa (Wyckoff, New Jersey).

Infielders : Bob Chiado (Spring Valley, Illinois) ; Leslie Mc Neese (Fort Lauderdale, Florida); Alex Metti (Cleveland, Ohio) ; R. Goldsmith (Bloomington) ; Frank Scalza (Alabama) ; T.D. Wicklund (Kansas City).

Outfielders ; Jess Heath (Seattle) ; Ron Hibbard (Battle Creek, Michigan) ; Emmertt Fore Houston, Texas) ; Max Carey (Brooklyn).

The Waseda University team, winner of the 1935 fall season of the Tokyo University Baseball League, made a month-and-a-half tour to the United States, returning to Tokyo on July 15, 1936. The team brought back an excellent record of 15 victories out of 22 games played on American soil. The players benefited from the tour, according to Kenji Oshita who captained the nine. Not only did they learn something of the technique of the game, but they enjoyed themselves to the utmost. Everywhere they went they were widely entertained, not only by local Japanese but by Americans as well.

The majority of the team's opponents were college or university nines, although a number of Japanese clubs were included on the schedule. The full result of Waseda's six-week tour was as follows :

Date	Oppositon	Score
May 16	Stanford	1-8
May 16	Stanford	1-8
May 17	Asahi Japanese	9-4
May 18	Stadford	14-6
May 19	San Diego Marines	4-16
May 19	San Diego State College	3-2
May 23	Los Angeles Nippon	11-2
May 29	Chicago University	16-17
May 30	Chicago University	10-5
June 4	Boston College	2-4
June 7	Providence College	6-8
June 8	Yale	6-0
June10	Princeton	5-4
June12	Harvard	5-0
June13	Boston University	4-0
June17	Chicago University	3-13
June21	Taiyo, Seattle	11-1
June22	Washington	7-8
June23	Washington	11-1
June26	Mikado, Sacramento	8-10
June27	Yamato, Stockton	13-8
June28	Fresno, Japanese	11-7
June30	Alameda, Japanese	17-1

Professional .Baseball Japan now boasts of eight professional baseball teams, four in Tokyo and two each in Nagoya and Osaka. They are Tokyo Giants, Eagles, Tokyo senators and Lions in Tokyo ; Nagoya and Golden Dolphines in Nagoya ; Hankyu and Osaka Tigers in Osaka. The teams were formed during 1934 and early 1936, all possesing former leading baseball players from colleges and middle schools.

The Japan Professional Baseball League, a governing body for these professional teams, was founded in 1936, with leading men of each team in its official board. The league is headed by Marquis Nobutsuné Okuma, president of the Tokyo Giants. Each team is operated as sister companies of leading newspaper or railway companies, and some of them are financed by a group of business men. The Tokyo Giants is the oldest among them, founded in late 1934, and is backed by the Yomiuri Shimbun, leading Tokyo newspaper. The team made a tour of the United States twice already in 1935 and 1936, each time their trip extending for three months. Most of the professional teams are stronger than those of the Tokyo University League and their future is very promising .

The three championship series among the professional teams were held in Tokyo, Osaka and Nagoya during July, 1936, and resulted as follows :

The First Championship Series (Totsuka grounds, Tokyo, July 1–7)

Semi-finals

Nagoya beat Hankyu, 13 to 3 ; Tokyo Senators beat Osaka Tigers, 9 to 8.

Finals

Nagoya beat Tokyo Senators, 1 to 0. Batteries—Matsuura and Haris ; Noguchi and Kitaura.

The Second Championship Series (Koshien grounds, near Osaka, July 12–14)

Semi-finals

Tokyo Senators beat Golden Dolphines, 9 to 1; Hankyu beat Nagoya, 7 to 5.

Finals

Hankyu beat Tokyo Senators, 2 to 1. Batteries—Kitai and Kuramoto; Noguchi and Kitaura.

The Third Championship Series (Yamamoto grounds, Nagoya, July 15–19).

Semi-finals

Osaka Tigers beat Tokyo Senators, 9 to 7; Hankyu beat Golden Dolphines, 13 to 8.

Finals

Osaka Tigers beat Hankyu 11 to 7. Batteries —Wakabayashi and Monzen; Kitai, Yamada, Maruo and Kuramoto.

1936 Autumn (played at Osaka)

	Tigers	Giants	Dolphines	Hankyu	Senators	Nagoya	Tokyo	Won	%
Tigers	×	0	1	1	1	1	1	5	.833
Giants	1	×	0	1	1	1	1	5	.833
Dolphines	0	1	×	1	1	0	1	4	.667
Hankyu	0	0	0	×	1	1	1	3	.500
Senators	0	0	0	0	×	1	1	2	.333
Nagoya	0	0	1	0	0	×	1	2	.333
Tokyo	0	0	0	0	0	0	×	0	.000
Lost	1	1	2	3	4	4	6		

Tigers and Giants tied for first place, and Giants beat Tigers by 2 games to 1 in the deciding games, thus winning the championship.

Marking as one of the biggest events in the history of the Japanese baseball, 15 star baseball players of the American major leagues, made a barnstorming tour to Japan in the fall of 1934 at the invitation of the Yomiuri Shimbun. They arrived in Yokohama on November 2 and stayed for a month during which they made a clean sweep of winning 18 games against the All Japan nine in the leading cities of this country. Mr. Connie Mack, the veteran baseball coach and manager of the Philadelphia Athletics Club, was the leader of the team.

The American team, including such famous players as Babe Ruth, homerun King, Lou Gehrig, Jimmy Foxx and Charles Gehringer, were given a tremendous welcome by the Japanese baseball fans in every city they visited. Every baseball ground where they played, were filled to more than its capacity with the enthusiastic fans, who were, in return, treated with amazing and excellent play by the visitors, both in batting and fielding. Especially Babe Ruth was the centre of attraction, his play being observed keenly by the Japanese. He was also chased around heavily by a large number of autograph hunters wherever he appeared, just in the same way as in his home country.

The All Japan team which was specially formed to meet the American stars with the former star players in the Japanese college leagues, the strongest nine Japan could offer then, was beaten by a lopsided score by the visitors in almost every game they played. A total of 47 home runs was recorded by the American players during their sojourn, with Ruth leading with 13. A name of "home run team," was given by the Japanese fans for their heavy and amazing batting works by Ruth, Gehrig, Foxx, Averill and Gehringer, who all hit home run more than four each.

The American team was composed of the following players :

Eric McNair (Philadelphia Athletics), shortstop.

Charles I. Gehringer (Tigers), second base.

Babe Ruth (Yankees), left field and first base.

Lou Gehrig (Yankees), first base.

James Foxx (Athletics), third base.

Earl Averill (Cleveland), centre field.

E.J. Miller (Athletics), right field.

Morris Berg (Cleveland), catcher.

Frank Hayes (Athletics), catcher.

Vernon Gomez (Yankees), pitcher.

Earl Whitehill (Washington), pitcher.

Clinton H. Brown (Cleveland), pitcher.

Edward Cascarella (Athletics), pitcher.

Hal Warstler (Athletics), substitute for infielder.

Frank O'Doul (Giants), outfielder.

Mr. John A. Quinn, the noted Southern League umpire, acted as chief umpire.

Results of the games follow :

Americans 17–1 Tokyo Club (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo, November 4)

Americans 5–1 All Japan (Meiji Shrine

Grounds, Tokyo November 5)
Americans 5–2 All Japan (Yunokawa Grounds, Hakodaté, November 8)
Americans 7–0 All Japan (Yagiyama Grounds Sendai, November 9)
Americans 10–0 All Japan (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo, November 10)
Ruth team 13–2 Miller team, exhibition (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo November 11)
Americans 14–0 All Japan (Jintsu Grounds, Toyama, November 13)
Americans 15–6 All Japan (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo, November 17)
Americans 21–4 All Japan (Yokohama Park Grounds, Yokohama, November 18)
Americans 1–0 All Japan (Shizuoka City Grounds, Shizuoka, November 20)
Americans 6–5 All Japan (Narumi Grounds, Nagoya, November 22)
Americans 6–2 All Japan (Narumi Grounds Nagoya November 23)
Americans 15–3 All Japan (Koshien Grounds, Hyogo, November 24)
Miller team 5–1 Ruth team exhibition (Koshien Grounds, Hyogo, November 25)
Americans 8–1 All Japan (Itatsu Grounds, Kokura, November 26)
Americans 14–1 All Japan (Kyoto City Grounds, Kyoto, November 28)
Americans 23–5 All Japan (Omiya Grounds, Saitama, November 29)
Americans 14–5 All Japan (Utsunomiya Grounds, Tochigi, December 1)

Track and Field

The birth of track and field sports in Japan dates back to the Meiji Restoration in 1868. In the following year, a physical training course was added to the curriculum of middle schools, which consisted of gymnastics introduced by the Dutch. In the meantime, those who returned home to Japan from abroad, much impressed by athletics in foreign countries advocated the introduction of Western athletics. Several foreign teachers were invited to teach athletics as well as English. Running and jumping were taught, but progress was slow. The first Japanese track and field meet was held in Tokyo in 1884, but the first really systematic athletic meet was not held until 1886. At the latter meet, programmes were printed. It was an epoch-making event. Track and field events about 1889 and 1890 were almost the same as they are now. There were the 100, 220, 400, 880 yards, the 100 yard hurdles, cricket ball throw, the three-legged race and so on. As for records, the best was 10.8 seconds for the 100-yard dash and 18 seconds for the 100-yard hurdles. From that time on, progress was gradual until 1912, when Japan took part in the World Olympic Games for the first time. An outline of the progress of Western sports in Japan in subsequent years is given in the first section titled "Japan in the World Olympics."

At the invitation of the Japan Amateur Athletic Federation, the American track and field stars, captained by Glenn Cunningham, the world famous distance runner, visited Japan in September, 1934, for a series of contests against the leading Japanese athletes. They were the first and strongest athletic force ever came to Japan from the United States, and staged one of the biggest track and field events in this country.

The Americans with 14 members, engaged in two dual meets with the selected Japanese team in Tokyo and Osaka, and appeared in five exhibition contests, visiting Nagoya, Dairen, Seoul and Fukuoka. Their visit was successful, contributing much to Japan's athletic circle and also toward the international friendship between the two countries. The Americans won the first dual contest, held on September 8 and 9 in Tokyo, by a score of 84 points to 75, but lost the second meet to Japan by a close 77½ points to 75½ in Osaka a week later, which was an unexpected victory for the local side. Three world and 13 Japanese records were shattered in these dual contests.

Ralph Metcalfe, the ranking dusky American sprinter, covered the 200-metre course in 20.2 seconds, clipping four tenth of a second from his own world mark, both in Tokyo and later in the Dairen meet. Another world record was bettered by a Japanese, Kenkichi Oshima, former Kwansai University ace, who won the hop, step and jump event with a leap of 15.82 metres in the second dual meet in Osaka. The former world record for this event was 15.72 metres held by Chuhei Nambu of Japan, a sensation in the last Olympic Games in Los Angeles.

Members of the American team were: Glenn Cunningham (Kansas University); John Anderson (Cornell University); Robert Clark (Olympic Club); Frank Crowley (Manhattan College); Gorden Dunn (Stanford University); Donald Favor (University of Maine); Phil Good (Bordoin University); Howard Greene (Abilen Christian College); Charles Hornbostel (Indiana University); Walter Marty (Fresno State University); Ralph Metcalfe (Marquette University); Charles Parsons (University of Southern California); Wirt Thompson (Yale University); and Dudley Wilkins (Louisiana State University). Coach—Mr. John Magee, vice-

president of the American Athletic Union.

Winners of the first dual meet were :

Track Events

100-metre dash, Ralph Metcalfe (United States), 10.5 seconds ; 200-metre dash, Metcalfe (United States), 20.2 seconds (new world record) ; 400-metre run, Charles Hornbostel (United States), 49.2 seconds ; 800-metre run, Hornbostel (United States), 1:54.0 minute ; 1,500-metre run, Glenn Cunningham (United States), 4:8.6 minutes ; 5,000-metre run, Ryu Choshun (Japan), 15:41.8 minutes ; 110-metre high hurdles, Phil Good (United States), 14.6 seconds ; 400-metre relay, American team (Clark, Greene, Parsons and Metcalfe), 41.3 seconds ; and Swedish relay, American team (Metcalfe, Parsons, Greene and Hornbostel), 1:57.6 minutes.

Field Events

High jump, Yoshiro Asakuma (Japan), 1.95 metre ; broad jump, Masao Harada (Japan), hop, step and jump, Keinkichi Oshima (Japan), 15.28 metres pole vault, Suyeo Oyé (Japan), 4 metres ; Shot put, Gorden Dunn (United States), 15.-26 metres ; discus throw, Dunn (United States), 47.42 metres ; hammer throw, Isao Abé (Japan), 48.98 metres ; and javelin throw, Saburo Nagao (Japan), 62.07 metres.

Points scored :

United States		Japan
6	800-metre run	4
4	Broad jump	6
7	Discus throw	3
7	100-metre dash	3
3	High jump	7
4	5,000-metre run	6
3	Javelin throw	7
4	400-metre relay	1
7	400-metre run	3
6	Shot put	4
4	Pole vault	6
6	High hurdles	3
4	Hammer throw	6
7	200-metre dash	3
3	Hop, step and jump	7
5	1,500-metre run	5
4	Swedish relay	1
84		75

Winners in the second dual meet were :

Track Events

100-metre dash, Ralph Metcalfe (United States), 10.3 seconds (tied the world record) ; 200-metre dash, Metcalfe (United States), 21.4 seconds ; 400-metre run, Charles Hornbostel (United States), 49.2 seconds ; 800-metre run, Glenn Cunningham (United States), 3:58.4 minutes ; 5,000-metre run, Frank Crowley (United States), 16:8.6 minutes ; 110-metre high hurdles, Tadashi Murakami (Japan), 14.6 seconds ; and Swedish relay, Japanese team (Yoshioka, Taniguchi, Miyanagi and Imai), 1:57.5 minute.

Field Events

High jump, Yoshiro Asakuma (Japan), 2 metres ; broad jump, Masao Harada (Japan), 7.59 metres ; hop, step and jump, Kenkichi Oshima (Japan), 15.82 metres (new world record) ; pole vault, Suyeo Oyé (Japan), 4.20 metres ; shot put, Gorden Dunn (United States), 15.-62 metres ; discus throw, Dunn (United States), 46.43 metres ; hammer throw, Donald Favor (United States), 51.16 metres ; and javelin throw, Saburo Nagao (Japan), 62.98 metres.

Points scored :

United States		Japan
7	100-metre dash	3
6	200-matre dash	4
7	400-metre run	3
7	800-metre run	3
5	1,500-metre run	5
5	5,000-metre run	5
4	High hurdles	6
1	Swedish relay	4
3	High jump	6
4	Broad jump	6
2	Hop, stop and jump	7
3½	Pole vault	6
6	Shot put	4
7	Discus throw	3
5	Hammer throw	5
3	Javelin throw	7
75½		77½

Tennis

Lawn tennis is the Western sport through which the Japanese nation won international recognition for the first time. The game was introduced into this country more than half a century ago, but real tennis, by which is meant the game as played in the West, began only 20 years or so ago. Until then the Japanese played the game with the "soft ball." Even now the Japanese have two sorts of tennis, the hard ball and soft ball. Japan distinguished herself in tennis for the first time in 1915, when Ichiya Kumagai and Seiichiro Kashio represented her in the Far Eastern Games held in Shanghai. Kashio dropped one singles match, but the rest were won by Japan.

Prominence at Antwerp Japanese tennis players figured prominently in the international athletic world in 1920, when the Japanese entrants in the World

Olympic Games at Antwerp won second place. In the following year, the country entered the Davis Cup tournament for the first time and surprised the world by reaching the challenge round, in which, however, the Japanese dropped to the Americans and missed the honours. But this served to win for the country a high place in international tennis. Since then, the Japanese entrants have cut a good figure each year.

The Davis Cup Tournament The following tables show how each year the Japanese players advanced in the Davis Cup tournament in their attempt to win the tennis supremacy of the world :

1921 (Challenge Round)
U.S.A. 5, Japan 0

In the singles matches, Johnston beat Kumagai 6-2, 6-4, 6-2 ; Tilden beat Shimizu 5-7, 4-6, 7-5, 6-2, 6-1 ; Tilden beat Kumagai 9-7, 6-4, 6-1 ; Johnston beat Shimizu 6-3, 5-7, 6-2, 6-4. In the doubles, Williams and Washburn beat Kumagai and Shimizu 6-2, 7-5, 4-6, 7-5.

1923 (Finals, American Zone)
Australia 4, Japan 1

In the singles matches, Anderson beat Shimizu 6-0, 6-3, 6-3 ; Hawks beat Fukuda 6-3, 6-4, 6-3 ; Shimizu beat Hawks 6-4, 3-6, 2-6, 6-1, 6-4 ; Anderson beat Fukuda 6-1, 3-6, 6-2, 6-1. In the doubles, Anderson and Hawks beat Shimizu and Kashio 6-1, 6-2, 6-2.

1924 (Finals, American Zone)
Australia 5, Japan 0

In the singles matches Patterson beat Shimizu 7-5, 11-9, 6-4 ; Wood beat Okamoto 6-4, 2-6, 6-4, 2-6 6-1 ; Patterson beat Okamoto 7-5, 6-1, 6-4 ; Wood beat Shimizu 6-4, 6-4, 6-2. In the doubles, Patterson and Wood beat Okamoto and Harada 7-5, 6-2, 6-4.

1925 (Finals, American Zone)
Australia 4, Japan 1

In the singles matches, Patterson beat Shimizu 6-1, 6-4, 6-2 ; Anderson beat Harada 6-4, 3-6, 6-3, 6-1 ; Harada beat Patterson 6-2, 3-6, 6-1, 7-5 ; Hawks beat Fukuda 6-1, 6-3, 6-0. In the doubles, Patterson and Hawks beat Shimizu and Harada 6-1, 6-2, 9-7.

1926 (Finals, European Zone)
France 3, Japan 2

In the singles matches, Cochet beat Tawara 1-6, 4-6. 7-5 6-3, 6-2 ; Harada beat Lacoste 6-4, 4-6, 6-3, 9-7 ; Lacoste beat Tawara 6-1, 6-3, 6-2 ; Harada beat Cochet 6-1, 6-3, 0-6, 6-4. In the doubles, Cochet and Brugnon beat Harada and Tawara 6-0, 6-0, 6-2.

1927 (Finals, European Zone)
France 5, Japan 0

In the singles, Cochet beat Ohta 6-0, 6-3, 6-2 ; Lacoste beat Harada 6-1, 6-1, 6-2 ; Harada and Ohta scratched the other two matches. In the doubles, Cochet and Brugnon beat Toba and Harada 9-7, 6-1, 6-2.

1928 (Finals, American Zone)
U.S.A. 5, Japan 0

In the singles, Tilden beat Abé 6-2, 6-3, 6-0 ; Hennessey beat Ohta 8-6, 6-3, 6-3 : Cohen beat Abé 7-9, 6-2, 6-4, 7-5 : Tilden beat Ohta 6-8, 6-3, 6-1, 6-0. In the doubles. Tilden and Lott beat Toba and Abé 6-1, 10-8, 6-2.

1929 (Second Round, American Zone)
U.S.A. 4, Japan 1

In the singles matches, Hennessey beat Abé 8-6, 6-1, 3-6, 6-1 ; Ohta beat Van Ryn 6-4, 5-7, 2-6, 6-4, 7-5 ; Van Ryn beat Abé 6-2, 4-6, 6-3, 6-2 ; Hennessey beat Ohta 6-2, 6-2, 6-2. In the doubles, Hennessey and Van Ryn beat Abé and Ohta 6-3, 6-4, 6-2.

1930 (Finals, European Zone)
Italy 3, Japan 2

In the singles matches, de Stefani beat Ohta 6-3, 6-4, 4-6, 6-4 ; Harada beat Morpurgo 6-4, 6-3, 7-5 ; Harada beat de Stefani 6-2, 7-5, 7-5 ; Morpurgo beat Ohta 6-0, 6-0, 6-1. In the doubles, Morpurgo and Gaslini beat Harada and Abé 8-6, 9-7, 6-8, 2-6, 6-1.

1931 (Second Round, European Zone)
Great Britain 5, Japan 0

In the singles matches, Perry beat Jiro Sato 6-1, 4-6, 7-5, 7-5 ; Austin beat Hyotaro Sato 0-6, 6-2, 6-4, 6-1 ; Austin beat Kawaji 6-1, 0-6, 8-6, 6-2 ; Perry beat Hyotaro Sato 6-2, 6-3, 4-6, 6-2. In the doubles, Hughes and Perry beat Jiro Sato and Kawaji 6-4, 6-4, 8-6.

1932 (Semi-finals, European Zone)
Italy 3, Japan 2

Kuwabara beat Palmieri 6-0, 6-2, 1-6, 6-3 ; de Stefani beat Jiro Sato 6-3, 6-4, 6-4 ; Palmieri beat Jiro Sato 4-6, 4-6, 6-1, 6-2 ; de Stefani beat Kuwabara 6-2, 6-2, 6-4. In the doubles, Jiro Sato and Miki beat Palmieri and Sertario 6-4, 6-4, 6-3.

1933 (Semi-finals, European Zone)
Australia 3, Japan 2

Jack Crawford beat Ryosuké Nunoi 6-2, 4-6, 6-3, 4-6, 7-5 ; Vivian MacGrath beat Jiro Sato 9-7, 1-6, 4-6, 6-4, 7-5 ; Jiro Sato beat Crawford 3-6, 6-3, 6-1, 1-6, 6-2 ; Nunoi beat MacGrath 6-4,

6-4, 6-8, 7-5. In the doubles Adrian Quist and Crawford beat Sato and Nunoi 7-5, 7-9, 6-3, 3-6 and 6-3.

1934 (Second round of European Zone)
Australia, 4 Japan 1

Jack Crawford beat Jiro Fujikura, 6-3, 6-3, 11-9, Vivian McGrath beat Jiro Yamagishi, 2-6, 7-5, 6-2, 6-4. Fujikura beat McGrath, 6-4, 5-7, 6-2, 8-6. Oswald Turnbull beat Yamagishi, 6-4, 7-5, 9-7.

In the doubles, Crawford and Adrian Quist beat Yamagishi and Hideo Nishimura, 6-1, 6-0, 4-6, 9-7.

1935 (Second round of European Zone)
Czechoslovakia 4, Japan 1

In the singles matches, Roderick Menzel beat Hideo Nishimura, 6-3, 6-2, 8-6; Josef Zaska beat Jiro Yamagishi, 6-1, 8-6, 6-3; Zaska beat Nishimura, 6-2, 6-3, 6-8, 6-2; and Yamagishi beat Ladislau Hecht, 6-4, 6-1, 6-3.

In the doubles, Menzel and Josef Malacek beat Nishimura and Yamagishi, 2-6, 6-2, 6-1, 6-1. All matches were played at Prague on June 6, 7 and 8.

In 1936 Japan did not take part due to poor material and lack of fund for sending players to Europe.

1937(First round of American Zone)
U.S.A. 5, Japan 0

In the singles matches, Donald Budge beat Fumiteru Nakano, 6-1, 6-1, 6-0; Frank Parker beat Jiro Yamagishi, 6-1, 2-6, 8-6, 6-1; Parker beat Nakano, 6-0, 6-3, 6-2; and Budge beat Yamagishi, 6-2, 6-2, 6-4.

In the doubles, Budge and Jene Mako beat Yamagishi and Nakano, 6-0, 6-1, 6-4.

Tennis Ranking in Japan Rankings are decided by a committee of the Japan Lawn Tennis Association on the basis of the results of matches played in Japan. It happens, therefore, that Davis Cup players who have had no chance to play in Japan, are barred from the ranking list. A new list is announced usually each January.

The ranking list for 1936 and 1937 follows :

Men's Singles

1936	1937
1. Jiro Yamagishi (Keio U.)	1. Jiro Yamagishi (Keio U.)
2. Shunsuke Hirai (Keio U.)	2. Akimasa Miura (Waseda U.)
3. Yasumine Kuramitsu (Kwansai U.)	3. Shunsuke Hirai (Keio U.)
4. Jiro Fujikura (Meiji U.)	4. Yasumine Kuramitsu (Kwansai U.)
5. Masatomo Tsukada (Meiji U.)	5. Fumiteru Nakano (Hosei U.)
6. Fumiteru Nakano (Hosei U.)	6. Katsumi Matsuoka (Keio U.)
7. Akimasa Miura (Waseda U.)	7. Sakuzo Hasegawa (Senshu U.)
8. Makio Murakami (Kyoto Imperial U.)	8. Shinroku Hayashi(Tokyo Imperial U.)
9. Katsumi Matsuoka (Keio U.)	9. Junzo Kinoshita (Kwansei Gakuin)
10. Junzo Kinoshita (Kwansei Gakuin)	10. Shojiro Tatsuta (Kwansai Gakuin)
11. Hyotaro Sato (Tokyo L.T.C.)	11. Masatomo Tsukada (Meiji U.)
12. Shiroku Hayashi (Tokyo Imperial U.)	12. Mitsuo Kawamura (Kwansei Gakuin)
13. Shizuo Fujii (Kwansai U.)	13. Tamio Abe (Tomon Club)
14. Reizo Murakami (Keio U.)	14. Shizuo Fujii (Kwansai U.)
15. Hajime Ebisu (Kajimaya)	15. Yasuji Kiyosu (Kwansei Gakuin)
16. Koichiro Niiya(Kobe Commercial U.)	16. Reizo Murakami (Keio U.)
17. Masayuki Iyoda (Rikkyo U.)	17. Tatsuo Hisano(Eighth Higher School)
18. Masao Tanaka (Kyoto Imperial U.)	18. Masutaro Nakamura (Keio U.)
19. Reishiro Hattori (Waseda U.)	19. Taisuke Yokota (Tokyo Imperial U.)
20. Tatsuo Hisano (Eighth Higher School)	20. Tomigoro Fujita (Waseda U.)

Men's Doubles

1. Jiro Yamagishi-Reizo Murakimi (Keio U.)	1. Jiro Yamagishi-Reizo Murakami (Keio U.)
2. Tamio Abe-Minoru Kawaji (Tomon Club)	2. Masuo Uehora-Haruo Horigoshi (Kwansai U.)
3. Jiro Fujikura-Masatomo Tsukuda (Meiji U.)	3. Shunsaku Hirai-Reizo Murakami (Keio U.)
4. Jin Tsuda-Akimasa Miura (Waseda U.)	4. Junzo Kinoshita-Yasuji Kiyosu (Kwansai Gakuin)
5. Shizuo Fujii-Yasumine Kuramitsu (Kwansai U.)	5. Shizuo Fuji-Yasumine Kuramitsu (Kwansai U.)

1936	1937
6. Masayoshi Takahashi-Reizo Murakami (Keio U.)	6. Shinroku Hayashi-Yoshio Takahashi (Tokyo Imperial U.)
7. Shinroku Hayashi-Naosuku Okubo (Tokyo Imperial U.)	7. Keiji Tanako-Tomigoro Fujita (Waseda U.)
8. Mitsuo Kawamura-Yasuji Kiyosu (Kwansai Gakuin)	8. Mitsuo Kawamura-Shunji Ikushima (Kwansei Gakuin)
9. Masao Tanaka-Makio Murakami (Kyoto Imperial U.)	9. Masatomo Tsukada-Koyata Nishioka (Meiji U.)
10. Keiji Tanaka-Tomigoro Fujita (Waseda U.)	10. Akimasa Miura-Reijiro Hattori (Waseda U.)

Women's Singles

1. Mrs. Tokuko Nakano (Tokyo L.T.C.)	1. Miss Sadayo Toda (Osaka)
2. Miss Sanae Okada (Denen Club)	2. Miss Toyoko Kimata (Osaka)
3. Miss Reiko Takiguchi (Poplar Club)	3. Miss Hisako Yamagishi (Denen Club)
4. Miss Toyoko Kimata (Osaka)	4. Miss Kumiko Sasakura (Poplar Club)
5. Miss Hisako Yamagishi (Denen Club)	5. Miss Hisako Takiguchi (Osaka)
6. Miss Michiko Harada (M.L.)	6. Miss Shizuyo Narukawa (Nagoya)
7. Mrs. Naoko Matsudaira (Green Club)	7. Miss Michiko Harada (M.L.)
8. Miss Kumi Sasakura (Poplar Club)	8. Miss Kiyoko Enotani (Osaka)
9. Miss Hisako Ikeguchi (Osaka)	9. Mrs. Naoko Matsudaira (Green Club)
10. Miss Mitsuko Iida (Osaka)	10. Miss Mitsuko Iida (Osaka)

Women's Doubles

1. Miss Sanae Okada-Miss Hisako Yamagishi	1. Miss Kumiko Sasakura-Miss Michiko Harada
2. Mrs. Naoko Matsudaira-Miss Michiko Harada.	2. Mrs. Naoko Matsudaira-Miss Hisako Yamagishi
3. Miss Mikiko Kamiyama-Miss Hisako Takeuchi.	3. Miss Shizuyo Takigawa-Miss Mikiko Nakamura
4. Miss Sadayo Toguchi-Miss Katsuko Tomikawa.	4. Mrs. Ewing-Miss Kiyoko Enotani
5. Miss Reiko Takiguchi-Miss Kumi Sasakura.	5. Miss Hisako Takiguchi-Miss Mitsuko Iida

The following are the results of the important tennis matches played in 1936 :

15th annual national open championships (Waseda courts, Tokyo, October 28—November 8)

Singles : semi-finals

Jiro Yamagishi (Keio) beat Fumiteru Nakano (Hosei), 6-2, 7-5, 6-3.

Akimasa Miura (Waseda) beat Yasumine Kuramitsu (Kwansai U.), 7-5, 6-2, 3-6, 6-2.

Finals

Yamagishi beat Miura, 6-4, 3-6, 6-0, 4-6, 7-5.

Doubles : semi-finals

Yamagishi and Murakami (Keio) beat Tanaka and Fujita (Waseda), 6-3, 6-4, 7-5.

Abé and Kawaji (Tomon Club) beat Uehara and Horigoshi (Kwansai), 6-1, 4-6, 6-3, 6-3.

Finals

Yamagishi and Murakami beat Abé and Kawaji, 14-12, 6-2, 6-2.

8th annual national student championships (Koshien courts, Osaka, August 24—September 2)

Singles : semi-finals

Sakuzo Hasegawa(Senshu) beat Junzo Kinoshita (Kwansei Gakuin), 0-6, 3-6, 6-0, 6-2, 7-5.

Akimasa Miura (Waseda) beat Katsumi Matsuoka (Keio), 6-3, 6-1, 6-3.

Finals

Miura beat Hasegawa, 3-6, 6-2, 6-2, 6-4.

Doubles : semi-finals

Hirai and Murakami (Keio) beat Tanaka and Fujita (Waseda), 6-2, 6-4, 6-1.

Kinoshita and Kiyosu (Kwansei Gakuin) beat Hayashi and Takahashi (Tokyo Imperial), 1-6, 6-2, 6-3, 6-1.

Finals

Hirai and Murakami beat Kinoshita and Kiyosu, 6-2, 1-6, 6-2, 3-6, 7-5.

13th annual national women's championships (Koshien courts, Osaka, November 11—14)

Singles : semi-finals

Miss Toyoko Kimata beat Mrs. Shizuko Narukawa, 6-3, 6-4.

Miss Sadayo Toda beat Mrs. Ewing, 6-2, 5-7, 6-3.

Finals

Miss Toda beat Miss Kimata, 6-1, 6-1.

Doubles : semi-finals

Miss Yamagishi and Mrs. Matsudaira beat Mrs. Ewing and Miss Fictor, 6-3, 5-7, 6-2.

Miss Harada and Miss Sasakura beat Mrs. Narukawa and Miss Nakamura, 6-4, 4-6, 6-1.

Finals

Miss Harada and Miss Sasakura beat Miss Yamagishi and Mrs. Matsudaira, 4-6, 6-4, 6-3.

The following list shows the winners in the annual National Tennis Championship tournament which takes place either in Tokyo or Osaka in November every year :

	Singles	Doubles
1922	Masanosuké Fukuda	Tamio Abé and Ryuzo Kawazuma
1923	Takaichi Harada	Tamio Abé and Ryuzo Kawazuma
1924	Tsumio Tawara	Iwao Aoki and Taku Ukegawa
1925	Tsumio Tawara	Tamio Abé and Kyo Kawajiri
1926	Yoshio Ota	Hisataka Aizawa and Kengo Asoo
1927	Tamio Abé	Tamio Abé and Masanosuké Fukuda
1928	Hajimé Makino	Seiichi Yamagishi and Hikoshichi Shimura
1929	Takeichi Harada	Ichiya Kumagai and Takechi Harada
1930	Jiro Sato	Seiichi Yamagishi and Hikoshichi Shimura
1931	Takao Kuwabara	Seiichi Yamagishi and Yasuo Murakami
1932	Ryosuké Nunoi	Jiro Sato and Minoru Kawaji
1933	Hideo Nishimura	Hideo Nishimura and Jiro Yamagishi
1934	Jiro Yamagishi	Hideo Nishimura and Jiro Yamagishi
1935	Jiro Yamagishi	Hideo Nishimura and Jiro Yamagishi
1936	Jiro Yamagishi	Jiro Yamagishi and Reizo Murakami

Swimming

Swimming is one of Japan's major sports that has been handed down from time immemorial. Surrounded on all sides by the sea, the people of the Island Empire had easy access to water. It was but natural that the people became adept in swimming, and swimming masters turned out several distinct styles of swimming, some of which more or less resembled the Western crawl of the present day. Swimming in ancient Japan was a serious subject of study, especially for the fishermen and warriors, to whom swimming was more a practical necessity than a healthful diversion.

The Western crawl was introduced into Japan about 1910. Since then the Japanese have not only copied but developed it into a more perfect stroke. The result was the remarkable showing made by the Japanese mermen at the Tenth Olympiad in Los Angeles in 1932.

As a partial explanation of the swimming ability of the Japanese, it is said that the race is particularly fitted for prowess in swimming. A modern physician once said that the Japanese show better development than other peoples in the muscles in the upper part of the lower limbs that bind them with the lower part of the trunk. It is noted in this connection that clever use of the lower limbs, which depend on the muscles in the upper limbs, plays an important part in swimming.

The second Japan - American dual swimming meet was held on August 17, 18 and 19, 1935, at the Meiji Shrine pool, Tokyo, ending in the former's victory by a close score of 36 points to 27. Climaxing three days of thrilling competition which held capacity crowds spellbound during the meet, the Japanese aces proved their supremacy and marked themselves as foremost contenders for the Olympic water crown at Berlin next summer.

The meet was close throughout. Before the final day, the score stood 22 to 20 in favour of Japan. All predictions pointed to the final relay as the deciding event. But in the 200-metre back stroke, Taylor Drysdale of the United States who finished first, was

disqualified for what the judges considered an illegal turn at the 100-metre mark, giving Eiichi Yoshida of Japan first place and the meet to Japan before the concluding event. Japan won seven events out of 12 held. Two world and three Japanese records were bettered during the meet.

Winners were :

200-metre breast stroke : Reizo Koike (Japan), 2:42.6 minutes (new Japanese record).

200-metre free style : Masanori Yusa (Japan), 2:13.2.

1,500-metre free style : Sunao Ishiharada (Japan), 19:12.0

300-metre medley relay : American team (Drysdale, Kasley and Fick), 3:20.2.

100-metre back stroke : Taylor Drysdale (U. S.), 1:10.2.

100-metre breast stroke : Reizo Koike (Japan), 1:13.6 (new Japanese record).

400-metre freestyle : Jack Medica (U. S.), 4:45.2 (new world record).

400 - metre relay : American team (Chrostowski, Lindegren, Wolf and Fick), 3:53.8.

800-metre free style : Hiroshi Negami (Japan), 10:02.4.

100-metre free style : Peter Fick (U. S.), 57.2.

200-metre back stroke : Kiichi Yoshida (Japan), 2:35.6 (new Japanese record).

800-metre relay : Japanese team (Yusa, Ishiharada, Makino and Negami), 8:52.2 (new world record)

Points scored :

Japan		U. S.
5	200-metre breast stroke	1
3	200-metre free style	3
6	1,500-metre free style	0
0	300-metre medley relay	3
1	100-metre back stroke	5
4	100-metre breast stroke	2
3	400-metre free style	3
0	400-metre relay	3
4	800-metre free style	2
3	100-metre free style	3
4	200-metre back stroke	2
3	800-metre relay	0
36		27

Members of the American team were : Coach, Robert Kiphuth ; Jack Higging, Russell Branch and Matt Chrostowski of the Olneyville Boys Club, Providence, Rhode Island : Peter Fick of the New York Athletic Club ; Paul Wolf and Art Lindegren of the Los Angeles Athletic Club ; Dan Zehr of Northwestern University, Illinois ; Jack Kesley, of Michigan ; John Macionis of Yale University ; Jack Medica of the Washington Athletic Club ; Ralph Flanagan of the Greater Miami Athletic Club ; and James Gilhula, Taylor Drysdale, Ray Kaye of the Detroit Athletic Club.

The combined 1936 national swimming championships and the final Olympic tryout was held on May 29, 30 and 31 at the Meiji Shrine pool, Tokyo. Only one national women's record was bettered during the meet due to poor weather condition, rainy on the last two days.

Winners were :

Men's Events

100-metre free style, Masanori Yusa (Nihon U.), 57.8 seconds.

200-metre free style, Shoji Taguchi (Rikkyo U.), 2:14.0 minutes.

400-metre free style, Shumpei Uto (Rikkyo U.), 4:54.4 minutes.

1,500-metre free style, Shumpei Uto (Rikkyo U.), 19:45.6 minutes.

100-metre back stroke, Yasuhiko Kojima (Keio U.), 1:10.2 minute.

200-metre breast stroke, Tetsuo Hamuro (Nihon U.), 2:43.4 minutes.

Spring-board diving, Tsuneo Shibahara. (Nihon U.), 146.06 points.

High diving, Tsuneo Shibahara (Nihon U.), 101.92 points.

Women's Events

100-metre free style, Miss Tsuneko Furuta (Shizuoka), 1:14.2 minute.

400-metre free style, Miss Hatsuko Morioka (Osaka), 5:58.4 minutes.

100-metre back stroke, Miss Yuriko Izumi (Kyoto), 1:29.0 minute.

200-metre breast stroke, Miss Hideko Maehata (Nagoya), 3:05.4 minutes.

Spring-board diving, Miss Fusako Kono (Tokyo), 74.76 points.

High diving, Miss Reiko Osawa (Tokyo), 35.50 points.

Wrestling (Sumo)

Japan's traditional wrestling, known in Japanese as sumo, is another ancient sport of Japan. It is recorded in ancient history that Nomi-no Sukuné and Taéma-no Kehaya wrestled before the Emperor Suinin. In feudal times each lord had under him the strongest wrestler of the province, and he made it a custom to arrange a match with the wrestler of another lord. Such being the case, the wrestler who was strong and won for his lord many laurels enjoyed warm patronage. Public estimation of wrestlers in those days was unusually high. During the Tokugawa era, which extended for nearly 300 years

before the Meiji Restoration (1868), a wrestling tournament was organized, and in January and May of each year the best wrestlers of the Kwanto district (Eastern Japan) gathered for it at Ryogoku, Yédo (present Tokyo). Rankings were decided on the basis of the showing made at the tournaments, and the wrestlers exhibited great enthusiasm in their matches. This custom remains even to this day.

Until late in the Meiji Era (1868–1912), Japan had two major wrestling organizations, one in Tokyo and the other in Osaka, but later they merged into one organization. At the end of 1931, however, the Japan Wrestling Association had internal trouble. To be more precise, many wrestlers became dissatisfied with the traditional system of distribution of profits because the retired wrestlers, who acted as officials of the association, took the major part, virtually disregarding the wrestlers on the actives list. The trouble divided the wrestlers into three separate groups. In addition to the one which remains in the association, there were the Shinko and Kakushin groups. The latter two groups adopted new rules for wrestling. Of the two the Kakushin group headed by Tenryu and located in Osaka has survived outside of the traditional group in Tokyo.

The semi-annual tournaments of the Japan Wrestling Association are held at the Kokugi-kan amphitheatre at Ryogoku, Tokyo, in January and May. Each tournament lasts for 11 days, The wrestlers are all professionals, and the majority of them have unsually well-developed bodies. Victory in a typical Japanese wrestling match is a matter of a minute or two. Very often it is a matter of a few seconds. The wrestler who forces his opponent to fall or even let any part of the body above the knee touch the ground or to jump out of the ring is declared by the umpire to be the winner. It is said that there are 48 different ways of defeating an opponent. Wrestling is also practised widely in schools, as are jujitsu and fencing.

The list of principal sumo wrestlers, in May, 1937, follows :

In the order of seniority in the East camp, Tamanishiki (Yokozuna or Grand Champion) ; Musashiyama (Haridashi-Yokozuna, or No. 2 Grand Champion) ; Futabayama (Ozeki, or Champion) ; Daikyuzan (Sekiwake, or Champion No. 2) ; Tamanoumi (Komusubi, or Champion No. 3).

In the order of seniority in the West camp, Minanogawa (Yokozuna, or Grand Champion) ; Shimizugawa (Ozeki, or Champion) ; Kagamiiwa (Haridashi-Ozeki, or Champion No. 2) ; Asahigawa (Sekiwake, or Champion No.3).

Jujitsu (Judo)

Jujitsu, more popularly known as judo, is more a military art than a sport. In olden times, this art of self-defence was widely practised among the warriors, to whom it came next to kenjutsu, or fencing, in importance. One essential difference between wrestling and jujitsu is in the use of strength. The wrestler as a rule throws down his opponent by his own strength, but the jujitsu expert uses little of his own strength, rather taking advantage of the weight and strength of his opponent in hurling him to the floor. Action is unusually swift, and a good expert of jujitsu can easily dispose of a dozen non-jujitsumen in a fight.

This manly art of self-defence was developed to its present popularity and prosperity chiefly by Prof. Jigoro Kano, promoter of the Kodokan style of jujitsu and head of the Kodokan, the leading jujitsu training gymnasium in Japan. Since he established the Kodokan in 1886, he has turned out thousands of experts, and these experts in turn have popularized the art throughout the length and breadth of the land. After the Russo-Japanese War, jujitsu became popular in foreign countries, where Japanese instructors were invited to teach it. Some foreign writers became enthusiastic over the art, which they said embodied the sprit of the Japanese race, and even went the length of declaring that to it the Japanese owed in large measure their brilliant victory in the Russo-Japanese War, the first war in which an Oriental nation defeated a major Western Power.

At present jujitsu is practised in all middle schools and other higher schools in Japan for its value in physical and mental culture. Many schools have teams, and as with baseball and tennis these teams have seasonal clashes. Private clubs and training halls are found in all cities of Japan. Experts receive degrees from the Kodokan.

The list of Japan's outstanding jujitsu experts of the Kodokan includes Nagaoka and Isogai, both holders of Kudan, the highest rank Iizuka, Samura, Tabata and Mifuné, all holders of hachidan, a rank next to the highest.

Kendo (Japanese Fencing)

Together with Judo, the study of Kendo was carried on among the Samurai and several hundred forms of fencing

were propagated throughout the country. At the present time, there are about 30,000 people who are taking up this sport, if we include those in the middle schools, colleges, universities, and in private life. This sport is to hold the sword with both hands and to stike the face, forearm, or torso of the adversary.

Boxing

Boxing is a Western sport which has earned phenomenal popularity in Japan during the past few years. Earlier, interest was quite negligible. The rapidity with which boxing has become popular in this country owes much to American motion pictures, which introduced it. The hero who gives the villain a black eye and finally knocks him down caught the fancy of the Japanese people, and films recording the major bouts of the past decade, including the famous Dempsy-Tunney fight, also went a long way toward creating interest in boxing here.

Boxing clubs are to be found in all leading cities of Japan. In Tokyo there are about 20 professional clubs which from time to time arrange bouts for the public. There are, of course, champions, both professional and amateur. Foreign boxers are invited to fight Japanese pugilists. Intercollegiate boxing bouts are as popular as professional bouts and draw a heavy attendance, often several thousand men and women. It is only during the past few years, however, that boxing has paid its way.

Records show that boxing was first introduced to Japan by foreign sailors in the early years of the Meiji Era (1868–1912) at Yokohama, where they landed and held a few bouts among themselves. It is also recorded that a foreign sailor had a dispute with a Japanese samurai on the street and knocked him down in the clash which followed. The first boxing club in Japan was organized in 1910 by Mr. Kenji Kano. In about 1920, American motion pictures introduced to Japan many scenes in which boxing was employed. In the meantime, Mr. Yujiro Watanabé, trained by the noted negro fighter, Turner, returned to Japan and established a club of his own to train many youths in the pugilistic game.

Japanese boxers participated in the World Olympic Games for the first time in 1928 at Amsterdam. Of the two entrants, one lost the first tussle, but Kintaro Usuda, a welterweight, won two bouts before losing in the quarter-finals. In the Tenth Olympiad, held at Los Angeles, the Japanese boxers made an insignificant showing, not one winning a single bout. In 1931, the All-Japan Professional Boxing Association was organized to control professional boxing.

The second national boxing championship tournament was held for eight days, beginning December 20, 1935, under the joint auspices of the Japan Professional Boxing Federation and the Tokyo Nichi-Nichi Shimbun. The final bouts were staged at the Kokugikan wrestling bowl, Ryogoku, on January 6, 1936, resulting in only two champions defending their title successfully.

More than 150 boxers, mostly from Tokyo, Nagoya, Kobé, Osaka and Seoul, took part. The championships were contested in five different divisions—flyweight, bantamweight, lightweight and welterweight. The participants were divided into two classes, A and B. 30 leading fighters who appeared as favourites for championship honours were seeded in A class, and all others were included in B class. The New York Commission rules were applied to the tournament.

Results of the final round, a 10-round bout each, were as follows :

Flyweight : Yoichiro Hanada (Imperial Club) defeated Isamu Ito (Imperial Club) on points.

Bantamweight : Umio Gen (Imperial Club) defeated Shoichi Otsu (Kyokuto Club) on points.

Featherweight : Sanekatsu Koike (Dai-Nippon) Knoked out Goro Takatsu (Olympic Club) in the ninth round.

Lightweight : Ichiro Mitsuyama (Imperial) won a technical Knockout over Kotaro Suzuki (Imperial), in the seventh.

Welterweight : Yoshio Natori (Tokyo) defeated Riichi Sato (Toho) on points.

Challenge bouts for three championships, flyweight, bantamweight and featherweight, over 12 rounds each, were held on September 14, 1936, and March 7, 1937, in Tokyo, and were resulted as follows :

Bantamweight—Shoichi Otsu (Kyokuto Club), 116 pounds, challenger, captured the title by outpointing Umio Gen (Imperial Club), 118 pounds, the champion.

Flyweight—Handa (Imperial Club), 111 pounds, defended his title by winning a decision over Hajime Sakamoto (Tokyo Club), 108 pounds.

Featherweight—Umio Gen (Imperial Club), 124 pounds, won the title by outpointing the defender Sanekatsu Koike (Dai-Nihon Club), 126 pounds.

The final tryout to select five members of the Japanese Olympic boxing team was held on April 8 at the Hibiya Public Hall, participated by those who

were qualified in the four districts eliminations, Kwanto, Kwansai, Chubu and Korea.

Winners were :

Flyweight : Chiyondo Nakano (Senshu U., Kwanto) defeated Teichu Kin (Korea) on points.

Bantamweight : Shumpei Hashioka (Kwanto) defeated Hikomasa Tajima (Kwansai) on points.

Featherweight : Sajiro Miyama (Chubu) defeated Katsuo Kameoka (Kwanto) on points.

Lightweight: Eikichi Nagamatsu (Meiji U., Kwanto) defeated Ryutoku Sai (Korea) on points.

Welterweight : Keikan Ri (Korea) knocked out Yasuo Nakada (Kwansai) in the second round.

Football

Rugby Imported from England, this winter sport has gained much popularity during the past decade. The leading universities in Tokyo have a league, and their matches draw large crowds. Japan and Canada have exchanged teams during the last few years. The all-Japan team which invaded Canada left a very impressive record, winning several matches and losing none.

Soccer Soccer is also fast gaining popularity here. The Football Association was organized in September, 1921, in Tokyo, and since then an annual national championship game has been held.

Results of the Kwanto Inter-Vasity Rugby League, 1936 were as follows :

	Waseda	Meiji	Keio	Rikkyo	Hosei	Shodai	Imperial	Won
Waseda	×	1	1	1	1	1	1	6
Meiji	0	×	1	1	1	1	1	5
Keio	0	0	×	1	1	1	1	4
Rikkyo	0	0	0	×	1	1	1	3
Hosei	0	0	0	0	×	1	1	2
Shodai	0	0	0	0	0	×	1	1
Imperial	0	0	0	0	0	0	×	0
Lost	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	

Waseda won the championship

The deciding match for the national collegiate title between Waseda, the Kwanto champion, and Doshisha, winner of the Kwansai League, ended in a victory of the former by a close score of 9 points to 8. Waseda scored three tries while Doshisha made one try and a goal. The match was played at the Hanazono stadium, Kyoto, on January 4, 1937.

The 1936 season was fortunate with the visit of the New Zealand universities team which gave execellent performance both in Osaka and Tokyo, winning six matches and drawing one. This was the first time the Japanese college team met such a strong team as New Zealanders and learned much of tactics and kicking. Their matches were witnessed by a large crowd everywhere they played, averaging 10,000 spectators.

The results of the matches were :

Jan. 26, won over the All-Kwansai, 31 points to 3 ; Jan. 30, won over Keio, 23 to 6 ; Feb. 2, won over Meiji, 13 to 11 ; Feb. 6, won over Waseda, 22 to 17 ; Feb. 9, won over the Japanese all-star students, 16 to 9 ; Feb. 11, won over the All-Kwansai students, 23 to 8 ; and Feb. 16, drew with the Japanese all-star students, 9 to 9.

Members of the team :

Mr. P. Martin-Smith, manager and coach ; G. A. Parsons (captain), R. G. Bush, G. G. Rae, C. C. Gillies, E. Grant, F. J. Wilson, W. R. Laney, H. R. C. Wilde, H. H. Fookes, J. D. Lewis, D. O. Hudson, R. J. Thomas, W. Tricklebank, J. M. Watt, S. G. Eade, O. W. Chapman, J. P. McVeagh, J. J. McAuliffe, B. U. A. Jones, R. B. Burke, S. W. Simmers, L. S. Drake, I. O. Stance and E. K. Chesterman.

The team arrived in Kobe on January 23, 1936, at the invitation of the Japan Rugby Football Union and left for home on February 17, sailing from Nagasaki on the Kitano Maru.

The Tokyo Collegiate Soccer League, formed in 1923, now boasts of 33 members which are divided into six divisions. Results of the first class matches of the League in 1936 were as follows :

	Waseda	Keio	Bunri	Imperial	Shodai	Nodai	Won	draw
Waseda	×	1	1	1	0	1	4	0
Keio	0	×	d	1	1	1	3	1
Bunri	0	d	×	0	1	1	2	1
Imperial	0	0	1	×	1	0	2	0
Shodai	1	0	0	0	×	1	2	0
Nodai	0	0	0	1	0	×	1	0
Lost	1	1	2	3	3	4		

d indicates draw
Waseda won the pennant

Waseda defeated the Kobe Shodai, the Kwansai champion, by 3 goals to 2, to win the national collegiate title for the fifth consecutive times. The match took place at the Koshien stadium, Osaka, on December 13, 1936.

Rowing

This is one of the Western sports introduced to Japan early in the Meiji Era. The Tokyo Imperial University took it up first. Japan's rowing team did not fare well at the Tenth Olympic Games at Los Angeles. Lack of training and poor physical power were blamed for the defeat. The leading universities have races on the Sumida River each year.

The 16th annual Kwanto inter-college rowing championship meet was held on the Ogu course on River Ara, Tokyo, on September 12 and 13, with 16 entrants. Results were :

Four-oared shell championship (2,000 metres)—Won by the Nihon University crew in 6 minutes 56.4 seconds, beating the Tokyo University of Commerce team by 17 seconds.

Eight-oared shell championship (2000 metres)—Won by the Tokyo University of Commerce team in 6 minutes 31 seconds, beating the Meiji University eight by one length and a quarter.

The 9th annual Japan open rowing championships were held on River Seta, Otsu, Shiga prefecture, near Kyoto, on September 23, 1936. Resuts were :

Four-oared shell championship (2,000 metres)—Won by the Nihon University in 6 minutes, 33 seconds, beating the Osaka Imperial University crew by 16 seconds.

Eight-oared shell championship (2,000 metres)—Won by the Tokyo University of Commerce eight in 5 minutes, 24 seconds, beating the Third Higher School of Kyoto by 15 seconds.

Prior to its participation in the Berlin Olympic regatta, the Japanese Olympic crew, Tokyo Imperial University eight, caused a sensation in England when it defeated the Thames Rowing Club by a length and half in the finals of the Marlow Grand Challenge Cup race, held on the 1,540-yard course on River Thames on June 20, 1936. The Japanese crew's winning time was 4 minutes 9 seconds, a new course record. It eliminated the Cambridge Varsity crew by three-quarters of a length in the semi-finals on the same day. It was the first rowing victory by Japanese oarsmen abroad.

Later, the Tokyo Imperial University crew took part in the Henley Regatta, started on July 1, and lost to the Zurich crew in the semi-finals on July 3. The Japanese eight lose to Zurich by 6 lengths. Members of the Tokyo Imperial crew were :

Position	Names	Age	Height	Weight
Cox	Tadashi Kirishima	23	5.1 feet	96 pounds
Stroke	Tadashi Negishi	23	5.6	129
7	Katsu Kashiwabara	21	5.6	137
6	Mondo Sekigawa	22	5.9	160
5	Isamu Mita	22	5.9	140
4	Osamu Kitamura	23	5.6	143
3	Haruyoshi Nakagawa	23	5.7	143
2	Takeo Hori	22	5.6	132
Bow	Yoshiteru Suzuki	24	5.5	130

Average height	5.6 feet
Average weight	134 pounds
Coach	Mr. Shuhei Seta

Horsemanship

Japan's horsemanship won international recognition at the Tenth Olympiad at Los Angeles when Lieutenant Baron Takeichi Nishi, of the Japanese Army, won the Prix des Nations and had the flag of the Rising Sun hoisted. Horsemanship was widely practised by the warriors of the feudal period as a military art. The Japanese army attaches importance to horsemanship and takes great pains in training officers and men. Horsemanship is also gaining popularity among college students and even women. There are at present about 15 clubs in large cities, and many universities and colleges have their own riding societies. Horse racing regained popularity with the use of pari-mutual tickets under strict restrictions in 1923. The Government encourages racing by granting aids. There are more than a score of race clubs throughout the country, most of the races being held semi-annually, that is in the spring and autumn.

Golf

Once a pastime of the wealthy, golf is beginning to become popular with the opening of public courses. Clubs are to be found in practically all large cities and their environs. A group of Japanese golfers visited the United States in 1932 and participated in national and State tournaments. Although they failed to win any title, they made impressive records. The list of golf links follow :

Name	System	Number of Courses	Prefecture
Tama	Club	18	Tokyo
Komazawa	Public	18	"
Akabané	Club	9	,,
Fujigawa	,,	18	Chiba
Mutsumi	,,	18	,,
Abiko	Club	18	,,
Kashiwa	Public	9	,,
Takanodai	Club	18	,,
Sagami	,,	18	Kanagawa
Fujisawa	,,	18	,,
Fujisawa Merry Golf	Club(ladies)	9	,,
Hodogaya	Club	18	,,
Sengoku-hara	Public	9	,,
Asaka	Club	18	Saitama
Kasumigaseki	,,	38	,,
Kawaguchi	Public	9	,,
Kawana Ohsima course	,,	18	Shizuoka
Fuji course	Club	18	,,
Karuizawa	,,	18	Nagano
,,	Public	9	,,
Ibaragi	Club	18	Osaka
Inagawa	,,	18	,,
Hirono	Semi-public	18	Hyogo
Takarazuka	Club	18	,,
Beppu	Semi-public	9	Oita
Unzen	,,	18	Nagasaki
Nagoya	Club	18	Aichi
Zenibako	Club	9	Hokkaido
Hakodaté	,,	6	,,
Tsukisappu	,,	9	,,
Doyako	Public	6	,,
Asahigawa	Club	6	,,
Muroran	,,	6	,,

The following list shows the winners in the annual National Open Golf Championship tournament :

1927	Rokuro Akaboshi
1928	Rokuzo Asami
1929	Tomekichi Miyamoto
1930	Tomekichi Miyamoto
1931	Rokuzo Asami
1932	Tomekichi Miyamoto
1933	Kamekichi Nakamura
1934	Abandoned by storm
1935	Tomekichi Miyamoto

National Amateur Championship tournament

1921	Zenzaburo Tanaka
1922	Komei Otani
1923	Abandoned by the great earthquake
1924	Hajime Kawasaki
1925	Hajime Kawasaki
1926	Shiro Akaboshi
1927	Shunkichi Nomura
1928	Shiro Akaboshi
1929	Brown
1930	Rokuro Akaboshi
1931	Kyoichi Nitta
1932	Kihei Narimiya
1933	Naoyasu Nabeshima
1934	Naoyasu Nabeshima
1935	Naoyasu Nabeshima
1936	Giichi Sato
1936	Tomekichi Miyamoto
1927	Seisui Chin

Chin (Musashino Country Club, Tokyo) defeated Rokuzo Asami (Hodogaya Country Club, Kanagawa) by seven strokes in the 1937 tournament which was played on the Sagami course, Kanagawa prefecture, for three days beginning June 3. Chin's aggregate score was 284 (69, 77, 68, 70). 84 players took part in the contest.

(National Amateur)
1927 Giichi Sato

The 30th national amateur championship tournament was held for three days, commencing on May 12, on the Hirono course, near Kobe.

Semi-finals

Naoyasu Nabeshima beat Kihei Narimiya, 5 and 4.

Giichi Sato beat Tamajiro Matsuyama, 4 and 3.

Finals

Sato beat Nabeshima, 6 and 4, thus defending his title successfully.

National Professional Championship tournament

1931	Rokuzo Asami
1932	Montess
1933	Montess
1934	Tomekichi Miyamoto
1935	Toichiro Toda
(National professional)	
1936	Tomekichi Miyamoto

Miyamoto beat Jiro Morioka (Naruo Country Club, Osaka) in the final by 4 and 3 on the Wago course near Nagoya on September 17.

Skiing and Skating

Introduced here only a decade or so ago, skiing has become extremely popular. Japan abounds in good grounds in the northern districts, which accounts for the rapid strides skiing has made. Numerous women are taking to it of recent years. In 1929, Hannes Schneider, prominent Austrian skiier, visited Japan and exhibited his technique at various skiing slopes at Akakura, Myoko, etc., making a great impression among Japan's ski lovers.

Skating is an older game than skiing in this country. As a sport for the general public, an exhibition was first given about 1907 on Lake Suwa, in Nagano prefecture. The All-Japan Skating Championship Meet for speed skating, figure skating and ice hockey is held there yearly. At Nikko, a rink of tremendous size was laid in the winter of 1932 to permit the public to enjoy the pastime. In 1934, Japan invited Miss Bruger, the figure skater and the Canadian Ice Hockey Team. She sent 11 skiiers, 7 speed skaters, 3 figure skaters, 15 ice hockey players, and 13 officials who all participated actively in the 11th Olympiad at Gürmisch. A list of important ski grounds follows :

Name	Prefecture
(Joetsu line)	
Akagiyama	Gumma
Iwano-hara	,,
Mizukami	,,
Uzawa-onsen	Niigata
Ojiya	,,
Doai	,,
(Shin-etsu line)	
Kusatsu	Gumma
Kazawa	,,
Sugadaira	Nagano
Kanbayashi	,,
Hoppo	,,
Kumanoyu	,,
Iiyama	,,
Nozawa	,,
Akakura	,,
Ikenodaira	,,
Seki	Niigata
Tsubamé-onsen	,,
(Chuo line)	
Kirigamine	Nagano
(Hokuriku line)	
Foot of Tateyama	Toyama
Unazuki	,,
(Nikko line)	
Nikko	Tochigi
Senjoga-hara	,,
(Ban-etsu line)	
Numajiri	Fukushima
(Oh-u line)	
Goshiki-onsen	Yamagata
Ohwani-onsen	Aomori
(Tohoku line)	
Za-osan	Miyagi
(Rikuu line)	
Naruko-onsen	Miyagi
(Tokaido line)	
Foot of Mt. Fuji	Shizuoka
Ibukiyama	Shiga
Rokko	Hyogo
(Hokkaido line)	
Aoyama	Hokkaido
Ezofuji	,,
Sankakuyama(Sapporo)	,,
Teiné (Sapporo)	,,
Midorigaoka (Otaru)	,,
Foot of Tokachidaké	,,
(Karafuto line)	
Toyohara	Karafuto
Asahidaké	,,
Ohdomari	,,
Ochiai	,,
Maoka	,,

ALPINE SKII GROUNDS

Shirouma	Nagano
Norikura	,,
Kamikochi	,,

Most of skii grounds have shanze, and such grounds as have complete equipments are as follows:

Akagi, Sankakuyama, Nozawa, Iiyama, Numajiri and Toyohara

Other Sports

Basketball Basketball is very popular not only among boys but girls in secondary and higher schools. The Meiji University basketball team invaded the United States in the winter of 1932 and 1933, but it made an insignificant showing.

At the joint invitation of the Japan Basketball Association and the Hochi Shimbun, an American all-star basketball squad of eight men headed by Mr. Clarence Anderson, assistant basketball coach of the University of Southern California, arrived in Yokohama May 5, 1935. The Americans stayed in this country for a month during which they played eight games and one exhibition match with the leading Japanese teams, winning all. Their visit benefited the basketball cirle of Japan a great deal, mastering American's excellent tactics in both defence and charge.

Results of the games were :

Americans 33-25 Tokyo Imperial University team (Tokyo) ; Americans 38-23 Japan's pick-up student team (Tokyo) ; Americans 34-14 All Japan (Tokyo) ; Americans 36-23 All Japan (Osaka) ; Americans 64-32 Kyoto Imperial University team (Kyoto) ; Americans 22-15 All Japan (Tokyo) ; Americans 52-24 All Japan (Tokyo) ; and Americans 74-29 All Niigata (Niigata).

Members of the American team were :

William Pierce (U.S.C.), Richard Linthicum (University of California), Donald Piper (U.C.), George Brotlemarkle (U.C.), Kenneth Fagans (Oregon State College), George Curtner (University of Pittsburgh), Duane Swanson (University of Iowa) and Victor Larkin (U.C.).

Volley-ball This sport came to Japan with basketball and is now quite popular among school girls. National championship games are held annually.

Hockey Hockey is more or less a novelty in Japan. It was in November, 1920, that the first national tournament was held, when the Waseda University team captured the honours. At the Tenth Olympiad at Los Angeles, the Japanese team beat the United States squad and finished second behind the Indians.

American Football The American football game was introduced by the picked Japanese student team (formed mostly with the American-born Japanese boys, studying in Tokyo) and the Y. C. and A. C. eleven (foreigners' athletic club in Yokohama) on the Thanksgiving Day, November 29, 1934, at the Meiji Shrine stadium. The game ended in a victory of the Japanese students who shut out the foreigners 26 to 0. The Tokyo Collegiate American Football League was formed among Meiji, Waseda, Rikkyo, Hosei and Keio in December of the some year.

In March, 1935, the Asahi Shimbun invited 35 leading football players from the United States, selected from several universities in the Pacific Coast, who gave a series of exhibition games in Tokyo, Osaka, Nagoya and Fukuoka. The American football players were led by Mr. Albert L. Maloney star quarterback of the University of Southern California eleven.

Tokyo Collegiate American Football League

1934	Waseda
1935	Meiji
1936	Waseda

Waseda and Meiji tied for first place with three wins and one defeat, and the former defeated Meiji in the pennant deciding game by 7 to 0.

Twenty selected players from the Waseda and Meiji teams, toured Hawaii and the United States for a short period in December, 1936, and January, 1937. They played only two games and resulted as follows :

Southern California all-star high school squad beat the Japanese team by 19 to 6.

Japanese team drew with the Roosevelt High School of Honolulu, 0-0.

Wrestling Wrestling in Japan has not shown sufficient progress but this country has sent representatives to both the Olympiad in Paris and Los Angeles and they have left excellent records. In 1934, with the establishment of the Japan Amateur Wrestling Association, this sport has been taken up by many universities and Japan sent 2 wrestlers in the bantam weight, 3 in the feather weight, 2 in the light weight, 1 in the welter weight, and one substitute each for the bantam and the welter weight respectively to the 12th Olympiad in Berlin.

Fencing This sport is still in the elementary stage in Japan. With Hosei University taking the lead, teams have been formed in other universities and women fencers are increasing in number.

CHAPTER XXXVII

AMUSEMENTS AND CALENDAR OF ANNUAL EVENTS

Amusements

The Drama

Japan has a drama all her own. The popular stage is the "kabuki", essentially a product of past ages, which, with its enchanting beauty and gorgeous colour, often captivates the fancy of foreign visitors. The kabuki drama is not old as age goes in Japan. It sprang spontaneously from the people, the tradesmen, the artisans and others who were excluded from the pleasures enjoyed by the aristocrats and samurai in olden days; but its forbears may be recognized in the stage art of Japan prior to its birth.

The Origin The religious dance that was the precursor of drama goes back through centuries to the mythological age of the gods, when the great Sun Goddess, offended by her brother, retired to a deep cavern, casting the world into darkness. After trying in vain to entice her from her retreat, the other gods finally hit upon the scheme of flashing a metal mirror into the cave and of jumping and shrieking before its mouth, whereupon the Sun Goddess came forth, the mouth of the cave was sealed, light was restored to the world and the dance was added to civilization.

For centuries the dance remained, as in other countries, a religious rite, being performed in Shinto shrines by virgins. With the incoming of Chinese culture Chinese music came into favour and was introduced into the Imperial Court. At the time of the establishment of the first Shogunate, that at Kamakura in the 13th century, the Buddhist semi-dances and semi-drama made a great appeal to the warrior class, and from them was evolved the "no" drama, in which both actor and playwright are subservient to interpretation. The No is a combination of music, posturing and dialogue, severely bound by conventions, with but little action, appealing to the ear and intellect rather than to the eye. The No found warm patronage among the warriors and feudal lords, continuing to hold its own with them until the Meiji Restoration, when it was identified with the then unpopular Shogunate and suffered a decline which has only recently been mitigated.

But the common people had no part in either the religious or the No dances, not even appearing as spectators. These were the exclusive prerogative of the upper classes.

Popular Stage Appears It was during the early part of the long Tokugawa Shogunate that the popular stage in Japan came to birth, flowered and bore fruit. An era of peace was ushered in, and the Empire began to prosper in a material way. Not only the kabuki, but the ukiyoyé, or woodblock colour print, and other genre date from this period. The people had leisure, money and the inclination for pleasure. It was but natural that forms for providing that pleasure should follow.

The germs of the popular drama may be found in society prior to this period, but they had not attained much development. About 370 years before, one of the Shinto shrine dancers, O-Kuni, performed on a public street in the capital city of Kyoto, after which she wandered from place to place for the entertainment of the people. Others followed her lead, until the government decreed that thereafter only men might give public entertainments, owing to the moral laxity which had ensued. The name kabuki was first applied to this pioneer form of dancing. Although the Chinese ideographs forming the word mean literally "singing and dancing art," Japanese scholars say that its true derivation is from an obsolete Japanese verb meaning "to be playful."

The Kabuki The early kabuki actors were social outcasts, or kawara-mono (river-bed folks), but as the aristocracy learned of the new art and its charms they secretly slipped away from their palaces and homes to enjoy it. Gradually, as in other nations, the moral and social level of the stage was raised, until today there is no more social prejudice against the actor in Japan than in America or Europe. The late Emperor Meiji's attendance of a performance by a troupe of kabuki actors at the home of the late Marquis K. Inouyé improved

their status immeasurably.

The introduction of the samisen, or three-stringed guitar, into Japan from the Loochoo Islands constitutes another high-water mark for the drama, for in time the musical compositions for the No were adapted to this instrument of the streets, and there followed the puppet show, which has survived to this day. These marionette theatres called to their aid some of the best talent in the country, musicians, playwrights and puppet manipulators collaborating in the work. The kabuki emerged from the street dancing and the puppet show and yet as a separate and distinct art of a high order.

The kabuki is found to embrace four general classifications : historical dramas, plays of everyday life, fantastic, imaginative improvisations, and music-posture plays or dances. It is often difficult, however, to assign any particular drama to one of these four classifications, for the play with historical characters may also be a play dealing with their very human emotions.

The Technique The drama is primarily a picture for the eye, although dialogue is carried on and an orchestra-chorus seated on the stage plays very much the same rôle as was played by the chorus in classical Greek drama, aiding the action with explanations to the audience. The life and thought, costumes and manners of all classes of feudal society are well illustrated on the kabuki stage, while skilful colour combinations in costumes, stage architecture and furniture tend to carry the spectators into a land of imagination and romance. In dramatic ability it takes rank with that of any country. In stage settings and mechanics it has much to teach the rest of the world. Its gorgeousness of costuming and pageantry finds no equal. One of the features of the Japanese theatre is the hana michi, or flowery way, which usually consists of two long narrow platforms on the same level which stretch through the audience from the stage to the rear of the auditorium. They are chosen by the actors for their best entrances and exists and are extremely effective when processions are used.

The Kabuki Actors The profession of kabuki actors is in most cases hereditary. Sons of actors succeed their fathers in the profession, and actors without sons usually adopt the sons of other actors or their best disciples and give them the stage names of their families. Kikugoro Onoyé, one of the most accomplished actors, is the sixth Kikugoro Onoyé, while the late Danjuro Ichikawa represented the ninth generation of the Ichikawa family. Kabuki actors are trained from childhood and because of the difficult conventions to which they must conform few men can become actors after the age of 20.

In kabuki proper, all rôles are taken by men. The onnagata, or woman impersonators, devote years of study to femininity, and in most cases they are more consistently feminine than women.

In comparison with screen actors, kabuki actors are very well paid. Though the matter of salaries is kept a strict secret, it is well known that a high-class kabuki actor is given more than ¥10,000 a month, but in cinema circles very few actors obtain as much as ¥1,000. Stage actors are also held in much higher esteem by the general public than screen actors. They still live and work according to the family system. A high-class actor has a troupe, all the members of which are his disciples. Only the head of the troupe receives wages directly from the theatre, and he in turn divides the money among his disciples. Other feudal customs also survive among them.

Tokyo is the dramatic centre of the country. Practically all first-class kabuki actors live here, though there are a few in Osaka. They travel all over the country from time to time. The more noted ones in Tokyo are Utayemon Nakamura, Uzayemon Ichimura, Kikugora Onoyé, Sadanji Ichikawa, Koshiro Matsumoto, Kichiyemon Nakamura, Sojuro Sawamura, Ennosuké Ichikawa and Mitsugoro Bando. The noted Osaka actors include Enjaku Jitsukawa, Fukusuké Nakamura and Kaisha Nakamura.

On the business side, kabuki is controlled entirely by a single commercial organization, the Shochiku Theatrical Company. This company not only has all the first-class actors under contract but owns or leases all of the principal playhouses throughout the country. The largest and most famous theatre is the Kabuki Theatre, commonly known as the Kabuki-za, situated back of the Ginza, Tokyo. Other well-known theatres in the capital are the Tokyo Theatre, Meiji-za, Shin Kabuki-za and Shimbashi Embujo. The Imperial Theatre, which once earned fame as a modern playhouse, has been converted into a cinema house. Osaka has the Naka-za and Naniwa-za, where Kabuki programmes are given practically throughout the year. The theatres change programmes once a month, and very sel-

dom, if ever, are long runs given, no matter how popular a particular programme may prove, although the pieces which prove popular are repeated from time to time as long as they hold public interest.

The Typical Programme A typical kabuki programme has three to five offerings of different types and lasts six hours, beginning at 4 o'clock in the afternoon and ending at 10 o'clock. The majority of the spectators take dinner in restaurants in the theatre during intervals. Tickets cost from 50 sen to as much as ¥7 or ¥8 a seat. All the playhouses are of Western style, at least inside, with chairs provided. Seats may be reserved 10 days in advance.

It is wrong to assume that Japanese actors specialize in producing classics alone. From time to time they insert modern plays between those of bygone generations on the programmes. In the past they have even staged plays from Shakespeare with marked success. Some actors specialize in modern plays, such as Masao Inouyé, Takeo Kawai, Rokuro Kitamura and they appear with actresses, such as Yayeko Mizutani, as the latter are essential for the realistic type of plays, plays which are true to life and without the incongruity and exaggeration which characterize the kabuki.

A "little theatre" movement in Japan was started about 15 years ago, led by the late Kaoru Osanai, prominent dramatist and stage director. The group which performed at the Tsukiji Little Theatre, Tokyo, produced hundreds of Western plays in Japanese translation, but their performances aroused the interest of only a limited section of the intellectuals. The unexpected death of Mr. Osanai and the business depression that followed dealt a crushing blow to the movement and the company split up into small and unimportant groups.

The Revue The revue, a product of the West, is quite in vogue at present in Japan. Imported only a few years ago, it appealed to modern-minded youth, and several revue organizations sprang up. The largest troupe is that of the Shochiku Theatrical Company, with several hundred girls. Another influential organization is the Takarazuka Girls' Opera Troupe, with headquarters at Takarazuka, a hot-spring resort between Osaka and Kobé. It enjoys the distinction of being the oldest in Japan, having been organized nearly two decades ago. The performances of the latter group include operas and revues and are generally more refined than those of the Shochiku Troupe, and they find warm patronage among young girls. Costumes and scenery in the revues are both Japanese and foreign. The Shochiku group gives occasional performances in Tokyo and Osaka, and the Takarazuka organization set up a new Tokyo Takarazuka Theatre in 1933 at Hibiya, Tokyo.

The Odori Differing entirely from this type of foreign-style performances is the "odori", or Japanese dance, as given by the geisha, the native dancing girls. Kyoto, the ancient capital, boasts the best organization, which gives the "Miyako Odori" each April, better known to foreigners as the Cherry Dance of Kyoto. In Tokyo, the "Azuma Odori" (dance of eastern capital) is given at cherry-blossom time by the geisha of the Shimbashi district of the city, who also perform in the autumn, always in their own theatre, the Shimbashi Embujo, which is of Western style. Geisha dances can be enjoyed at private parties at any time of the year.

No Drama

The No drama was as aristocratic as the kabuki drama was plebeian, and even now its performance and enjoyment are practically restricted to the upper classes. There are very few theatres or private houses, if any, where strangers are allowed to view No upon payment of admission. Most No enthusiasts form clubs, and members and their friends see the productions. In feudal Japan, the No was the principal form of entertainment among the aristocrats and the warrior class. It was often given in the presence of the Emperor, and at one time it was the custom to invite the common people to performances given in commemoration of some happy event by the Tokugawa Shoguns, who used the No on all ceremonial occasions.

The Origin and Stage The origin of the No dates back to the early part of the 15th century. Two men, Kiyotsugu Kan-nami and his son, Motokiyo Séami, revolutionized the "Saru-gaku", an ancient form of dance, consisting of juggling feats and comic remarks with actions to suit, with the result that the No in its present form was developed. Not only did these two men build on what was best in their own saru-gaku, but they drew freely from the "dengaku", ancient music, which had much in common with the saru-gaku. What was graceful in them was ennobled to profundity in the No, while their comic elements developed into the "kyogen", comic performances, usually given on the same programme with No pieces.

Unlike any other form of drama, the No is performed on a wooden stage of regulation size, built above the ground, 18 feet square, open on three sides, with a narrow extension on one side for the singers and another at the back of the stage for the musicians and attendants. To that rear extension is attached aslant a passage called a bridge. The players appear from under the curtain, to one end of which the passage slightly slopes down. The stage, too, is very slightly tilted to the front.

The No pieces, numbering more than 250, are repeated over and over again, but the interest of the spectators apparently never wanes. The pieces are classified into five groups for convenience: (1) "wakino", which generally deal with Shinto or Buddhist deities; (2) "shuramono", which commonly deal with ghosts of warriors; (3) "kazuramono", with noble ladies acting the main parts; (4) "genzaimono", or present-day pieces, dealing with various manifestations of human nature; (5) pieces dealing with demons or goblins as subjects, or those of congratulatory nature with gay and joyous elements.

For each programme of the No, which generally lasts a good part of a day, one from each of the above five classes is given in the order mentioned, with a "kyogen" between each and generally a dance in ordinary dress in addition. The whole programme is preceded by a piece called "okina", which is held in special reverence; the person acting its chief character is the okina, an old man.

The Construction The construction of the No piece is by no means uniform, but very often it is as follows: A "waki," who plays the secondary rôle, generally a monk or a Minister of State, first appears and tells who he is. Then he walks about the stage a while, singing, to suggest that he is travelling. Coming to a standstill, he announces his arrival at a certain famous spot and takes his place by the post at the front righthand corner facing the stage. Then the "mayé jité" (shité), the principal character in the first appearance, comes in the form of a farmer, fisherman or priest, describing the scenery of the place and telling of heroes connected with it, or relating the origin of the temple or shrine as the case may require, thus furnishing the audience with a necessary background to the play. The "mayé jité" then suddenly retires from view. He was in reality a Shinto or Buddhist deity, or the ghost of a warrior, in disguise. While the "waki" is startled by this sudden disappearance, there come on the stage common farmers or wood-choppers who give in plain language, spoken more or less in the ordinary way, all detailed information concerning the place, generally reiterating what has alreary been chanted or intoned by the "mayé jité," and then retire. This allows necessary time for the principal character to change for his reappearance, While waiting, the "waki sings," indicating a lapse of time. The song ended, the "nochi jité," the principal character in the latter appearance, in proper form and attire as a Shinto or Buddhist deity or the spirit of a hero, comes to the stage and dances as though wandering at night, revealing some spiritual attributes. In words and in action he recounts his bravery, his death struggle, or his suffering in the underworld, asking for the prayer of the "waki" for the peaceful repose of his soul. The "shité" tells his story as he performs, or he merely dances without any chanting. Generally there is a chorus who intone some verses either alone or with the performers. In the No drama, the action is symbolic, stately and ennobling.

Generally several persons sitting on the side extension sing either in chorus, by themselves, or together with the performer. On the rear extension there are usually four musicians who play on the "fué" or flute, the tsuzumi, which is a small drum struck with the tips of the fingers and resting on the shoulder, the ohkawa, a slightly larger drum struck on the knee also with the tips of the fingers, and the drum beaten with two sticks.

The accessories used on the stage in connection with the play are very simple. A fan is much in evidence in the dance, the studied use of which is very effective with the manipulation of the dancer's big sleeves. The costumes used in the No are marvels of textile fabrics, refined taste being revealed in bold yet harmonious designs and colours. Above all, the mask to be worn by the principal character and the assistant is a very important part of the No performance. There have been great masters among carvers of No masks in his feudal Japan many of whose works still remain.

Six Schools. Ever since the great reformation at the beginning of the 15th century, the No has had four main acknowledged schools or houses: Kwanzé, Komparu, Hosho and Kongo, all of which are still thriving. Later, another school, Kita, won official recognition, while still another, Umekawa, also has

many followers, the variation practiced by each school being but slight. On the whole, the No performance may well be compared to a masterful Oriental picture in monochrome, both being guided by highly idealistic aims and artistic aspirations with many points in common, possessing alike great impelling qualities that thrill the devotee but sometimes weary the uninitiated.

The Doll Theatre and Joruri

Japan's doll theatre, the precursor of the kabuki drama, has suffered so much decadence that now the Bunraku-za in Osaka is the only doll troupe of its kind in the country. The plays are kabuki in miniature. Each doll, slightly smaller than life-size, is held by a manipulator on the stage and made to act. The manipulators, who appear in ceremonial robes, put life and spirit into the wooden figures, and they have world fame for their dexterity.

The "joruri (Gidayu)", a dramatic recitation, is not only inseparable from the doll show, but enhances its effect. The joruri reciter usually sits on a raised platform at the right corner of the stage and there sings and recites to the accompaniment of the samisen, the player of which sits beside him. Not seldom several reciters and samisen players perform in unison, the reciters speaking their lines for the dolls. Both manipulators and singers are trained from childhood. The joruri recital often accompanies the kabuki performance. The joruri or Gidayu is also sometimes recited independently of the doll show or the kabuki.

Yosé, or Story-Telling

Professional story-telling is a distinct Japanese art, which, defying the advent of the movies, still survives in Tokyo and elsewhere. When there were no movies, story-telling was one of the few common forms of amusement. The houses where the story-tellers perform are called yosé, and are a sort of variety hall, where singing, juggling, dancing and other entertainments are offered in addition to story-telling.

Today a score of story-tellers' halls can still be found in Tokyo. Unlike theatres for the drama and the cinema, they are usually Japanese-style frame houses, with quite modest advertisements covering their fronts. Inside, a yosé consists of one large mat-floored room, with a small mat-floored stage attached. All the guests sit on cushions spread on the matting, and the performers sit on the matting of the stage. Usually the house has a balcony with more expensive seats.

The majority of the story-tellers, who are called hanashika, specialize in comic monologue. Those who specialize in stories of heroism and adventure are called koshakushi, or romance readers, and regarded as of a different class. The hanashika use a lot of punning, irony and sarcasm, and each story has a twist at the end. Translated into English, their talk loses almost all meaning, for it is the manner of telling that is important.

Cha-no-Yu

Japanese people drink tea during and after each meal and it is customary to serve a cup of tea to callers at any time of the day. Cha-no-yu or tea-ceremony is, however, a peculiarly artistic way of serving tea as an entertainment for guests according to strictly-formulated rules of etiquette. A fine powder of choice green tea is used for it. The powdered tea is put in a bowl much larger than an ordinary tea cup and hot water is poured over it, and the mixture is beaten by means of a bamboo whisk. A party of guests are invited to enjoy this drink. They assemble in the "yoritsuki," a special waiting room for the tea party. The host appears and conducts them to the tea-room. They walk along a garden path to the tea-room, which is about 20 feet away. At a basin filled with fresh water they wash their hands before entering the tea-room. This is usually four and a half mats in area, about three metres square, and is provided with a stationary hearth or portable firebrazier for the kettle. The entrance to the tea-room is so small that the guests have to stoop to enter.

On entering the room each guest kneels in front of the tokonoma or alcove, and admires the kakemono or hanging picture or inscription on the wall of the alcove, and the tiny incense-holder on a side shelf. Then a meal is served as soon as the guests are properly seated. It is called "kaiseki" and is of the simplest dishes. The host waits on them himself not eating with the guests. After the "kaiseki" sweets are served, the first part of the ceremony is concluded.

Then at the host's suggestion the guests retire to the waiting-room or to another place where a bench is provided. A gong announces that the host is ready to serve the tea above mentioned. The formality of purification at the basin is repeated and the guests enter the room. The hanging scroll is gone and a flower arranged in a

vase is in the alcove. The receptacles for fresh water and the tea-caddy are placed in position before the host enters with the tea-bowl. The tea-whisk, tea-cloth and teaspoon are also brought in. The host retires once more to the adjoining room but soon reappears, this time with the receptacle for waste water, the dipper and a stand for the cover of the kettle or the dipper. All these articles are valued treasures which the host is proud of, and the guests are supposed to pass compliments on them in a proper way.

The host puts three spoonfuls of powdered tea in the bowl, then he puts the dipper deep into the kettle and takes it out brimful of hot water. About one-third of the hot water is poured over the tea-powder in the bowl, two-thirds being returned to the kettle. The mixture is vigorously stirred or beaten with the bamboo whisk until it becomes frothy. The host places the bowl of tea thus prepared in front of the principal guest. The guest makes a bow to his fellow-guest and puts the bowl on the palm of his left hand. Supporting one side of the bowl with the right hand he takes one sip, complimenting the host on the excellent flavour, right consistency and so on. After he has taken two or more sips the bowl is passed on to the second guest, thence to the third, and so on until all have partaken. When the bowl comes to the last one, he takes it to the principal guest who then returns it to the host. Then the chief articles of cha-no-yu, the bowl, caddy and spoon, are inspected and their workmanship admired by the guests, and when they are finally returned to the host in the prescribed fashion the cha-no-yu entertainment is over. When the party breaks up and the guests are gone the serious-minded host returns to the tea-room and sits alone in front of the kettle which is now his sole companion and listens to the sound of the boiling water. The whole procedure will take about four hours.

In Japan, tea had been used for centuries, the tea plant growing wild in the western islands. The earliest written record of tea drinking, which is called "Okugi-sho", tells of a tea-party given by the Emperor Shōmu in 729 A.D. to one hundred Buddhist monks. At that time an Imperial gift of tea was made, as a precious drug, to the monks. The use of tea as a common drink seems to have begun with the Age of the Emperor Kammu, when, in 805, the monk Saicho brought seeds of the tea-plant back from China, where he had spent some years in the study of Buddhism; and the cultivation of tea-plants gradually spread over the provinces west of Shizuoka.

Cha-no-yu or tea-ceremony began with Shukō in 1483. In the north-eastern end of Kyoto there is the famous villa where Yoshimasa, 8th Shogun of the Ashikaga line, indulged in æsthetic pursuits. The historic tea-room built as specified by Shukō, father of the tea ceremony, is still preserved in sound condition in the villa which is called Ginkakuji, better known to foreign tourists as the Silver Pavilion.

The principles of tea-ceremony taught by Shukō were more concretely set forth by Jōwō (1503–1555), and then his mantle fell on Sen-no-Soyeki (1521–1591) who is better known by his court name, Rikyū, granted through the influence of his patron Hideyoshi Toyotomi. The formula and etiquette instituted by Rikyū still remain the basic practices as taught by the various schools of cha-no-yu that have sprung up since his death in 1591. Many utensils bearing the stamp of his genius have come down to the present day, and those who lay out tea-rooms and gardens still adhere to the canons left by him. There are many schools of tea-ceremony represented by various tea-masters, but one is little different from another in their essentials. Harmony prevails, therefore, when persons of different schools meet at a cha-no-yu party.

Cha-no-yu was a pastime for warlords, monks and courtiers, but now it is enjoyed by all classes of people and taught to young ladies in schools and by private tutors as one of the best means for training them in Japanese etiquette, because it enables them to cultivate poise, grace, tranquillity and urbanity, all qualities making for refinement in manners.

The power to find true beauty in simplicity and enjoy peace and satisfaction of mind in a life of small means may be considered a racial trait of the Japanese as it is seen in the Japanese cult of Shintoism. Social conditions in Japan in the 15th century and Buddhist philosophy, especially that of the Zen sect, which had been introduced from the neighbouring continental countries, prepared the Japanese mind for instituting such a ceremony as cha-no-yu in unison with this racial trait. The love of chaste and refined simplicity which is the keynote of the Japanese cult of ceremonial tea has exercised a wholesome influence upon architecture, pottery, and landscape gardening. Especially the ceramic art of Japan is great-

ly indebted to tea-masters and devotees for its high taste.

Flower Arrangement

Japanese flower arrangement is the art of arranging flowers and leaves in different kinds of vases so as to meet the requirements of Japanese taste in decorating their sitting rooms and parlours. The raison d'être of this Japanese floral art is the satisfaction of their instinctive love of naure by a scheme of decoration best fitted for Japanese interval architecture. The beginning and development of Japanese flower arrangement, therefore naturally corresponds to the history of Japanese architecture and way of living.

The Japanese style of architecture which had completely emerged from the Chinese influence in the 14th century, and the comparatively peaceful life of the people in the 14th century under the Ashikaga régime, prepared favourable conditions for the development of flower arrangement which played an important part in enriching the tasteful life of the upper classes of people such as Court nobles, warrior lords and monks.

The Ginkakuji Temple or Silver Pavilion, which was built in the latter half of the 15th century, in the outskirts of Kyoto, is said to have been the birthplace of Japanese flower arrangement as an art, as well as that of the tea ceremony. The Ashikaga Shogun Yoshimasa who lived at the Ginkakuji had several attendants, "chabōzu" or "tea-priests" who looked after the tea ceremony and flower arrangement for him. Among these attendants of Yoshimasa the one who was best versed in the art of flower arrangement was Sōami. One of the oldest documents on the floral art "Gojō Shikimoku" is attributed to his authorship, and it is most likely that the primitive flower arrangement which had been already in vogue took a definite shape with Sōami and schools of the art began to be established. After Sōami came Ikenobō priest of a temple called Rokkakudo, also located in Kyoto, who later so distinguished himself as priest and master of flower arrangement that he became the founder of the priesthood at Rokkakudō and the school of floral art, both bearing his name. The Ikenobō school of floral art has existed for more than four hundred years and is proud of having the longest tradition and probably the largest number of students throughout the country.

During the 17th century the Emperor Gomizunowo took great interest in the floral art and courtiers, nobles and high officials gathered together at court for the study and occasional exhibitions of flower arrangement. A hall was provided in the court for the tea ceremony to which guests were invited and an exhibition of flowers arranged in vases by different hands was often held for them in a building which was temporarily built for that purpose in the palace garden. Such exhibitions of flower arrangement were held frequently during the following centuries.

There have developed many schools of flower arrangement in Japan during the past four centuries, but they may be roughly grouped into two; one is the "rikkwa" group which is more formal in style and the other is the "nageiré" group which is more natural. The former was in the past regarded as the orthodox style whereas the latter was considered heretic or auxiliary. But to-day both styles have equal standing among the students of the art, each having characteristic merits and uses of its own.

In Japan girls are taught the floral art in schools and under private tutors as one of the accomplishments for ladies and carefully keep their certificates of the art in the "tansu" or Japanese chest-of-drawers for keeping kimono, one of the indispensable pieces of furniture which they take to their new home at their wedding. Japanese ladies find occasions for escaping from their household duties and chatting with their friends in attending flower arrangement parties, for as a rule they rarely go out for picnics or to dances. Men, young and old, occasionally take up the study of the floral art, and though they are much fewer in number than the other sex they occupy the position of leadership in almost all schools of the art. It is no longer a monopoly of the aristocracy, and visitors to Japanese homes are charmed with the sight of flowers and leaves artificially yet most naturally arranged in vases put on the "tokonoma" or alcove shelves. On festival days passers-by are entertained by exhibitions of flowers most skilfully arranged and set in rows in the front rooms of houses facing the street. Modern department stores attract customers with special flower arrangement exhibitions.

The Cinema

Cinema theatres are to be found in all parts of Japan, both in cities or hamlets, accommodating from 400 to 3,000 persons. In 1934, there were 1,458 permanent cinema houses and 78,497

temporary ones. In 1933 the total attendance at these movie houses was 225,266,000, including 54,901,000 children. They are equipped and managed very much after the manner of theatres in the West, and in architecture, especially in the large cities, they follow the American style. The pictures shown in them are Japanese, American and European.

Home and Imported Films According to the report of the Police Bureau, Home Ministry, the number of new films inspected by the Bureau in 1934 was 4,385 with an aggregate length of 4,005,736 metres.

HOME AND IMPORTED FILMS INSPECTED in 1934

	No. of New films	Aggregate Length (In metres)	Length of Cuts
Japanese films	3,247	2,821,438	6,351
American films	937	947,897	10,128
European films	201	236,401	3,118
Total	4,385	4,005,736	19,598

The largest and most influential motion picture producing and distributing companies in Japan are the Shochiku Cinematograph Company, Ltd., Shinko Eiga Company, Ltd., and Japan Motion Picture Company, Ltd., the last being better known as Nikkatsu for short. Shochiku manages or supplies with pictures about 600 theatres, or nearly half of the total in Japan, and all the rest are either managed or supplied with pictures by the other two and by foreign, especially American, companies. Japanese pictures in general are produced by distributing companies.

Characteristics of Japanese Pictures The substance of Japanese pictures is varied. The recent tendency favours a serious view of life, and audiences are more impressed by what is implied than by what is expressed. The Japanese people are fond of tragedy. With few exceptions, pictures without tears cannot be expected to prove financial successes. Especially the women, who constitute 50 per cent of the spectators, feel disappointed if they have not shed tears over a tragic scene. Influenced by American pictures, comedies have come to be appreciated, but to satisfy the audience they must have at least 30 per cent of tragic elements.

Talkies In talking pictures, Japan is much behind Western countries. Shochiku produces two a month, but the other companies combined turn out only one or two a year.

Practically all imported films are talkies. Their introduction presented language difficulties, for few Japanese understand English when spoken. As a solution, most of the American pictures now exhibited are so-called super-imposed prints, which flash a Japanese translation of the English dialogue in a corner of each scene. This has proved highly satisfactory to native audiences and has rendered unnecessary the benshi, or interpreters, who are required for silent films, in the theatres which specialize in foreign talking pictures.

Radio

Introduced in 1925, the radio has become one of the two most popular means of amusement in Japan, the other being the cinema. In August, 1936 more than 2,643,000 families in Japan proper had already become radio subscribers which means that one home in every 5 has a receiving set. Programmes broadcasted by the 25 broadcasting stations scattered throughout the country are diverse, including weather reports, market reports, news and lectures. Entertainment is naturally the most popular.

Complex Programmes. It is said that Japanese radio programmes are more complex than those anywhere else in the world. Japan does not have a single and uniform culture; the old and the modern exist side by side, the indigenous and the foreign. Programmes, in consequence, must be arranged to meet divergent tastes, though ingenuity is sometimes taxed to satisfy everyone daily. The principal cleavage is in music. Japanese music, both instrumental and vocal, has developed in many varieties through many centuries. Just as in foreign countries different listeners have preferences for classical songs, or violin solos, or orchestral music, or popular songs, or dance music, or chamber music, so in Japan there are preferences for particular kinds of Japanese music. On the other hand, the music introduced from Europe and America is fast becoming popular. Young people who understand it generally prefer Western music, and old people, who do not understand it, would rather hear the music they have known since childhood. The ideal programme, therefore, must combine them. If 30 minutes are given to music by the New Symphony Orchestra of Tokyo, 30 minutes must also be given to music that is purely Japanese. Statistics show that station JOAK in Tokyo broadcast a total of 227 items from April to December, 1933, classified as: orchestral music,

56; vocal solos and chorus, 50; brass music, 30; chamber music, 13; violin solos, 9; piano solos, 20; jazz music, 9; foreign and Japanese music combined, 15; 'cello music, 3; flute solos, 3; pipe organ music, 2; guitar solos, 1; trumpet solo, 1; trombone solo, 1; xylophone solo, 1; and opera, 5.

Japanese Entertainment Purely Japanese entertainment is very varied. It includes singing of all kinds, from the nagauta, kiyomoto, naniwa-bushi and tokiwazu to all sorts of folk-songs, radio drama, story-telling, romance reading and descriptive accounts of athletic events.

Very little amusement is given in the daytime. The first radio entertainment of the day starts at 12:05 o'clock in the afternoon. It is usually in a lighter vein and may be Japanese or foreign music or a drama. If there is a major athletic event in the afternoon, a descriptive account usually goes on the air. After this there will be no entertainment of any kind, except on Sundays, until 8 o'clock, when the principal amusement programme begins. Frequently, however, the children's programme, given at 6:30 o'clock for 30 minutes, has fairly good entertainment. From 8 to 9:30 o'clock entertainment of all sorts is offered. Very rarely does the programme extend beyond 10 o'clock.

Programme and Listeners The Japan Radio Broadcasting Association distributed 1,233,908 sheets of enquiries to its subscribers all over Japan in 1932, out of which 358,039 answers came, and a résumé of the investigation was given out in April, 1934. In the questionnaire there was a column in which the listeners were requested to state what item or items of the programme they most liked and the answers given in percentage were as follows:

Item of Programme	Percentage of Listeners
News and reports	
General news	91.2
Time signal	77.5
Weather forecast	75.8
Radio gymnastics	48.0
Public announcements	42.3
Daily menues	31.0
Industrial news	30.8
Commodity prices	27.8
Stock-market news	23.2
Employment agency	11.0
New cocoon price	8.2
Exposition of current topics	29.4
Educational	
General and moral	28.1
Literature, arts, etc.	22.3
Physical education and hygiene	22.0
The home and women	20.7
Science	13.0
Foreign languages	9.9
Amusements	
Comic stories	57.6
Naniwa-bushi (mostly tragic stories)	57.5
Radio dramas	51.2
Movie picture dramas and stories	49.3
Samurai stories	48.0
Kabuki	43.4
Biwa (Story chanted with biwa music)	39.6
Gidayu	33.4
Foreign and Japanese music combined	33.4
Japanese harp, bamboo flute, and samisen	30.0
Nagauta (long chanting)	28.3
Modern Japanese music	24.4
Opera	24.2
Brass music	22.6
Orchestra	22.6
Vocal solos	22.0
Short songs (utazawa and kouta)	22.0
Shinnai (a kind of joruri)	20.2
Kiyomoto	19.0
Piano, violin solos and duets	18.7
Tokiwazu (a branch of joruri)	18.6
Chorus	17.6
Jazz	17.3
Yokyoku, kyogen (the No)	14.5
Old Yedo music	8.5
Young folk's hours	
Nursery rhymes	60.1
Short songs	57.0
Dramas for the young folks	52.5
Music	51.5
Stories	49.0

Horse Racing

It was after the Russo-Japanese War that the import of thoroughbred studhorses and horse racing began to be encouraged for the improvement of horses in Japan. As the result a craze for horse racing suddenly set in. At that time pari-mutuel tickets were sold at ¥5, and unlimited dividends and sweeps were allowed. The result was that many people became bankrupt and abuses were too apparent, so that in 1909 horse races at which pari-mutuel tickets were sold were prohibited. But

it soon became evident again that the decline of horse racing had an adverse effect on the improvement and propagation of horses in the country. Ten years later, the Horse Race Bill passed through Parliament and became law in 1923. The law fixed the price of pari-mutuel ticket at ¥20 a sheet, payment being made on wins only, not on places. The number of pari-mutuel tickets a person may buy was limited to one sheet. The dividend was also limited to ten times the cost of the ticket. The race courses permitted under the law are eleven in all, the names and locations of which are as follows :

Name	Location
Sapporo Race Club	Sapporo, Hokkaido
Hakodate „ „	Suburb of Hakodate, Hokkaido
Fukushima „ „	Fukushima City, Fukushima Prefecture
Niigata „ „	Niigata City, Niigata Prefecture
Nakayama „ „	Katsushika-machi, Chiba Prefecture
Tokyo „ „	Fuchu-machi, Tokyo Prefecture
Nippon „ „	Yokohama City, Kanagawa Prefecture
Hanshin „ „	Naruo-mura, Hyogo Prefecture
Kyoto „ „	Yodo-machi, Kyoto Prefecture
Kokura „ „	Suburb of Kokura City, Fukuoka Prefecture
Miyazaki „ „	Miyazaki City, Miyazaki Prefecture

All of these clubs are corporate judicial persons. These eleven race clubs hold race-meetings twice a year, in spring and autumn, each of which lasts from six to eight days. The money paid to the Government, the commission on sales, and the surplus of money are all used for the improvement and propagation of horses in the country as well as for the importation of the thoroughbred, Anglo-Norman and Arab horses. Since the losses of the betters were large with "win" alone, "place" payments were allowed by a change in the Horse Race Law, and horse-racing has been carried on now on that basis since 1931. In all horse races in Japan, clubs themselves undertake the sales of pari-mutuel tickets by the totalizator and do not allow bookmakers. Horse-racing is operated under the complete control of the Department of Agriculture and Forestry.

The above are the so-called officially-recognized horse-races, or horse-races operated under the Horse Race Law. In addition to these, there are local horse-races operated under the local horse-race regulations.

There are 113 local horse-races permitted in the country. A pari-mutuel ticket costs ¥1. per sheet. Some of these are being operated on the combined basis of "win" and "place". Each person is permitted to purchase one each of "Win" and "place" tickets

The number of horses that ran in the officially-recognized horse-races in 1934 was 1,733.

The Derby in Japan The Great Tokyo Derby, which was established in 1932 by the Tokyo Race Club, is modelled after the Derby in Great Britain. The time set for it is the latter part of April. The race course covers 2,400 metres, the horses entered being both males and females of four years old. The prizes offered are the highest in Japan. The regular prizes are ¥10,000 for the first horse, ¥3,500 for the second, and ¥2,000 for the third. In addition to this there are paid about ¥10,000 for the first, ¥4,000 for the second, and ¥2,500 for the third horse in stakes.

In the horse racing in Japan, flat races, steeple-chases, and trotting-races behind sulkies are held at each meeting. There is a distinction between non-subscription and subscription horses. Subscription horses are those horses which are distributed to those members of the clubs by lot, each member paying comparatively a small fixed sum for it. This was a system established in Japan at the time when the interest of the people in horse racing was not as keen as it is now, with a view to increasing the number of the people who own horses.

As to weights, the system is to fix it according to the amount of the prize. One kilogramme is added to each non-subscription horse in a flat race for every ¥3,000, while for a subscription horse one kilogramme is added for every ¥2,000. In each instance, the horse is withdrawn from the meeting if the weight exceeds 77 kilogrammes.

For a trotter a handicap of from 30 to 40 metres is placed for every ¥1,500.

Other Pastimes

Hyakunin Isshu There is a popular

game of cards, in which stanzas from what are known as the "hundred poems", or hyakunin isshu, take the place of flowers. At this game no gambling is ever indulged in. It is rather an amusement for family parties, who at New Year time often sit up over it all night. Some of these diversions are shared in by the ladies.

Children's Sports The sports of Japanese children include kite-flying, top-spinning, battledoor and shuttlecock, making snow-men, playing with dolls, etc. The large, grotesquely coloured papier-mâché dogs given to babies owe their origin to some idea of the dog as a faithful protector, especially against onslaughts by evil spirits.

Shogi Japanese chess (shogi) was introduced from China centuries ago; and though it has diverged to some extent from its prototype, the two games still have a feature in common distinguishing them from all other varieties. It is this. The rank on which the pawns are usually posted is occupied by only two pieces, called hisha and kaku by the Japanese. Also, on either side of the king are two pieces, called kin in Japanese. These perform the duty imposed on th ferz or visir of the Persian Shatranj, which was the equivalent of the modern queen. Therefore, no queen or piece of similar attributes appears eiher in Japanese or Chinese chess. There are eighty-one squares on the Japanese board, and the game is played with twenty pieces on each side, distinguished, not by shape or colour, but by the ideographs upon them. Though the movements of the pieces resemble in most respects those followed in the European game, there are certain ramifications unknown to the latter. The most important of these are the employment of the pieces captured from the adversary to strengthen one's own game, and the comparative facility with which the minor pieces can attain to higher ranks.

Chess is understood by all classes in Japan. The very coolies at the corners of the streets improvise out of almost anything around them materials with which to play, and thus while away the tedium of waiting for employment. But it is comparatively little patronized by the educated classes, who hold its rival "go" in much higher esteem. O is the king, keima the knight, hisha the rook, and kaku the bishop—or pieces having movements like them. Fu is the pawn. The movements of the yari also resemble those of the rook, but are confined to the single rank on which it stands. Gin (silver) and kin (gold) are not found in Western chess. Gin moves one square diagonally only. The kin, besides having similar movements, has also the power of moving one square on each side of itself, but it cannot return diagonally. The fu advances one square forward, and captures as it moves. When any piece moves into the adversary's third row, it may become a kin. This is indicated by turning the piece over. Every piece so promoted loses its original character, except the hisha and kaku to which the movements of the kin are added. As already indicated, a captured piece may be employed at any time for either attack or defence. To checkmate with the fu is a thing vetoed—or at least considered "bad form"—in this non-democratic game, neither is stalemate permissible in Japanese chess. You wait until the adversary makes a move which admits of a free action on your part. The object of the game is to check-mate the king.

Go Go, often with little appropriateness termed "checkers" by European writers, is the most popular of the indoor pastimes of the Japanese,—a very different affair from the simple game known to Europeans as Goban or Go-bang, properly the name of the board on which the go is played. Clubs and professors of the art are found in all the larger cities, where, too, blind players may occasionally be met with. Go may with justice be considered more difficult than chess, its wider field affording more numerous ramifications. The game was introduced into Japan from China by Kibino-Mabi, commonly known as Kibi Daijin, who lived in the reign of the Emperor Shomu (A.D. 724–756). In the middle of the seventeenth century, a noted player, called Hon-imbo, was summoned from Kyoto to entertain the Chinese ambassador then at the court of the Shogun, from which time forward special go players were always retained by the Shoguns.

Go is played on a square wooden board. Nineteen straight lines lengthwise and the same number of lines cross ways, crossing each other at right angles, make three hundred and sixty-one mé, or crosses, at the point of intersection. These may be occupied by a hundred and eighty white and a hundred and eighty-one black ishi or stones. The object of the game is to obtain possession of the largest number of mé. This is done by securing such positions as can be most easily defended from the adversary's onslaughts. There are nine spots on the board, called seimoku, supposed to represent

the chief celestial bodies, while the white and black stones represent day and night, and the number of crosses the three hundred and sixty degrees of latitude, exclusive of the central one, which is called taikyoku, that is, the primordial principle of the universe. There are nine degrees or classes of proficiency in the game, beginning with number one degree as the lowest, and ending with number nine as the highest point of excellence attainable. In playing, if the combatants are equally matched, they take the white stones alternately; if unequal, the weaker always takes the black, and odds are also given by allowing him to occupy several or all of the nine spots or vantage points on the board,—that is, to place stones upon them at the outset. A description of how the game proceeds would be of little utility here, it being so complicated as to make the personal instruction of a teacher indispensable. The easy Japanese game, called gomoku-narabé, which was introduced into foreign countries, is played on the go board and with the goishi. The object of this game is to be the first in getting five stones in a row in any direction.

Hanagaruta (Japanese Playing Card) The Japanese flower-cards developed from the classical "flower contests" which were originated far back in the 9th or 10th century A.D. by the elegance-loving ladies and gentlemen of the Kyoto Imperial court. At first the game was played by each contestant choosing a spray of some flower and writing a thirty-one syllable poem on a piece of coloured paper in praise of this flower and tying it to the twig. Then the flowers were collected and judged from the artistic, literary and various other points of view of the flower, poem and general colour effect.

These sprays of flowers came later to be represented in pictures, and probably under the influence of the Western card games introduced to Japan by the Portuguese of the 16th century, our flower-cards came into being. They present sprays of various flowers in the simplest but the prettiest design and colouring so characteristic of the art of the Tokugawa period, but at the same time they preserve all the poetic sentiments and associations of the courtly game of the flower contests.

A pack of the flower-cards consists of 48, and every four of them make a set presenting a flower. That is, there are 12 sets of fours presenting 12 different flowers or plants, as follows: young pine, plum blossoms, cherry blossoms, wistaria,iris, tree peony, lespedeza, grass hill, chrysanthemum, maple leaves, willow, and paulownia, one for each month of the year in the order given.

Among the 48 cards, there are 5 'glory cards,', each counting 20 points, and 9 10-point cards. These high-valued ones are at once distinguished by the various objects of classical associations presented together with the flowers. Each set,except the Grass Hill and the Paulownia, has a card with a poem strip on it, either of a red colour with letters written on, or of a red or blue colour in blank. These cards always count 5 points. The rest, 24 in unmber, are simple chips and each counts one point. To sum up, there are 48 cards in a pack and in all these cards count 264 points.

There are several ways of playing games with Hanagaruta : solitaire, hachi-hachi or "Game of Eighty-eight," "Six hundred," Sudaoshi, Mushi, and Kabu. But, the most popular and the most interesting of these is hachi-hachi. As in the case with bridge, the game may be played according to quite simple or elaborate rules.

Theoretically, a party of from two to six can play the game, it is most enjoyable when between three and half a dozen players are at the table.

The winner in the last round shuffles and deals the card. He deals 7 cards to each member and places 6 cards in the 'pool' face up. The remaining cards are placed in the centre of the pool in a pile, face downward. Each player then inspects his hand and declares if he will play or drop out. The hands of those who have dropped out are mixed in the cards in the pile. The player who dealt the cards has the first option to declare and the others in turn. In case three players declare to go, the remaining players are obliged to drop out, for not more than 3 can play each round. In case all but two drop out, the two play against each other, and should all but one drop out, the last remaining is the winner and so he shuffles and deals the cards for the next round.

The leader first plays one of the cards in hand the flower of which matches with that of one of the six cards in the pool, taking care to score the highest count possible. He then takes the topmost card in the pile and turns it over. In case the card so taken does not match with any in the pool he leaves it in the pool, but if the card matches with one in the pool, he scores that pair too. All cards thus matched are kept separate by the player who made the tricks. His next player is the one sitting on his right. Thus, in Japa-

nese card playing, we go "against the sun" always.

Each player plays seven times and then all the cards will have been matched and taken. Then the scores are counted. There being 264 points in all, as explained before, one who scores 88 is at par. Hence the name, the "Game of Eighty-eight."

Besides the scores, honours are awarded according to an arrangement agreed on at the beginning of the game.

First of these is the "Four Glories": namely, the "glory cards" Pine, Cherry, Moon and Paulownia, which in one hand count 144 points. The "Three Good Reds"—the 5-point cards of Pine, Plum and Cherry—in one hand as also the "Three Blues"—the 5 point cards of Peony, Chrysanthemum and Maple—in one hand are another honour of the same value, namely, 84 points. Any seven of the 5-point cards in one hand makes another honour and scores 144 points, and also sixteen or more of single-point cards in one hand is an honour worth 144.

In case there are two cards of the same flower in the pool, the player may take only one of them if matched with a card from his hand or with one turned up. But should there be three such cards, the player either matching it from hand or by the turnup takes the whole batch.

When only two players are in the game, the turnup after playing of the last card from hand ends that game and the cards that remain in the pool and the pile are discarded.

In case a player either plays a card from his hand or turns up a card that matches with any in the pool, it is compulsory for him to take that pair. In case a player who has his turn finds no card in the pool with which he can make a match, he is obliged to play blank. It is also permissible to play blank even where a match is possible.

Twelve rounds complete one set and each round is sometimes referred to by the name of the month following the natural order. Twelve months or one year can be played in twenty minutes or less.

Whenever a player finds a prospect of making an honour, he should make his tricks of the honour cards before anything else. In turn, should any player be noticed to be trying to make an honour, his opponents should do their best to prevent his making the tricks he wants.

The rules described above are those for the simplest possible way of playing this most absorbing and pretty game of Eighty-eight. Those enticed by the lure of Japanese card-playing are recommended to refer to a regular handbook of Eighty-eight and learn about sundry other honours, handicaps and penalties which have not been pointed out in the foregoing brief explanation of the game.

Landscape Gardening Japanese landscape-gardening is one of the fine arts. Ever since the middle of the fifteenth century, generations of artists have been busy perfecting it, elaborating and refining over and over again the principles handed down by their predecessors, until it has come to be a mystery as well as an art, and is furnished—not to say encumbered—with a vocabulary more complicated and recondite than any one who has not persued some of the native treatises on the subject can well imagine. What the Japanese call 'hakoniwa' or 'bonkei' is a whole landscape-garden compressed into the microscopic limits of a single dish or flower-pot,—paths, bridges, mountains, stone lanterns, etc., all complete,—a fanciful little toy.

Cormorant Fishing Cormorant-fishing always takes place at night and by torch-light. The method pursued is as follows: There are four men in each of several boats, one of whom, at the stern, has no duty but that of managing his craft. In the bow stands the master called ujo, distinguished by the peculiar hat of his rank, and handling no fewer than twelve trained birds with the surpassing skill and coolness that have earned for the sportsmen of the Nagara River in Gifu prefecture their unrivalled pre-eminence. Amidships is another fisher, of the second grade, who handles four birds only. Between them is the fourth man, called kako, from the bamboo striking instrument of that name, with which he makes the clatter necessary for keeping the birds up to their work; he also encourages them by shouts and cries, looks after spare apparatus, etc., and is ready to give aid if required. Each cormorant wears at the base of its neck a metal ring, drawn tight enough to prevent marketable fish from passing below it, but at the same time loose enough—for it is never removed—to admit the smaller prey, which serves as food. Round the body is a cord, having attached to it at the middle of the back a short strip of stiffish whale-bone, by which the great awkward bird may be conveniently lowered into the water or lifted out when at work; and to this whalebone is looped a thin rein of spruce fibre, twelve feet long, and so far wanting

in pliancy as to minimize the chance of entanglement. When the fishing-ground is reached, the master lowers his twelve birds one by one into the stream and gathers their reins into his left hand, manipulating the latter thereafter with his right as occasion requires. No. 2 does the same with his four birds; the kako starts in with his volleys of noise; and forthwith the cormorants set to at their work in the heartiest and jolliest way, diving and ducking with wonderful swiftness as the astonished fish come flocking towards the blaze of light. The master must handle his twelve strings so deftly that, let the birds dash hither and thither as they will, there shall be no impediment or fouling. He must have his eyes everywhere and his hands following his eyes Specially must he watch for the moment when any of his flock is gorged,—a fact generally made known by the bird itself, which then swims about in a foolish, helpless way, with its head and swollen neck erect. Thereupon, the master, shortening in on that bird, lifts it aboard, forces its bill open with his left hand, which still holds the rest of the line, squeezes out the fish with his right, and starts the creature off on a fresh foray,—all this with such admirable dexterity and quickness that the eleven birds still bustling about have scarce time to get things into a tangle, and in another moment the whole team is again perfectly in hand.

Calendar of Annual Events

Few countries, if any, possess more ceremonies and more festivities than Japan. Some of these ceremonies at first sight may look absurd to the foreign eye, but familiarity with them and especially their origin will reveal most of them to be delightful. Rural people are more conservative than city folk in adhering to observance of ancient customs. Indeed, modern life has robbed the busy citizens of that quiet and poetical mood in which people of bygone days observed ancient customs, such, for instance, as moon viewing. But none the less it is true that despite the modern garb Japan wears today, the life of the present-day Japan is still associated with many picturesque customs and poetical sentiments of Old Japan, which afford a glimpse into the days of feudalism, and the people continue to observe many of the customs handed down from time immemorial.

Below is given in chronological order a list of annual events in Japan, including ceremonies, festivals and other national customary observances.

January

January 1st New Year's Day—New Year's Day means as much to the Japanese as Christmas means to Western peoples, or probably more. It marks the beginning of new life in an atmosphere of quiet and gaiety, leisure and pleasure. It is a time to forget the cares of the past year and enjoy feasts and indulge in all sorts of amusement in celebration of the coming good and lucky year. The homes are decorated, both inside and outside; the people are clad in their best clothes, and they all look very happy.

The Imperial Household observes a religious ceremony called Shihohai (worshipping in four directions) at the Imperial Sanctuary according to Shinto rites. The Emperor usually officiates in person, offering prayers to the gods for the peace and prosperity of the Empire. New Year's Day is one of the four most important National Holidays of Japan, the others being the Imperial Birthday celebration, the celebration commemorating the anniversary of the accession of the Emperor Jimmu, the first Emperor of Japan, in 660 B. C., and the celebration of the Emperor Meiji's Birthday on November 3.

The time-honoured custom of worshipping the sun-rise at shrine compounds situated in the "lucky direction" of the year is widely observed from the traditional belief that so doing will bring luck. Many, of course, observe this custom without sharing the belief. The compound of the Meiji Shrine in Tokyo, for instance, is always filled with worshippers at dawn on New Year's Day. Ceremonies celebrating the New Year are also observed at all Shinto shrines throughout the country. On this day and the following two days people call on their relatives and friends and exchange New Year greetings.

2nd Beginning of Work—This day is known as 'shigoto hajimé,' or beginning of work and is marked with cremonies for the beginning of all sorts of activities which are to be executed properly and well in the right spirit, in the hope that everything will go on in the same happy way for the rest of the year. Young school children study calligraphy for the first time in the year. Car-

penters begin the day by using their professional tools. Geisha tune up their samisen and practise a piece or two of music. The first delivery of goods is undertaken by all wholesale stores in a spirit of celebration. The last named is called hatsu-ni, or first merchandise. Cars on which goods are to be delivered on this day are fully decorated, and the carriers and delivery men, usually drunk, enter into the spirit of the thing, although this custom is observed in recent years with less ostentation than formerly.

On the night of the second day, people were supposed, in ancient times, to dream the first lucky dream of the year. To inspire such a dream, pictures representing the Seven Gods of Fortune were sold in the streets, to be placed under the pillow so that the sleeper might dream a desired dream.

3rd Genshi-sai, a national holiday, celebrating the auspicious origin of the Imperial Throne at the beginning of the year, is observed on the third day before the Imperial Sanctuary in the Imperial Palace. The ceremony is attended by the Emperor, members of the Imperial family, Princes and Princesses of the Blood, high officials of the Government and members of the peerage. In the morning the front of the Nijubashi, the bridge at the main entrance to the Imperial Palace, presents a glittering scene as the dignitaries of the nation arrive at the palace in their State uniforms to participate in the court function. The New Year holidays come to an end on this day.

4th Beginning of Politics—All normal functions of the State are resumed on this day and government and private offices re-open. The Ministers of State make various important reports to the Emperor, and the Minister of the Imperial Household also gives an account of the ceremonies performed at the Grand Shrine of Isé and the other government-protected shrines on the occasion of the New Year.

5th The Shinnen Enkai, or New Year Party, is held at the Homei Hall of the Imperial Palace, where the Emperor and Empress give a banquet to the Princes and Princesses of the Blood, Ministers of State, foreign diplomatic representatives and a large number of other dignitaries. The people in general also hold New Year parties and many persons are seen till a late hour on their way home from celebrations in a hilarious mood.

One of the most interesting features of Tokyo life on this day is the festival of the Suitengu shrine at Ningyo-cho. Here, right in the heart of the modern capital, a glimpse of old Japan reveals itself.

6th Tokyo fire-brigades assemble in an open space in front of the Nijubashi for the New Year parade and give acrobatic performances on fireladders to show their agility. There was a time in the old days when fires were so frequent in Yedo (Tokyo) as to be called "the flowers of Yedo." The life of the fireman was envied by many as inspiring. The performance of acrobatics was initiated in those days to reassure the public by demonstrating the efficiency of firemen when confronted with danger.

Cold Season begins—The so-called 'kan,' or cold season, begins its conventional period of four weeks. The cold season is divided into two stages, the period of 'shokan,' or lesser cold, and the period of 'daikan,' or greater cold. During the period many male apprentices and artisans devoted to their work go out thinly clad in the evening to worship at their favourite temples, having the traditional belief that divine power invoked by their enthusiasm will make them proficient in their callings. They go to the well in the temple compounds and pour cold water over their bodies to purify themselves before worshipping at the temples. The rite is practised for the whole period every evening without a break, irrespective of weather conditions. Such enthusiasts, dressed in white clothes and usually with tinkling bells hanging over their loins, can be seen in the streets during the cold season, running from temple to temple.

Decorations removed—All New Year decorations should be removed from the house fronts before nightfall, as the main New Year celebrations come to an end.

7th The Seven Herbs—On this day, known as 'nanakusa' (seven herbs), people eat rice gruel mixed with seven kinds of herb. This custom originated in the days of the threatened Mongolian invasions under Kublai Khan. The herbs were deemed to give strength to the Japanese soldiers, and they are now supposed to give strength to all consumers against the nation's enemies.

8th Military Review—The Emperor reviews the troops of the Imperial Bodyguard at the Yoyogi parade ground. The public can witness the review.

10th The Kompira Shrine holds its festival on this day. The shrine is located at Toranomon in Shiba, Tokyo. A feature of the festival is a fair at which many talismans are sold.

11th The Kodokwan, the celebrated

judo training institution in Koishikawa, observes the ceremony of beginning judo practice for the year. The greatest experts in the art of self-defence participate in the ceremony, at which the finest matches of the year are seen.

12th Sumo (Japanese wrestling)—The semi-annual tournaments of the Japan Wresting Association are held at the Kokugi-kwan amphitheatre at Ryogoku, Tokyo, in January and May. Each tournament lasts for 13 days. (See Chapter XXXVI.)

15th and 16th Extra holidays for apprentices and servants—in old days apprentices and servants were given only two day's holidays a year, January 15 or 16 and July 15 or 16. Nowadays they are given at least one holiday a month in many cases, but in addition the old holiday-dates are still adhered to.

February

February 1st Country people, who still go by the lunar calendar, celebrate the New Year on this day.

3rd or 4th The Bean-throwing ceremony—This day is called 'Setsubun,' or change of season, on which winter comes to an official end and spring begins according to the lunar calendar. 'Mamemaki,' or the bean-throwing ceremony, is widely practised throughout the country. People scatter beans in an attempt to drive out all the evil spirits in the house and call in good luck. The priests of leading shrines and temples observe this custom in the presence of thousands of worshippers. Usually popular actors and wrestlers are employed as bean-throwers.

11th Commemoration of the Accession of the Emperor Jimmu—This national holiday, Kigensetsu, commemorating the accession in 660 B.C. of the first Emperor of Japan to the Throne, is one of the most important in the Japanese calendar. The Emperor observes elaborate ceremonies in front of the Imperial Sanctuary, attended by the Empress, Princes and Princesses of the Blood, court functionaries and high officials of the Government, and peers. An Imperial luncheon is given at the Homei Hall of the Palace, to which are invited the Princes and Princesses of the Blood, State Ministers, members of the foreign diplomatic corps, etc.

March

March 3rd Girls' Doll Festival—This is sometimes known as the peach festival, because it is associated with the peach blossoms which begin to open about this time. This day is a great day for the girls of Japan. All families, except the poorest, place decorated doll shelves in the guest rooms or alcoves with a set of dolls and accessories on them. Very often the dolls are taken out from the closets and displayed for the enjoyment of the young girls of the family. The set of dolls is supposed to represent a miniature Court of ancient days with the Emperor, Empress, and their retainers. Some of the sets in wealthy families are very valuable, costing several hundred yen each. Dolls are displayed for sale at department stores and stalls for some weeks before the arrival of this festival. Considerable religious significance was originally attached to the doll festival, but later it became a mere pastime for children. It is said by some that the custom encourages happy family life, and by others that it encourages the spirit of filial piety and loyalty. Scholars declare that the custom originated during the reign of the Emperor Tsuchimikado (1199–1207).

6th The Empress's Birthday—This day is known in Japanese as Chikyu-setsu, and is a holiday for girls' schools.

18th Higan, the Week of the Equinox, is a busy time for Buddhist families. Usually, all members of the family visit the family graveyard during the week, attend to the tombs and offer prayers to the spirits of their ancestors. Higan, literally translated, means "yonder shore," or Nirvana. Various vegetable foods specially prepared for the purpose, are offered to the dead and sent as presents to friends and relatives. All Buddhist temples in th country hold special services during the period. Tokyo old-fashioned Buddhist believers make special pilgrimages to the images of the six-faced Amida Buddha at 18 temples situated in the hilly sections of the city and suburbs.

21st Vernal Equinox Festival—On this national holiday, which is called Shunki Korei-sai, all schools and public buildings are closed. A Shinto festival in memory of the Imperial ancestors and ancestresses is performed at the Imperial Sanctuary.

April

April 3rd Anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Jimmu, national holiday—This day is the anniversary of the demise of the first Emperor Jimmu, who reigned over the country for 76 years. The Emperor performs an appropriate ceremony in front of the Imperial Sanctuary.

8th Birthday of Gautama Buddha—This day, kept as the anniversary of the

birth of Gautama Buddha, is celebrated by all Buddhist temples throughout Japan. Leading temples arrange parades of young girls who are daughters of Buddhist believers, and hold memorial services in honour of the founder of their religion. Amacha, sweet tea, is freely given at the temples to all visitors.

18th Festival of the Tokugawa Shogunate Shrine—a festival is held at the Toshogu Shrines at Ueno park and Shiba park, which are dedicated to the Tokugawa Shoguns.

29th Emperor's Birthday—One of the three greatest national holidays, commemorating the birthday of the Emperor Hirohito, the 124th ruler of Japan. A serviee is held at all elementary and second grade schools in Japan. At the Imperial Court the Emperor and Empress hold special ceremonies in front of the Imperial Sanctuary, offering prayers to the spirits of the Imperial ancestors for the peace and prosperity of the Empire. After the function, the Emperor reviews the army at the Yoyogi Parade-ground. An Imperial banquet is held, to which high officials of the Government and foreign diplomats are invited.

30 Semi-Annual Festival of the Yasukuni Shrine—The semi-annual festival of the Yasukuni Shrine, on Kudan hill, Tokyo, dedicated to the spirits of the officers and men of the army and navy and others who died fighting for their country in the wars since the Meiji Restoration, lasts for 3 days, beginning on April 30.

May

May 1st May Day—This imported festival for labourers is observed usually with a labour mass meeting at Shiba park, followed by a huge parade throughout Tokyo. Similar celebrations are held in other leading cities.

5th Boys' Festivals—Just as March 3 is for girls to celebrate their doll festival, so this day is dedicated to the boys of Japan. All Japanese families having sons observe this classic festival. Appropriate dolls are on display in the alcoves of the guest rooms of the families, the festival being intended to bring health, success and prosperity to the boys. The sets of dolls displayed represent popular heroes of the Empire. The custom is of several centuries' standing and originated in a desire to encourage a martial spirit in boys. Large paper or cloth carp, often several yards long, are hoisted above the houses, symbolizing the idea that the sons of the families will be as strong as the spirited carp trying to swim up a waterfall.

June

June 1st Ayu fishing season—The seasonal ban on Ayu fishing is formally lifted on this day and anglers in Tokyo flock to the Tama and Sagami rivers to catch ayu, or sweet trout, a fish noted for its fragrance and delicious taste. A feature of the season is the picturesque cormorant fishing on the Nagara near Nagoya.

14th and 15th Annual Festival at Hiyé Shrine, Tokyo—Representative of many shrine festivals which take place in Tokyo and elsewhere in Japan is the annual festival of the Hiyé Shrine, known as Sanno-sama, which takes place on top of the Sanno Hill in Akasaka ward. The 'mikoshi,' or portable shrine, is carried on the shoulders of shrine hands through Kyobashi, Shiba, Kojimachi and other wards over which the deity presides.

17th Annual Festival of the Great Shrine of Isé, Miyé prefecture, and the Itsukushima Shrine at Miyajima, Inland Sea.

21st Annual Festival of the Atsuta Shrine at Atsuta, Nagoya.

July

July 1st Season for climbing Mount Fuji—The season for climbing Mount Fuji opens. A service is held at the Sengen Shrine on top of the sacred peak.

7th Feast of Tanabata—This evening the Weaver or the Star Vega meets her lover the Cow-herd or the Star Altair on the other side of the Heavenly River (Milky Way) on the only occasion in the whole year, according to tradition. This festival of the seventh eve of the seventh month is celebrated by some although the custom has of recent years been more or less neglected in Tokyo and other cities.

13th—15th O-Bon Festival—During the 'o-bon,' or feast of lanterns, tradition says that the spirits of the family ancestors and other dead members of the family visit the family, and due welcome is given them according to Buddhist rites. The family tombs are visited and vegetable sacrifices are offered. People make small bonfires of stripped hemp stalks and light lanterns to guide the spirits of their ancestors into their homes.

Bon Odori, or dance of the 'bon' season, is a simple folk dance which is given in the compounds of temples or elsewhere by common people, especially in the rural districts, under the light of lanterns.

15th and 16th Extra holidays for apprentices and servants—Semi-annual holidays are given apprentices and servants on either of these two days, as on January 15 and 16.

17th Annual fête of Gion Shrine in Kyoto—This picturesque shrine festival in the ancient capital of Japan lasts for a week.

21st. Hottest season—The doyo, the hottest period of summer, begins on or about this day, to last for about three weeks.

August

August 4th Annual festival of the Kitano Shrine in Kyoto.

6th Annual festival of the Sumiyoshi shrine in Tsukudashima, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

16th Annual Bon-fire Fête on Mount Nyoi in Kyoto.

19th Lantern Fête on Mount Atago in Kyoto.

September

September 1st Memorial Service for the Earthquake Dead—to comfort the spirits of those who were killed in the great earthquake and fire of 1923 services are held at the Earthquake Memorial Hall in Honjo on the banks of the Sumida River, Tokyo.

5th Suitengu Shrine Festival in Tokyo.

13th Festivals of Kanda Myojin and Hikawa Shrines in Tokyo.

17th and 18th Festival of the Great Shrine of Isé and the Hokoku Shrine in Kyoto.

20th Week of the equinox begins —the autumn 'higan' begins on September 20. As during the spring equinoctial week, Buddhist temples present busy scenes.

23rd Festival of the Autumnal Equinox—A Shinto festival in memory of the Imperial ancestors is performed at the Imperial Palace, the day being a national holiday.

26th Moon-viewing Festival—The custom of moon-viewing is no longer observed so generally as in the past, but it still delights the poetically minded in the cities, and people in general in the rural districts. Before twilight sets in, the house wife will bring a table to the veranda where it can catch the moon beams and spread upon it a feast in honour of the moon. A vase containing autumnal flowers will be placed on the left side of the table. As the moon rises, the members of the family sit around the table in the moonlight and spend the evening in merry-making.

October

October 10th Annual fête of the Kotohira Shrine at Kotohira, Kagawa prefecture and also of similar shrines in Tokyo and elsewhere.

13th Anniversary of the death of St. Nichiren—One of the most elaborate Buddhist demonstrations in Japan is held on the evening of the 12th, and the following day at the Hommonji temple at Ikegami, Tokyo, to commemorate the anniversary of the death of St. Nichiren, founder of the Nichiren sect of Buddhism. Thousands of believers and others march in groups to the temple, many beating drums so as to keep time, shouting all the time the Buddhist sutra, "Namu-Myoho-Renge-kyo." Large paper lanterns, all lighted, are carried at the head of those processions.

15th Hunting season—The ban on hunting in all districts is lifted.

17th Kannamesai (first Harvest festival) on this national holiday the Emperor makes an offering of the new grain harvested to the Sun Goddess enshrined in the Great Shrine of Isé and to the Imperial ancestors. A special service is held at the Imperial Sanctuary, while the Emperor despatches a messenger to the Great Shrine to offer prayers on his behalf.

22nd Festival of Yasukuni Shrine—The Yasukuni shrine begins its second semi-annual celebration, lasting for three days.

November

November 2nd Festival of Oh-tori shrines—the annual shrine festival known as 'tori-no-ichi,' is observed at various shrines of Oh-tori, a winged god of fortune and wealth in Tokyo and elsewhere.

3rd Celebration of the Emperor Meiji's Birthday—This is a national holiday and all schools and public buildings are closed in honour of the great Emperor during whose reign Japan became a world Power, and the week is celebrated as a national athletic week.

8th Festival of Bellows—This is celebrated in the household of every metal-smith, silver-smith, iron-smith, and the like. On this day also takes place the annual bonfire fête of the Fushimi Inari Shrine in Kyoto and elsewhere.

15th Celebration for children of 3, 5 and 7 years of age—This is known as "shichigosan (7, 5, 3) festival". On this day boys who have attained the age of 5 years and girls who have attained 3 or 7 years of age are taken to the

shrines of their tutelary deities, in their best clothes, and worship is offered at the shrines by way of expressing their gratitude for the protection of the guardian deities and their safe growth throughout the period of early childhood, at the same time beseeching future protection and happiness.

23rd Festival of Niinamé-sai—The Emperor observes Niinamé-sai, a national holiday, with the ancient Court ceremony of offering new grain to the Sun Goddess and the Imperial ancestors, and partaking of it himself. The occasion is one of thanksgiving, when the Emperor and his subjects return thanks for the harvest.

28th Anniversary of the death of St. Shinran—A religious fete in commemoration of the death of St. Shinran, founder of the Shin sect of Buddhism, is celebrated at the Hongwanji temples in Kyoto and Tokyo.

December

December 22nd Winter Solstice—On this day people take baths in hot water in which 'yuzu' or limes have been placed, according to the time-honoured custom.

25th Anniversary of the death of the Emperor Taisho, father of the present Emperor, a national holiday.

25th Christmas—Christmas has become an important affair for many Japanese living in cities. Although at first it was regarded by the general public as an event entirely foreign to Japan, it has now become a season of rejoicing for children in large cities, and the day is a regular annual feature, included in the Japanese calendar as such.

29th Close of official business—All government and public offices close for the year-end and New Year holidays.

31st Eating of noodles on the last day of the year—It being the last day of December, many businessmen eat noodles at their evening meal to bring the year to a happy conclusion. The noodle is regarded as a symbol of long life and continued prosperity.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

TOKYO

Historical Sketch

In 1192 Yoritomo Minamoto (See Chapter III, Kamakura Age) established a military régime at Kamakura, 56.33 kilometres south-west of the present Tokyo, and it was at this period that the name of Yedo was recorded in the report of a local war in which a son of Lord Shiro Kanetsugu Yedo took part, and the name seems to have been given before he became the lord of the district. Yedo literally means "entrance to the gulf."

After the fall of the Yedo family the district was occupied by a feudal lord called Sadamasa Uyesugi; and Dokan Ohta, one of his retainers, discovering the strategic importance of Yedo constructed the Yedo castle which was completed in 1457. After changing hands a few times, it fell, in 1590, into the possession of Iyéyasu Tokugawa, who settled down there to be the over-lord of the eight provinces of Kanto. From that time it gradually expanded until it became not only the capital of Kanto but the seat of the Tokugawa Shogunate during 15 generations. During the 268 years of the Tokugawa Shogunate the obscure village of Yedo became a thriving town and it is said that 2 million people lived there in the height of its prosperity in the Bunsei (1818–1830) and Tempo (1830–1844) eras.

In 1869 the Emperor Meiji transferred the Imperial capital to Yedo and renamed it Tokyo, or Eastern Capital. Then came still further growth and prosperity. Contact had just been made with Western countries and as Tokyo was serving as the gateway for Western civilization much attention was given to building the city on modern lines.

The fifty years of Tokyo culture met with a terrible catastrophe in September, 1923, when earthquake and fire, unprecedented in history, dealt the city an almost fatal blow. Nearly one-half of the entire city was completely reduced to ashes. But with hard work and the enthusiastic support of the whole country and the citizens of Tokyo, as well as the sympathy of the world, a new and better Tokyo has arisen from the ashes in but a decade.

Location and Climate

Tokyo is situated at the south-east corner of Kanto plain in 35° 31′ 59″–48′ 50″ N. latitude, 139° 33′ 56″-55′ 22″ E. longitude. The climate of the city is generally mild; the annual mean temperature is 13° 9′ C (57° F); the mean temparature in July is 24° 2′ C (75° 5′ F), in January 3° 1′ C (37° 5′ F); the annual average precipitation is 1,555 mm.

Population and Area

Growth of Population According to the 1935 census the population of Tokyo was 5,875,976 at the time when the census was taken, with male numbering 3,076,217 and female 2,799,450. Households then numbered 1,191,939.

Year	Population	Household
1878	813,400	235,943
1888	1,298,661	287,833
1898	1,425,366	316,527
1908	1,626,103	376,428
1920 (census)	2,173,200	456,816
1923[1]	1,527,489	340,278
1924	1,926,310	417,833
1925 (census)	1,995,567	429,852
1930 (census)	2,070,913	414,710
1931[2]	2,103,880	421,620
1932	5,314,700	1,112,640
1933	5,495,460	1,138,470
1934	5,682,370	1,164,890
1935 (census)	5,875,667	1,191,939
1936	6,085,300	1,236,500

1 Earthquake year.
2 Figures for 1931-34 are revised.

Buildings and Dwelling Houses At the end of 1935 there were 970,053 buildings and dwelling houses in the city, of which 578,697 were one storeyed, 383,320 two-storeyed, and 7,087 three storeyed wooden houses 950,107, stone houses 921, and brick houses 3,601, while steel or reinforced concrete buildings numbered 8,350.

Area The total area of the city of Tokyo at the end of 1936 was 577.95 square kilometres. The classified ownership at the end of 1935 follows:

Ownership	(In square meter) Area
Total	486,110,200
Imperial Household	6,391,833
State	74,235,307
Tokyo prefecture	975,368
City	13,791,763
Private Persons	390,715,929

Tokyo Enlarged

The development of modern Tokyo is best endorsed by the giant growth of the adjoining towns and villages.

Socially and economically the towns outside the city area have been closely connected with the city itself. The position regarding Tokyo during the 10 years ending 1930 was that the 82 adjoining towns and villages increased in population by 1,720,000, while the city of Tokyo lost 100,000 within the same period. In road construction, extension of communication facilities and in the execution of various municipal regulations the city experienced enormous difficulties due to the existence of over 80 different self-governing bodies surrounding the city area.

As is generally the case with great cities, a large number of people living in adjoining towns enter the city to earn their living. They are placed on exactly the same footing with the citizens in so far as the utilization of metropolitan facilities is concerned. Besides, as most of them are salaried men belonging to middle or intelligent class, to let them stand aloof from city government means an enormous loss to both.

It was after taking into careful consideration all these practical phases of administration that on October, 1932, new Tokyo was founded by amalgamating 20 more wards. The newly annexed suburban towns then had 3,211,580 inhabitants and 469.029 sq. km., a density of 9,034 persons to the square kilometre.

The enlarged Tokyo now covers 570.-337 square kilometres divided into 35 wards.

Commerce and Industry

Retail Business At the end of July, 1936, the number of retail shops in the city was 164,438. Sweetmeats shops numbered 18,225, rice shops 8,054 and vegetables and fruits shops 6,853. Retail price index numbers based on the prices of December 16, 1929, as 100 follow: Foodstuffs 90.0, cloths, etc. 87.7, fuel 92.3, building materials 100.7, miscellaneous 89.7 and average for 100 kinds of commodities 90.4.

RETAIL PRICE INDEX NUMBER IN TOKYO

(Of 100 Kinds of Commodities)

(The average retail price on Dec. 16, 1939 taken as 100)

	Foodstuffs	Clothing, etc.	Fuel	Building materials	Miscellaneous	Gross Average for Tokyo	Average for 13 cities
1930	90.9	87.5	92.0	89.3	91.9	90.2	91.0
1931	79.6	74.1	84.9	85.9	80.4	79.3	79.4
1932	81.0	74.6	82.1	87.6	79.8	80.1	79.7
1933	85.6	85.0	91.3	104.1	92.2	87.8	87.1
1934	86.9	87.9	91.9	104.9	90.6	89.1	88.8
1935	90.0	87.7	92.3	100.7	89.7	90.4	90.5

Wholesale Price The whole-sale average price index number for 100 kinds of commodities in 1935 was 98.7 against 100 of the average wholesale price index of December, 1929. Metals were high at 109.2. More so was miscellaneous at 115.9. Foodstuffs were comparatively lower at 96.0. Below are given detailed figures:

WHOLESALE PRICE INDEX NUMBER

	Foodstuffs	Textile goods	Metals	Building materials	Chemicals	Fertilizers	Fuel	Miscellaneous	Aggragate average in Tokyo	Average in 13 cities
1930	90	84	87	91	95	89	90	93	88.7	87.7
1931	73	70	72	86	82	71	77	83	75.4	74.0
1932	78	80	87	84	76	86	75	93	81.8	81.0
1933	86	98	114	99	105	92	88	116	97.5	95.4
1934	86	100	112	98	93	89	90	118	97.2	96.3
1935	96	96	109	93	87	99	90	116	98.7	97.4

Banks At the end of 1935 there were 27 banks domiciled in Tokyo and 256 branch offices. Four were special banks, i.e. semi-governmental banks. The number of ordinary commercial banks was 16, with 163 branches in the city. Savings banks numbered 7 with 91 branches. The aggregate capital of the special banks was ¥228,775,000 of which the amount paid up was ¥189,651,062. The aggregate of deposits was ¥640,484,698 and the aggregate amount of advances and discounts was ¥2,390,710,397. The aggregate capital of the ordinary banks was ¥505,488,500, the amount paid up was ¥336,147,000, deposits ¥4,074,920,491 and advances and discounts totalled ¥2,634,046,590. The aggregate capital of savings banks was ¥22,535,000 of which ¥16,672,500 was the total sum paid up, deposits ¥1,147,733,983 and advances ¥253,161,162.

Industry At the end of 1935 there were, in Tokyo, 29,047 small working shops, where less than 5 operatives were employed, with 49,225 workers, and 12,233 factories, where more than 5 operatives were employed, with 342,024 workers. On October 10, 1936 there were 975 factories, where more than 15 operatives were employed with 170,830 operatives, of which 124,633 were male and 46,197 female.

FACTORIES AND OPERATIVES IN TOKYO

(Factories where more than 15 operatives were employed)

(October 10, 1936)

Industry	Factories	Operative Total	Male	Female
Textile	140	24,426	6,271	18,155
Metal	122	21,215	19,074	2,141
Precision machines	64	17,443	13,559	3,884
Machinery & Instrument-making	164	35,763	29,828	5,935
Shipbuilding, etc.	29	11,629	11,146	483
Ceramics	39	3,496	2,874	622
Chemical	120	17,199	11,157	6,042
Leather, Skin, etc.	10	1,094	954	140
Sawing & Wood-working	46	2,647	2,297	350
Clothes and accessories	24	2,868	1,525	1,343
Printing & Bookmaking	95	19,376	15,583	3,793
Building and engineering	42	4,717	4,687	30
Foodstuff	38	4,081	2,546	1,535
Gas & Electric	5	769	764	5
Others	37	4,107	2,363	1,739
Total	975	170,830	124,633	46,197

Companies At the end of 1935 there were 15,738 companies in Tokyo, with an aggregate capital of ¥9,927,377,651 of which ¥7,413,341,920 was paid-up, and their net profits in 1934–35 amounted to ¥742,851,522.

COMPANIES IN TOKYO CLASSIFIED BY INDUSTRIES

(At the end of 1935)

Industry	Number	Paid-up-Capital (In Yen)
Agriculture	105	69,348,543
Aquatic	27	84,650,000
Mining	249	711,627,182
Manufacturing	5,751	3,302,692,921
Commercial and Banking	9,145	2,813,542,863
Traffic	461	431,480,411
Total	15,738	7,413,341,920

Transportation

Roads At the end of 1935 the total mileage of public roads in the city was 7,850,130 metres covering an area of 45,262,654 square metres or 8 per cent of the total city area.

Railway Service In the fiscal year ending March 31, 1936 there were in aggregate 394,021,234 boarding passengers and 393,414,451 alighting passengers at 65 different governmental railway stations in the city, and the earnings in these 65 stations totalled ¥56,503,686 which was ¥2,000,000 more than in the previous year. The business results of 14 private railway companies in the year under review were : the aggregate number of passengers, 319,805,654 and the aggregate amount of earnings ¥25,179,766, the total number of employees 6,518 and the total length of lines in operation 905 kilometres.

TRAFFIC SERVICE OF STATE RAILWAYS FOR TOKYO

Year	Stations	Passengers Who Got in	Passengers Who Got off	Earnings (In Yen)
1930	63	343,997,611	339,973,445	50,119,289
1931	64	333,885,569	332,022,462	48,242,225
1932	63	335,659,845	334,105,799	47,353,630
1933	66	359,549,090	357,644,525	51,364,964
1934	65	374,591,543	373,084,109	54,050,989
1935	65	394,021,234	393,414,451	56,503,686

Tramway Service The business results of municipal tramways in the fiscal year ending March 31, 1936 over the total operation mileage of 346.7 kilometres were : the total number of passengers, 294,189,758 or 6,720,000 less than in the previous years and the aggregate amount of eannings ¥18,475,817, a loss of ¥450,000 as compared with the previous year.

TRAFFIC SERVICE OF THE MUNICIPAL TRAMWAYS

Year	Passengers	Daily Average	Fees	Daily Average (In Yen)	Year	Passengers	Daily Average	Fees	Daily Average (In Yen)
1930	16,555,638	45,358	495,096	1,356	1933	12,379,901	33,918	370,302	1,014
1931	14,943,429	40,829	446,912	1,221	1934	11,232,456	30,774	336,053	920
1932	12,947,817	35,473	387,284	1,061	1935	11,421,840	31,293	341,686	936

The decreasing tendency of the business results of the municipal tramways is largely due to the expansion of other traffic facilities in recent years.

Motor Bus Motor bus service in the city is being rendered by 40 firms beside the Municipal Bus Service and Tokyo Bus Company. In the year ending March 31, 1936 there were 2,398 buses with a total mileage of 1,367 kilometres. The aggregate number of passengers was 251,266,000 and the aggregate earnings ¥15,959,000.

BUS SERVICE IN TOKYO

(1935-36)

	Mileage in K.M.	No. of Buses	Passengers	Earning (In Yen)
Municipal	168.5	935	79,192,224	5,555,425
Tokyo Bus	51.3	497	67,481,749	4,007,864
Others	1,147.4	966	104,593,016	6,396,602
Total	1,367.2	2,398	251,266,989	15,959,891

Underground Railway The urgent need of a high speed underground communications to relieve the congestion and pressure of surface traffic has long been felt necessary. A private company opened its first section of an underground railway, from Asakusa to Ueno, in the latter part of 1927, and is pushing forward its line under the very centre of the city to Shinagawa. It completed the construction of the line to Shimbashi in June, 1934, and the distance in operation now is 8 kilometres. In 1935 it carried 27,986,367 passengers. The municipal authorities have under contemplation the construction of other lines totalling 65 kilometres and have completed geological survey borings in 367 places.

Bridges The city of Tokyo has a network of rivers and canals and the beauty of the city is greatly enhanced by the bridges of manifold designs which traverse them. Before the earthquake the bridges under municipal management numbered 668, of which 426 were of wood. At the earthquake 289 bridges collapsed or were reduced to ashes. By the co-operation of the Reconstruction Bureau of the Government and the Municipality new bridges were built in their place. At the end of 1935 there were 4,701 bridges in Tokyo, 831 of which were of stone, 457 concrete, 935 reinforced concrete, 523 iron, 5 iron and wood, and 1,945 wood.

Rivers and Canals The city is served with a veritable network of canals and rivers many of which are used for transportation purposes. Dredging has to be carried out continuously to keep them navigable. In 1935 there were 59 rivers with the total length of 88 kilometres.

Harbour At the time of the great earthquake in 1923 the city of Tokyo keenly felt the necessity of better facilities for maritime transportation, and when rebuilding of the city took place it was decided to construct a pier, sheds and warehouses at Shibaura, Tokyo. A sum of ¥18,000,000 was appropriated for the work and construction was completed in April, 1935. The length of the reinforced concrete Hinodecho pier is 564 metres and six steamers of 1,000 to 3,000 tons can be moored alongside at a time. Another pier of Shibaura has a length of 910 metres and can moor 7 steamers of 6,000 tons. Furthermore, there are 12 mooring buoys and 8 sheds. The total area of the harbour is 8,591 square kilometres. Steamers outgoing from and incoming to Tokyo and goods carried out from and into Tokyo follow :

MOVEMENT OF VESSELS IN TOKYO HARBOUR

(in 1934 and 1935)

Kind		1934 Number	1934 Tonnage	1935 Number	1935 Tonnage
Steamers	In	22,430	8,353,542	22,412	9,159,265
	Out	22,439	8,375,241	22,415	9,159,984
Sailing Vessels with engines	In	8,982	486,562	8,843	453,462
	Out	8,991	487,522	8,851	454,046
Sailing Vessels	In	112	6,100	110	4,678
	Out	112	6,100	110	4,678
Total	In	31,524	8,846,204	31,365	9,617,405
	Out	31,542	8,868,863	31,376	9,618,708

GOODS CARRIED OUT FROM AND INTO TOKYO

(In metric tons)

Outgoing goods

Year	By R'y	By Steamers	Through Rivers	Total
1933	2,647,049	102,415	61,960	2,811,424
1934	2,967,012	105,437	64,874	3,137,323
1935	3,385,452	62,773	69,002	3,517,227

Incoming goods

Year	By R'y	By Steamers	Through Rivers	Total
1933	6,342,816	58,675	57,306	6,458,797
1934	6,573,974	90,054	79,642	6,743,670
1935	6,614,397	55,619	81,844	6,751,860

GOODS BY RAILWAYS IN 1935

(In metric tons)

	Outgoing goods	Incoming goods
Animals	1,680	51,063
Plants	—	—
Cereals & seeds	319,441	602,498
Comestibles & tobacco	292,456	761,268
Hides, horns. etc. and manufactures thereof	1,520	1,986
Oil tallow, wax, etc. and manufactures thereof	30,372	71,501
Chemicals and dyestuffs	56,886	45,645
Threads, cordages etc.	12,179	27,527
Piece goods & manufactures thereof	7,729	37,378
Cloth & Necessaries	—	—
Pulp & paper	53,110	158,425
Minerals & manufactures thereof	383,876	2,467,170
Metals & manufactures thereof	315,009	106,669
Pottery, and glasses and manufactures thereof	31,295	66,354
Vehicles, clocks & machinery	73,771	22,767
Fertilizers, etc.	569,858	60,319
Wood, bamboos, etc. and manufactures thereof	76,497	1,154,375
Miscellaneous	1,159,773	979,452
Total	3,385,452	6,614,397

Waterworks

The construction of modern water reservoirs was first commenced in 1890 and it was twenty years before the Yodobashi water reservoir was completed. But this proved inadequate to meet the ever growing water consumption and the Murayama water reservoir was constructed in 1916. It consists of two reservoirs, upper and lower, and the upper reservoir has a capacity of 3,576,000 cubic metres while the capacity of the lower one is 12,148,000 cubic metres. In 1934 another reservoir at Yamaguchimura was completed and it has a capacity of 18,824,000 cubic metres. The total volume of water which can actually be maintained by these reservoirs at any given moment reaches 30,056,000 cubic metres. The total number of hydrants in Tokyo in 1933 was 589,396, the total population dependent on public waterworks 3,801,292 and the total quantity of water distributed 234,555,888 cu.m. In March, 1935, the city bought all rights of the Tamagawa Waterworks which had been supplying water to the six southern wards.

Sewerage Works

General Conditions Until half a century ago waste water used to be discharged into moats, navigable canals and rivers. In 1876, there was a violent outbreak of cholera which impressed upon the Government the urgent need of a general water and sewerage system, but it was not until between 1883 and 1885 that Tokyo prefecture laid the first sewers, with a government subsidy. The subject of sewage disposal was not undertaken in earnest until 1911, and it was not until ten years later that the modern Mikawajima Disposal Works were opened. Extensions and modernization are still going on. At present there are 7 sewage siphons at Sunamachi and Mikawajima.

Within the old city limits there are no longer any open street drains visible, the same, unfortunately, cannot be said of the new city area, though further development of the sewerage system is being planned.

In 1934 there were 428,155 square metres of undergrounds in use for the laying of iron pipes and the aggregate length of iron-pipes laid down was 1,402,674.57 metres in contrast to 1,146,428.24 metres in 1932. Moreover, 169,090,004 square metres of sewerages were the aggregate volume that were siphoned in the year under review and the water volume disposed of totalled 167,398,778 square metres.

SEWERAGE WORKS IN TOKYO

(For the fiscal years 1932-1935)

	1933	1934	1935
Area covered in sq. m.	427,955	530,296	586,504
Length of sewers in m.	1,265,477	1,402,624.57	1,556,371.56
Sewerage siphoned in cu. m.	155,907,470	169,090,004	
Sewerage disposed in cu. m.	148,969,959	167,398,778	
Sewerage washed out in cu. m.	6,491,972	25,227,310	

Parks

Parks The absolute necessity of parks is more keenly felt in Tokyo than in other cities in Japan because many lives were saved through the existence of parks on the occasion of the terrible earthquake of September, 1923.

At the end of 1935 Tokyo had 105 parks with an area of 2.747 square kilometres.

In the old city area there are three large parks :. Sumida, Kinshi and Hamacho and 89 others of about 2,682,136 sq. m., whereas before the earthquake the city had only Ueno, Hibiya and 32 other parks. Within the newly annexed quarters of the city there are two at Shinagawa covering an area of 3,900 tsubo.

Sumida park has an area of 174,400 sq. m., Hamacho park 36,000 sq. m. and Kinshi park 56,000 sq. m. All of the numerous small parks are laid out adjoining for the most part elementary schools. They serve as local parks, the largest being 4,700 sq. m. and the smallest 1,700 sq. m. in area.

Education

In the fiscal year 1935 there were 285 kindergartens in Tokyo of which 124 were in the old city limits. The number of elementary schools was 590,

of which 217 were in the old city limits. Schools equivalent to elementary grade numbered 74, of which 44 were in the old city limits; blind, deaf, and dumb schools numbered 9; middle schools 51 and girls schools 74. Various schools of middle grade numbered 27; business and technical schools 137, normal schools 3, young people's schools 206 and various private schools 281. As for higher education there were 2 higher girls normal schools, 3 business teachers' institutes, 72 professional schools (colleges), 4 higher schools, and 22 universities.

KINDERGARTENS, AND ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

March 1, 1936

	No.	Instructors	Pupils	Granduates
Kindergartens	285	865	16,692	10,231
Elementary Schools	590	15,038	731,855	126,634
Elementary evening schools	77	115	6,303	1,931
Blind, deaf and dumb schools	9	200	1,196	315
Middle Schools	51	1,441	36,938	5,725
Girls' high schools	74	1,737	46,926	8,035
Other schools of middle school grade	27	610	14,238	2,176
Vocational, business and technical schools	137	2,369	9,537	12,791
Young people's schools	206	215	37,491	11,802
Normal schools	3	108	1,661	554
Various private schools	281	3,392	9,284	36,289
Total	1,733	26,090	912,121	216,483

SCHOOLS FOR HIGHER EDUCATION

March 1, 1935

Higher Normal schools	2	157	1,589	396
Temporary teachers, institutes	3	38	269	91
Professional schools	72	3,620	52,165	13,298
Higher schools	4	231	3,140	930
Universities	22	3,495	46,625	14,769
Total	103	7,541	103,788	29,484

Public Libraries There are 31 libraries in Tokyo, of which 6 are owned by the city, 1 by the Government and the rest by private persons. In the fiscal year 1935 the number of books held in all those libraries was 1,767,597, of which 823,269 were held by the Imperial Library at Ueno and 488,694 by the 26 municipal libraries.

LIBRARIES

At the end of the fiscal year	Total Number of Banks	Japanese & Chinese Books	Western Books
1931	1,438,456	1,236,853	201,603
1932	1,509,091	1,301,440	207,651
1933	1,574,691	1,362,023	212,668
1934	1,687,237	—	—
1935	1,767,597	—	—

Social Education The Social Education Bureau of Tokyo municipality, established in 1921, looks after the social education of the capital.

Adult education is effected through the medium of Commercial and Industrial Young Men's Cultural Schools and citizens' lecture courses, both of which give lectures to citizens for a term of half a year, at night or on Sundays and holidays. At other times short time lecture or training courses are arranged for citizens in general. Free use is made of music and the cinema.

The Tokyo Self-Government Hall, Hibiya park, is a permanent organ for social education with the object of fostering an autonomous spirit among the citizens. as its principal raison d'être.

Training of Young Men In July, 1934, there were 26 Young Men's Training Institutes with 15,599 students.

Young People's Schools In 1936 there were 175 municipal young people's

schools and 29 similar institutes with 31,698 aggregate number of students.

Religion

At the end of 1934 there were 1,874 Buddhist temples of various sects, the total number of priests counting 4,301 and adhering families 200,779. The Jodo sect was strongest in point of the number of temples, which were 422. The next position was occupied by the Shingon Sect with 392. Below are given details of various sects of Buddhism.

SHINTOISM BUDDHISM AND CHRISTIANITY IN TOKYO

	No. of shrines, temples or churches	No. of preachers	No. of Individual Believers
Shrines	913	353	—
Shintoism	1,207	0,130	608,425
Temples	1,881	4,459	267,701
Buddhism	289	478	112,907
Christianity	242	524	59,076

TEMPLES, ACCORDING TO DIFFERENT SECTS

(at the end of 1935)

Sect	No. of Temples	Priests	No. of Believing Families
Tendai	145	320	11,126
Shingon	401	784	49,567
Jodo	423	895	50,829
Rinsai	99	244	10,256
Soto	215	611	26,807
Obaku	10	20	1,120
Shin	240	510	54,845
Nichiren	341	1,060	62,006
Ji	7	15	1,145
Total	1,881	4,459	267,701

Social Work

Child Welfare At the end of March, 1936 there were 26 maternity hospitals including three municipal-owned, and in 1935–36 there were 25,248 in-patients of expectant mothers, and 552 patients treated in travelling and the number of births given was 21,897 of which 1,022 were still births. In the same year there were 100 relief nurseries where working mothers and fathers can leave their children when going to their daily work. The total number of babies and children who were brought into these nurseries in the year was 7,593.

The total number of facilities for child protection was 310 which included 100 for baby protection, 11 nurseries, 17 for juvenile protection, 37 health consultation rooms, 104 for the education of the poor and deformed, 31 children's play grounds and libraries, and 10 for special protection of children.

Labour Exchanges Activities of municipal and private labour employment offices which number 49 in all can be seen from the following :

BUSINESS RESULT OF LABOUR EXCHANGE

(at the end of the fiscal year 1935)

Kinds	No. of exchange	Persons wanted		Applicants		Persons who secured work	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Municipal:							
General	39	213,330	131,282	222,895	101,498	66,584	32,061
Private:							
General	10	98,980	69,212	95,794	72,133	21,920	20,036
Total	49	312,310	200,494	318,689	173,631	88,504	52,097

Administration and Government

History In July, 1868, the Emperor Meiji granted an Imperial message on the proposed removal of the capital to Tokyo. It was the beginning of the regeneration of Tokyo. At the same time the downfall of the Shogunate régime was announced and new Japan was born.

The Tokyo prefectural office was established soon after the issuing of the Imperial Rescript. In 1871, the city was divided into 6 large wards, but seven years later these wards were abolished and 15 smaller wards established. In 1879, as the governor of the prefecture saw that these 15 wards were firmly established, he issued a decree concerning the formation and functions of ward assemblies, and thus instituted the first representative government system in this country.

Legislative Body To control mu-

nicipal business the city has a city council and board of aldermen with a mayor as the head. Further, there are several departments, bureaux, sections, etc., for the execution of municipal affairs and office work.

Membership of the city council is an honorary position, the term of service being 4 years. The membership at present is 144, but owing to resignation of and death of members, the actual membership at the end of 1934 was 139. The principal functions of the council are the enactment and reorganization of city regulations, decisions as to finance, approval of settled accounts, imposition and collection of city taxes; and the right of proposing any bill, except the budget for annual revenue and expenditure. The board of aldermen of Tokyo once was the executive body, but in 1911 it became a legislative body. It is composed of 15 honorary aldermen to whom the mayor is added as chairman. The functional powers include the right of proposing any bill or expressing opinions on other matters.

Executive From 1889 till 1898 the function of the mayor of Tokyo was entrusted to the governor of Tokyo prefecture, but on October 1, 1898 the city became self-governing. The mayor is elected by the city council. Under the mayor there are three deputy mayors, a city counsellor, a treasurer, directors of departments, chiefs of bureaux, ward heads and other numerous offices. There are various kinds of committees as consultative bodies. The organization of the municipality is as follows:

THE DEPARTMENTAL ORGANIZATION OF THE TOKYO MUNICIPALITY

Sections	Functions
Private secretariat	Secret matters, keeping of seals, ceremonies and reward
Personnel	Personnel administration
General secretariat	General affairs, municipal research, elections, legal affairs, etc.
Bureaux	
Supervising	Supervision and inspection of municipal affairs
Finance	Budget, loans, public land, taxation, purchasing, etc.
Industrial	Industry, promotion of industry and commerce, agriculture, fisheries and stock raising
Education	Management of schools; education, libraries, museums, etc.
Social Work	Protection and correction. Management of lodging houses, housing, labour exchanges, commercial training, etc.
Public Health	Management of hospitals, social hygiene, refuse disposal, park and playgrounds, auditoriums, cemeteries, zoological gardens, etc.
Water Works	Water supply and extension
Public Works	Roads. bridges, harbours and rivers, sewage disposal, buildings, etc.
Electric	Supply of light and power: electric cars, motor buses, subways, etc.
Divisons	
Harbour	Care of Tokyo harbour
Municipal Office Building	Building the City Hall at Tsukishima
Miscellaneous	
Central wholesale Market	Wholesale of provisions
Poor Asylum	Protection of helpless persons aged or young
Hygiene Laboratory	Investigations on epidemics, bacteria, etc.
Electric Laboratory	Examination of meters and scientific research on electricity.

Finance

The 1935 (1935–1936) municipal gross budget was balanced at ¥363,330,000 of which ¥1,872,000 was the sun brought from the previous year; ¥77,660,0000 was the sum transferred from other sources; ¥2,922,000 was the sum transferred from the reserve fund; and ¥86,151,000 was the sum obtained by means of conversion of bonds.

The genuine expenditure, however, was ¥200,872,000. The expenditure and revenue table follows:

Expenditure

Category of account	(¥1,000)
Office expense	11,046
Education	25,132
Industries	372
Public health	11,272
Social work	5,405
Public work	33,759
Public enterprises:	
1) Water work	15,931
2) Electricity	26,295
Expenses for bonds:	
1) General	33,505
2) Water work	9,514
3) Electricity	22,109
Loans made	1,875
Others	4,650
Total	200,872

Revenue

Items	Amount (¥1,000)
Income from properties	2,557
Fee & charges	59,044
Government subsidies	10,947
Compensation	4,174
Reimbursements of loans	4,536
Proceeds from sales of city properties	1,251
City tax	38,673
Municipal loans	54,944
Others	23,594
Amount carried from the previous year	1,872
Amount transferred from special reserve fund	2,922
Total	199,724

	Receipts	Disbursements	Per Capita Genuine Disbursement
	¥	¥	¥
1932	152,745,263	159,343,763	30.00
1933	165,575,185	173,344,002	31.60
1934	191,208,799	195,829,677	34.58
1935	199,724,127	200,872,604	34.19
1936	224,783,000	225,873,000	

The following shows the genuine receipt and disbursement accounts for the five years, 1931–35 :

City Properity On October 31, 1934 the aggregated value of all public properties of the city was estimated at ¥869,303,415, an increase of ¥24,655,180 compared with the previous year.

Loans. The total amount of municipal bonds as outstanding in 1935 was ¥782,568,598, while the total amount issued in the year was ¥120,974,195 and the amount reimbursed ¥90,579,445. The bond burden per household of the citizens was in that year ¥656,551 and that per capita ¥133.188.

CHAPTER XXXIX

FIVE BIG CITIES

Osaka

General

Geographical Position The city of Osaka is situated nearly in the centre of Japan proper, near the eastern entrance of the Inland Sea with easy access to the Pacific Ocean, while on the other sides extend the fertile plains of the provinces of Settsu, Kawachi and Izumi. The city of Kyoto, the ancient capital of Japan, is situated 43 kilometres to the north-east, and the city of Kobé lies 32 kilometres to the west. The river Yodo runs through the city, and with the numerous canals that connect with it affords excellent transportation facilities by water. The Yodo rises in Lake Biwa, the largest fresh water lake in Japan, and branches off into the Shin Yodogawa, Okawa, Dojimagawa, Tosaborigawa, Ajakawa, Kizugawa and the Shirinashigawa, which in turn connect with numerous canals, the most famous being the Dotombori Canal.

Area The area of the city of Osaka is 187 square kilometres which means it ranks third so far as the area is concerned exceeded by Tokyo and Kyoto, but in point of population it is the largest, next only to Tokyo. Its city limits were extended twice in its history, the first time in 1897 and the second in 1925. The city is divided into 15 ku (wards) which are : Kita, Nishi, Minami, Higashi, Konohana, Minato Taisho, Tennoji, Naniwa, Nishiyodogawa, Higashiyodogawa, Higashinari, Asahi, Sumiyoshi, and Nishinari.

Population The population of Osaka was on Oct. 1, 1936, 3,101,900, men numbering 1,654,900 and women 1,447,000 and the households numbering 655,900, according to the Cabinet Bureau of Statistics. The comparison of the last three years follow :

Population, 1934-1936.

	Men	Women	Total	Households
1934 (Oct. 1)	1,445,000	1,277,700	2,722,700	—
1935 (Oct. 1)	1,594,151	1,395,716	2,989,866	630,232
1936 (Oct. 1)	1,654,900	1,447,000	3,101,900	653,900

Each of the 15 ku (wards) is inhabited by a population of more than 100,000, with the Minato-ku 329,800 Higashinariku 324,900 and Minamiku, 118,900, according to the investigation of 1936. The average population in one ku (ward) was 206,700 in contrast of 178,-800 in Tokyo.

The population of Japan could be dividable in 1935 between 22, 666,307 (32.7%) of urban districts and 46,387,841 (67.3%) of rural districts and the population Osaka was 13.2% of the entire urban population.

In 1935 births numbered 87,417 (29.24 per 1,000 of population) of which 44,-916 were male and 42,500 female, 84,-91% of the 87,417 births were lawful and 15.09% unlawful. In the same year deaths numbered 47,459 (15.87 per 1,000 of population) of which 25,080 were male and 22,379 female. Women between 25–29 years of age ranked first as lawful birth-givers, while women between 20–24 ranked first as unlawful birthgivers.

In the same year still-births totalled 5,731 (1.92 per 1,000 of population) of which male numbered 3,098 and female 2,527, and 31% of the still births were of the parents unmarried.

Mortality in 1935 totalled 47,459 (15,-87% of 1,000 of population) of which men numbered 25,080 and women 22,-379. Deaths occurred most numerously in December and the least in September. 38.1% of the deaths took place in the ages between 0–4 and 39.1% in persons between 15–59.

As for the causes of deaths, 96.4% were illness and 1.2% suicide. Of the deseases 13.0% were pneumonia and 12.3% tuberculosis.

Residents from Overseas territories and Foreign Countries, Coreans residing in Osaka at the end of 1935 were 202,-

311 (121,400 being men and 80,911 women), an increase of 67,886 over 1934. Formosans numbered 995 (49 being men and 46 women). Foreign nationals run as follows : Manchoukuo 93 ; China 2,-969 ; British India 49 ; the United States 35 ; France 25 ; Great Britain 24 ; Rusia 20 ; and others 42, totalling 3,256 and Chinese occupying 91%.

Industries

Osaka is an important industrial and commercial centre in Japan surpassed by none but Tokyo and excelling the latter in many respects. The aggregate 1935 production (excluding gas and electric production) was valued at ¥1,-503,339,937 against ¥1,282,185,000 of the previous year. Further particulars follow :

Principal Industries	No. of factories	No. of working men	Production ¥ 1,000
Textile	5,388	44,316	251,391
Metallurgical	5,766	57,603	391,029
Machinery	8,288	65,148	287,908
Grammies	672	13,962	44,106
Ceramics	1,980	23,736	246,410
Milling and wood work	5,503	12,406	37,921
Printing and book binding	1,695	11,876	54,661
Foodstuffs	7,810	13,917	92,840
Gas and electric work	15	1,113	—
Miscellaneous	12,262	35,994	97,075
Total	49,379	780,073	1,503,340

Including those factories where less than 5 workers are employed which number 37,775 in all.

Commerce

Business Companies At the end of 1935 there were 9,574 business companies domiciled in Osaka, an increase of 1,-650 over the previous year. The aggregate paid-up capital amounted to ¥2,793,486,000 against 2,637,249,000 of the previous year, an increase of ¥156,237,-000. Of these companies 2,240 (23.4%) were joint stock companies of limited liability. The rest was in the co-operative basis either of names or funds.

Banks At the end of 1935 there were 9 banks domiciled in Osaka, and 95 banks domiciled in cities other than Osaka were found represented in the city by their branches. The aggragate capital of the 9 Osaka banks was ¥252,-800,000, of which ¥183,888,000 was found paid up at the end of 1935. The aggragate reserve of these 9 banks was valued at ¥118,877,000, an increase of 10.7% over 1934. Bills cleared at the Osaka Clearance House in 1935 amounted to ¥24,979,292,283, an increase of 10.2% over 1934.

Exchanges In Osaka there are 4 exchanges, viz., Osaka Stock Exchange, Osaka Dojima Rice Exchange, Osaka Sanpin Exchange and Osaka Sugar Excange. The Osaka Stock Exchange is a rival of the Tokyo Stock Eechange in the transaction of stocks. The Osaka Rice Exchange is the forerunner of rice exchange business in Japan. In the Osaka Saipan Exchange were cotton yarn and raw cotton only could be transacted, in February, 1933, artificial silk was admitted for the clearance transaction.

The Osaka Sugar Exchange is operated upon membership basis, but the other three are joint stock companies of limited liability. Transactions made at the Osaka Stock Exchange in 1935 were valued at ¥9,662,412,000, a reduction of ¥165,723,000 from 1934. Rice was transacted up to 35,985,000 koku for ¥1,100,275,000, a loss of 6,883,000 koku in quantity and ¥61,179,000 in value from the previous year. Cotton yarns were contracted up to 5,291,360 piculs valued at ¥1,083,584,000, reduction compared to 1934 being 191,550 piculs and in value, ¥63,617,000. Raw cotton was dealt up to 2,550,770 bales for ¥570,276,000, shrinkage in contrast to 1934 being ¥732,790 bales and, in money value, ¥184,380,-000. Rayon was transacted for ¥1,291,-710 bundles against ¥82,509,000 shrinkage from the previous year being 468,-200 bundles and in value ¥4,384,000. Sugar dealings were booked for 4,362,-900 sucks against ¥78,376,000 over 4,-424,200 sucks and ¥76,783,000 of 1934. Transactions made at any of these Osaka Exchanges in 1935 exceeded those in any of the 5 other big cities excepting sugar in which the Tokyo Sugar Exchange ranked first.

Warehouses At the end of 1935 Stocks in all the warehouses belonging to the 6 leading warehousing companies Su-

mitomo, Sugimura, Mitsubishi, Toshin, Shibusawa and Tokyo) were found to be 6,134,532 units valued at ¥120,848,000, stocks brought in during the year being 21,237,042 units valued at ¥563,877,000 and those taken away 21,645,440 units valued at ¥576,761,000.

Commodity Movements The aggregate quantity of commodities taken away from Osaka in 1935 was 13,199,271 tons for ¥3,999,979,000 and those brought into 22,955,364 tons for ¥3,542,476,000. The net result was the excess of influx in quantity by 9,766,093 tons but the excess of out-going movements by ¥457,503,000. The following table shows this trend in the 5 classified leading commodities :

PRINCIPAL INCOMING & OUTGOING COMMODITIES

1935

	Outgoing		Incoming	
	Quantity (1,000 tons)	Value (¥1,000,000)	Quantity (1,000 tons)	Value (¥1,000,000)
Foodstuffs	993	196	2,735	470
Raw materials	2,852	358	11,726	575
Manufactures as raw materials	3,001	562	4,831	803
Finished manufactures	6,303	2,897	3,422	1,669
Others	50	5	199	23
Total	13,189	4,000	22,955	3,542

Central Wholesale Market The aggregate amount of sales made at the Osaka wholesale market in 1936 was valued at ¥76,618,869, the average daily sales being ¥218,287. This market was inaugurated in 1931, and it deals only in daily necessaries of life such as fish, meat, eggs, vegetables and fruits, and there are six more central wholesale markets in the whole country.

Municipal Retail Markets There are 44 retail markets operated by the Municipality. Sales made at these municipal markets in the whole city of Osaka in 1936 totalled ¥22,847,966, a decrease of ¥142,359 from 1935. The steady declining tendency in the amount of sales at the Municipal retail markets is chiefly explained by the effect of the uniform price system at work and the increased number of private markets. The average monthly sales in 1936 resulted in ¥1,903,997 and the average sales per market in the same year ¥430,559.

Foreign Trade

The 1936 foreign trade returns of Osaka showed ¥672,232,979 in export and ¥593,263,783 in import, the excess of exports resulting in ¥78,969,196. In tonnage, however, the result was adverse up to 3,021,170 tons, a strong evidence that Osaka is an efficient manufacturing centre. Against the aforesaid export valued at ¥672,232,979 was an increase of ¥52,090,464 (8.4%) in export, and ¥46,513,642 (8.5%) in import, and of the excess of exports amounting to ¥5,576,822 (7.6%). Particulars follow :

FOREIGN TRADE OF OSAKA, 1936

Kinds	Exports	Imports	Excess of Exports or Imports (−)
	¥	¥	
Foodstuffs	7,205,301	13,490,834	(−) 6,285,533
Raw materials	8,374,954	389,588,602	(−)381,213,648
Manufactures for further manufacturing	115,337,012	143,958,101	(−) 28,601,089
Finished goods	523,223,514	41,801,818	481,421,696
Miscellaneous	8,612,417	2,284,069	6,328,348
Re-shipments	9,459,781	2,140,350	7,319,422
Total	672,232,979	593,263,783	78,969,196

As shown in the above total of exports amounting to ¥672,232,979, finished goods accounted for ¥523,514 (77.8%) and of the total imports raw materials accounted for ¥389,588,602 (65.7%) and materials for further manufacturing ¥143,958,101 (24.3%).

A further study shows that the excess of exports was due to increase in trade with the Asiatic Continent, Europe and America. Osaka is the third important foreign trade port city, Kobe ranking first and Yokohama second.

Transportation

Roads At the end of 1936 the total road area of Osaka was 13,051,061 square km., 7.0% of the entire area of the city compared with 6.7% of 1935, and the total road length was 2,522,281 metres. The total area of paved roads was 5,537,493 sq. metres, 12.4% of the entire road area.

Rivers, Canals and Bridges Osaka is the Venice of Japan in that there are many canals, and to that fact she owes much of her development as a big commercial and manufacturing center. Rivers that run through the city number 12 and canals four which are serving the city as effective means of transportations.

Tramway and Bus Lines At the end of March, 1936 the business kilometerage of street tramways was 106.5 kilometres, the number of passenger cars in use counting 765. The total number of passengers in 1936 was 263,031,378 (0.4% increase from 1935) and the total revenue ¥14,729,190 (0.2% increase from 1935). All tramway lines and some bus lines are operated by the Municipality.

The subway work was first started in 1930 and its operation between Shinsaibashi and Umeda was inaugurated in 1933, and then the line was extended southward from Shinsaibashi to Nanba in October, 1935, the total business kilometerage on December 31, 1936 being 4.1 and the number of cars 23. The total number of passengers in the whole year of 1936 was 17,624,237 with fares totalling ¥1,506,651. The subway lines are also operated by the city.

Suburban Electric Railways On March 31, 1936 there were 9 private companies oparating suburban electric lines to various suburban points with a total kilometerage of 839.4 carrying 1,059,280 passangers per day in average and an aggregate total number of passengers being 38,696,000 in the whole year of 1936.

These Companies are Nankai Railway Company, Hanshin Electric Railway Company, Hanshin Express Railway Company, Keihan Electric Railway Company, Osaka Denki Kido Company, Sangu Electric Railway Company, Osaka Railway Company, Hankyu Electric Railway Company, Hankai Electric Railway Company. Hamaden, Kishiwada, Wakayama, Nara, Yoshinoyama, Ujiyama and Kinuana and chief points that are reached by those electric railways.

Sea Transportation The Osaka Harbor is one of the three largest ports in Japan and steamships that entered the port in 1935 numbered 23,966, the aggregate tonnage being 35,822,282 tons. Sail boats numbered 167,931, with an aggregate tonnage of 4,836,441. The increase in the number of calling steamships compared with 1934 was 12.6%, another evidence of the growing prosperity of Osaka.

Airways Osaka is an important airway point in Japan. The Nippon Air Transportation Company is operating its regular airway passenger service with Osaka as a center-point, Tokyo to Osaka and Osaka to Fukuoka, thence to various points of Chosen and also southward to Taiwan. In 1936 passengers who left from the Kizugawa airport numbered 2,051 and those who arrived 2.097. The Nippon Air Transport Institute is operating the air way service between Osaka and Beppu and between Osaka and Shirahama. In the business year ending March, 1936 passengers who utilized the Institute's service totalled 645.

Education

On March 1, 1936 there were Kindergartens and schools in Osaka totalling 767 against 666 of the previous year; teachers, professors and nurses numbering 17,966 against 12,798 of the previous year; and pupils and students 486,842 against 446,751 of 1935. Schools and kindergartens established by the Municipality numbered 511: schools alone established by the Prefecture and the Municipality 30; and private schools and kindergartens 226.

Kindergartens numbered 119 on March 1, 1936, children enrolled numbering 15,086 and nurses 527. Attendants in elementery schools totalled 6,570, on March 1, 1936, with their teachers numbering 6,916 Middle schools and schools of the same grade totalled 71, with pupils numbering 57,575 and teaching forces 2,435. Institutions for higher and university education were 10 in number, faculties totalling 781 and students 7,937.

Furthermore, there were on March 1, 1936, Young Men's Schools numbering 148 in all, with teaching forces of 1,284 and pupils counting 29,271.

Educational expenditure of the Municipality for 1935 was ¥15,789,097 an increase of ¥2,657,203 (20.2%) over 1934. Of this expenditure for education ¥7,969,075 was for salaries.

Universities and colleges in Osaka are

the Osaka Imperial University (governmental), the Osaka University of Commerce (municipal), Osaka Higher School (governmental), the Osaka School of Foreign Languages (governmental), the Kansai University (private), Naniwa Commercial College (private), Osaka Girls' College (prefectural), etc. Libraries. At the end of March, 1935 there were 13 libraries, 1 being under governmental maintenance, 6 under municipal maintenance and 6 of private ownership. In the governmental library there were 671,265 books on March 31, 1936.

Social Welfare Works

Relief of the Poor Since the issuance by the Government in 1874 of the relief regulation, the municipality of Osaka has active interest in the relief of the poor, old-aged and deserted children. More recently it has undertaken to institute various social works directed for the prevention of poverty. In 1935 three municipal maternity homes received 6,135 expectant mothers of small means and births numbering 5,155 were obtained, still-births numbering 307, and daily average births 4.7.

Protection of Infants & Children At the end of 1935 there were 34 nurseries, poor children educational homes; 3 blind and deaf protection homes; 9 minors protection houses; and 16 children health consultation offices. Infants who were received in the 34 nurseries totalled 2,700.

Employment Exchanges The municipality also maintain 21 exployment exchanges and 1 training place for workseekers. The employment exchanges gave work to 40,532 men and 186,299 women during 1935.

Medical Relief On March 31, 1936 there were 63 relief hospitals. The total number of patients treated in all the relief-hospitals was 12,950 in 1935.

Social Education Work In 1935 there were 18 institutes for the social education work, of which 7 were under municipal management. Protection of infants and children, assistance to advice-seekers on matters of health, law, etc. and holding of necessary lectures for social educational purposes etc. are the works that are being carried on by the 18 institutes.

Unemployment In 1936 there were 28,105 unemployed per day in average including 7,328 Coreans, according to the Municipal Social Bureau. This unemployment number was 0.91% of the entire population of the city and a reduction of 14.2% from 1935. Though there was a reduction of 19.67% in Japanese there was an increase of 5.9% in the Corean unemployment.

Municipal Finance

The fiscal year 1937 budget was formulated, taking into consideration the need of meeting all that was urgent for the healthy expansion of the city and the promotion of the welfare of the citizens and it was balanced at ¥355,181,126, an increase of ¥47,719,788 over the previous year. The main items for which the expenditure was alloted cover the following: ¥1,381,764 for the 4th road improvement work; ¥3,235,006 for the 3rd city planning work; ¥6,221,232 for the 5th school equipment; ¥8,776,342 for extension of equipment work for the supply of electricity; and ¥2,500,000 for the extension of water work.

The municipal loans aggragated ¥527,933,555 on May 31, 1936, which means ¥177 per capita.

Kyoto

Kyoto, known in antiquity by the name of "Heian" (the city of peace), was for about a thousand years the metropolis of Japan. At the Restoration, the Emperor Meiji moved his capital to Tokyo, but Kyoto retained its position as a cultural centre, and today it is looked upon as "the classic city" and the leader of culture in the western part of the country. The city, lying in what is called the Kyoto basin, is surrounded by many famous hills and mountains such as Arashiyama, Atagoyama, Kuramayama, Hiéizan and Higashiyama. The area of the city is 288.65 square kilometres, the greatest length from N. to S. is a little over 26 kilometres and the greatest breadth is about 25 kilometres, the form being roughly rectangular. Osaka lies 43 kilometres to the southwest.

Boundaries The boundaries of the city have undergone considerable changes since 1888. At that date the first annexation of adjacent villages was made, a second extension was made in 1902 and a third in 1918. In 1929 three wards, Nakagyo-ku, Sakyo-ku, and Higashiyama-ku were newly added to the city. In 1931 the last annexation was made and two more wards, Ukyo-ku and Fushimi-ku, were constituted.

Population The population grew from 717,100 in 1927, to 736,000 in 1928, to 755,200 in 1929, and due to the above mentioned extensions in the boundaries, was found in 1930, to be 952,397. On October 1, 1935 the total number of population in Kyoto was 1,080,593, that of households was 224,663, and the estimated number of population on October 1, 1936, was 1,108,400, that of households was 230,238.

Industry and Commerce

In 1935 the conditions of factories which employed more than 5 persons in Kyoto were as follows :

	Factories	Operatives	Production (In yen)
Textile	1,020	30,606	92,814,395
Metallurgical	133	2,682	13,179,150
Machinery	185	7,792	22,929,879
Ceramics	51	983	3,466,576
Chemical	70	1,877	13,963,971
Saw milling & wood work	133	1,291	5,918,966
Printing & binding	79	1,570	6,568,332
Foodstuffs	294	4,605	28,070,978
Electric & gas	27	360	5,953,440
Miscellaneous	101	1,650	4,711,467
Total	2,020	53,416	197,577,154

TOTAL INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION OF KYOTO

(1935)

Kind of Industry	Amount in yen
Agriculture	4,638,741
Livestock	4,490,184
Forestry	439,589
Mineral	247,504
Fisheries	52,756
Factries (including all petty shops)	388,892,931
Total	298,761,715
1934	264,128,150
1933	233,713,699

Foreign Trade Not being a port Kyoto cannot carry on trade with foreign countries direct except by parcel post, but the goods consigned to and from foreign countries through other ports were (in ¥1,000).

	1932	1933	1934	1935
Exports	22,334	28,270	38,984	42,490
Imports	4,317	5,315	8,198	9,528

Banking Statistics Figures concerning the banks in the city are quoted below :

(In ¥1,000)

At the end of	No. of Banks	Deposits	Loans
1932	88	453,702	156,344
1933	85	474,504	178,553
1934	80	494,295	208,386
1935	80	535,339	179,773

Commercial and Industrial Corporations At the end of 1935 there were 3,246 companies in Kyoto. Their paid-up capital amounted to ¥293,870. The Kyoto Stock Exchange sold, in the short term section, 14,982,960 shares with the value of ¥1,750,446,000 and delivered 1,500,560 sares with the value of ¥143,972,000.

Transportation

Vehicles At the end of 1935 the number of vehicles was 205,813, including 231 rikisha, 2,766 automobiles and 150,585 bicycles.

Municipal Tramways In 1935–36 the total length of the lines was 65.0 km., and carried 101,441,478 passengers, while the bus ran on 41.4 km. of the lines and carried 10,675,571.

State Railways In 1935–36 the number of passengers who moved through Kyoto and other seven stations in the city was 19,454,053.

Suburban Electric Railways On the north the Eizan Electric Railway extends from Demachi Bridge to Kurama and Mount Hiéi ; on the northwest the Arashiyama line starts Shijoomiya and goes to Arashiyama and connects with the Atago Electric line. To the south Kyoto is connected with Osaka and Nara by three electric railways, i.e. Kei-han Electric, Shin (new) Keihan Electric and Nara Electric. The Kei-han line extends to the east from the terminal of Sanjō to the city of Otsu by Lake Biwa.

Rivers, Water-Power Works

Rivers Almost all the rivers that meet in the Kyoto Basin, rise in the Tamba tableland. The Hozu River, which later changes its name into the Katsura River, touches the western side of the city ; the Kamo River and the Takano River, rise in the southern part of the tableland, join together and flow across the city to empty into the Katsura River. The Uji River, starting from Lake Biwa, and the Katsura River meet in the southern suburbs of the city to form the Yodo River which flows south-westwards, through Osaka, into Osaka Bay.

Canal and Water-power Work The first Biwa Canal, completed in 1895 at

the cost of ¥1,838,317, was designed for the conveyance of passengers and goods and for the supply of water power, while the second canal, completed lately at the cost of ¥4,477,805, supplies water for drinking, fire-brigades and for producing electricity, etc.

The waterworks were started in 1908 and completed in March, 1912, at the cost of ¥3,000,000 of which ¥750,000 came from the State treasury. The water is drawn from Lake Biwa by means of the second canal mentioned above and supplies water to 500,000 people. Further work, to cater to the needs of 200,000 people, is on the way. The supply in 1935–36 was 41,359,087 cubic metres to 147,114 households.

Education

Governmental and Prefectural : Kyoto Imperial University, the Third Higher School, Kyoto Higher Industrial and Art School, Kyoto Higher Sericultural School, Kyoto Sangyo Koshujo (School of Sericulture).

Municipal schools : Kyoto Painting School.

Private schools : Ritsumeikan University, Doshisha University, Ryukoku University, Otani University, Shingonshu University, Buddhist School, Military Arts School.

NUMBER OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTES

(March 1, 1936)

	No.	Instructors	Students
Kindergartens	53	180	4,331
Elementary schools	135	2,937	127,787
Blind, deaf and dumb schools	2	51	363
Girls' high schools	18	533	11,702
Middle schools	13	376	7,599
Technical schools	13	472	11,217
Normal schools	2	94	828
Higher schools	1	62	772
Colleges	16	626	6,203
Universities	6	1,084	9,336
Total	259	6,415	180,138

Libraries and Museums There are also in Kyoto other institutions for educational purposes as the Imperial Gift Museum, Kyoto Municipal Library, Kyoto Fine Arts Museum, and the Memorial Zoological Garden.

Shrines and Temples In 1935 the numbers of Buddhist temples and Shinto shrines for which Kyoto is famous were 403 shrines, 334 preaching places of sectarian Shinto sects, 1,413 Buddhist temples, while Christian churches numbered 52.

Social Work

Conditions of social undertakings under municipal management in 1935–36 were :

	No. of establishments			
Public markets	13		Sales account	2,487,226
Housing	5	places	No. of houses	250
Public baths	4	houses	Bathers	1,400,551
Labour exchanges	3		Cases handled	26,593
			Employed	11,413
Lodging houses	2		Lodgers	32,790
Lunch-room	1		Meals	91,504

Finance

The annual revenue and expenditure, both general and special, of Kyoto amounted to :

Fiscal Year	Revenue	Expenditure
	(In ¥1,000)	
1931-32	40,548	40,444
1932-33	37,517	37,002
1933-34	26,083	36,302
1934-35	27,453	37,884
1935-36	28,527	42,869
1936-37	30,608	43,945

Municipal debts outstanding on May 31, 1936 totalled ¥56,866,161 or ¥51.351 per capita of population.

Nagoya

Nagoya is situated in the very centre of the main island. Facing Isé Bay on the south and bordered by the fertile plain of No-Bi on the north, the climate

is always mild. Nagoya castle, with its famous golden dolphins, speaks of the glorious history of the city, but one cannot live on the past, and old and historically important as the city may be, she fills today a more important rôle than of old, for she is a distributing and industrial centre for the middle part of Honshu, a rôle that will grow in importance as time goes on.

Area and Population

The increases of population and area during the past 11 years, 1926–35, are shown in the following table :

On Octber 1	Population	No. of Households	Area (sq. km.)
1926	801,900	168,466	148.142
1927	835,700	175,567	148.929
1928	869,900	182,752	148.929
1929	904,700	190,063	148.929
1930 (census)	907,404	190,379	150.733
1931	934,400	198,000	151.044
1932	961,800	203,700	151.044
1933	989,600	209,700	151.044
1934	1,017,700	215,600	151.044
1935 (census)	1,082,816	219,737	151.093

Buildings Number of buildings at the end of 1935 was as follows :

Stone buildings	549
Brick buildings	310
Wooden buildings	261,289
Others	27,651
Total	289,799

Commerce and Industry

Companies and Banks At the end of 1935 the number of business corporations in Nagoya was 7,865, and that of banks 7 with 79 branches. At the end of 1935 their deposits amounted to ¥494,557,000 outstanding loans to ¥216,038.

Domestic and Foreign Trade Foreign and home trade values in recent three years were as follows :

	EXPORTS	INPORTS
Home trade	(In yen)	
1933	41,596,840	122,252,842
1934	47,397,255	137,081,837
1935	57,205,175	149,122,814
Foreign trade		
1933	89,420,348	91,178,124
1934	115,515,093	88,526,006
1935	129,478,126	95,528,520
Totals of home and foreign trades	(In yen)	
1933	131,017,188	213,430,966
1934	162,912,348	225,607,843
1935	186,683,301	244,651,334

In 1934, in home trade, shipments of rice, other cereals, wheat flour, sugar, confectioneries, cotton tissues, iron, timber, wooden board and boxes, knitted goods, chemicals, ceramics, iron, coal and fertilizers exceeded million yen each, ceramics heading the list with ¥6,094,393 ; receipts of rice amounted to ¥18,374,253, sugar ¥23,566,909, lumber ¥11,967,617, coal and charcoal ¥20,909,053, and iron and manufactures ¥20,129,153. In foreign trade, exports of wheat flour amounted to ¥1,303,195, beer ¥1,269,563, cotton tissues ¥48,187,708, ceramics ¥36,-967,953, iron manufactures ¥2,087,768, boards for boxes and casks ¥2,698,185, veneer boards and other planks ¥2,274,-281, rolling stocks ¥5,220,961, toys ¥3,191,-018 and sinning machines ¥2,325,325 ; imports of wheat amounted to ¥3,260,236, wool ¥41,873,854, cotton ¥2,521,439, timber ¥6,595,799, coal ¥5,820,519, and machines ¥5,844,474.

Exchanges Nagoya has three exchanges, i. e. the Stock Exchange, Rice Exchange and Cotton Yarn Exchange. In 1935, the turnover of the Stock Exchange was 178,730 shares long term transaction valued at ¥14,547,501. The Rice Exchange handled 5,026,100 koku while the Cotton Yarn Exchange handled 1,556,760 bales.

Industry Commodities that are brought into city are foodstuffs and raw materials such as rice, sugar, timber, coal, ginned cotton, iron, wool, etc., while those sent out are mainly lumber, coal, cotton piecegoods, porcelain and pottery, beer, cement and other manufactures. Nagoya has been from olden times a famous place for porcelain and pottery and in 1935 the output totalled as much as ¥21,819,000. It is only since the growth of the cotton spinning industry in the city that the value of the annual output of pottery has been challenged. The total production of the cotton spinning

industry reached ¥153,127,000 in 1935. An equally significant development is that of the machine and machinery. In 1935 the total output of machine industry reached ¥96,346,000, an increase of 19.8 per cent as compared with the previous year.

Number of Factories and Production Number of factories employing more than 5 operatives and productions of various industries in 1935 follow :

Kind of industries	Factories		Operatives		Output (in ¥1,000)	
	1934	1935	1934	1935	1934	1935
Textile	557	577	29,631	27,748	154,921	153,127
Metallic	284	362	4,884	5,600	12,860	15,813
Mechanical	725	815	28,580	32,674	80,401	96,346
Pottery and porcelain	183	194	10,484	11,268	21,467	21,819
Chemical	132	150	3,514	3,852	2,861	24,840
Saw mills and wood works	454	588	6,139	7,070	23,614	25,735
Printing and bookbinding	157	173	2,287	2,632	8,779	9,717
Comestibles and beverages	328	415	3,543	3,959	39,758	43,796
Gas and electric	3	3	203	198	9,241	7,196
Others	650	731	5,563	5,747	18,523	20,541
Total	3,473	4,008	94,828	100,748	390,425	418,930

Transportation

Railways Lying as it does between Kyoto, the old capital, and Tokyo, the present capital, Nagoya is known as Chukyo (middle capital). It is an important intermediate city on the Tokaido highway. The Kwansai line, which starts from Osaka, passes through Nara and Miyé prefectures and connects at Nagoya with the main Tokaido line to Tokyo. The Chuo line, which runs through Gifu, Nagano, Yamanashi and other prefectures to Tokyo, has Nagoya as its other terminus. Nagoya is thus one of the most important railway centres of Japan. The railway station and the harbour are directly connected by rail and the importance of the city as a distributor of goods is thereby enhanced. There are 8 stations, viz., Nagoya Minato, Atsuta, Chikusa, Ozoné, Hatta, Shiratori, and Horikawaguchi. The annual passenger traffic passing through these 8 stations is estimated at about fifteen million persons, and goods traffic amounts to approximately three million tons. The city is provided with an extensive network of electric railway lines to connect with outlying districts. The principal ones are :

(1) Mei-Gi Railway extends to Gifu, Ichinomiya, Inuyama and Tsushima ; (2) Seto Electric Railway runs to Seto ; (3) Aichi Electric Railway to Toyohashi and Tokonamé ; (4) Shimonoseki Electric Railway to Shimonoseki ; and (5) the new Mikawa Railway.

At the end of 1935 the total length of roads in Nagoya extended to 3,141 kilometres, the number of bridges 542, that of vehicles 190,133.

Harbour Works Nagoya has a splendid harbour well protected by Chita Peninsula from typhoons. Construction of the harbour was started in 1896 and the third stage of the entire plan was completed in 1928 after a total outlay of ¥15,490,000. The area of the wharves is 1.52 square kilometres, with anchoring space for thirty-eight steamers of ten thousand tons or so. The fourth stage of construction was undertaken at an estimated expenditure of ¥10,120,000. When the work is finished the area of the wharves will be increased to 2.23 square kilometres and there will be anchoring space for fifty-two steamers of ten thousand tons. At present direct trade is carried on with the American continent, Europe, China, the South Sea Islands, Australia and Africa.

Education and Social Work

Social Work Social undertakings in the city in 1935–36, were as follows :

	Establishment	Beneficiaries
Municipal houses to let	269	Households 227
Lodging houses	10	342,842
Public pawnshops	4	Persons 48,884 Loans ¥234,308
Labour exchanges	9	Cases handled 562,257

Educational Facilities In March, 1936 the number of schools and pupils in Nagoya was 369 and 208,681 respectively classified as follows: 39 kindergartens with 3,491 children; 111 elementary schools with 147,643 pupils; 151 secondary schools including the young people schools with 45,479 pupils; 7 collegiate schools with 3,254 students, 2 blind and deaf-mute schools with 313 pupils; and 58 miscellaneous schools with 8,121 students.

Among the above mentioned schools those belonging to the municipality were:

Kind of schools	No.	Classes	Instructops	Pupils
Elementary schools	109	2,686	2,977	6,530
Girls' high schools	3	—	85	2,676
Commercial schools	3	—	99	2,594
Technical school	1	—	40	605
Young peoples' schools	100	—	1,056	12,810
Business continuation schools	29	—	417	3,517
Kindergartens	4	23	24	687

Total educational expenditure including others ¥6,639,509

Finance

Revenue and Expenditure The annual revenue and expenditure of Nagoya city has shown a marked increase of late as it is clear by the following table:

Year	Revenue	Expenditure		
		Ordinary	Special	Total
	¥	¥	¥	¥
1928-29	19,438,161	11,663,553	7,275,835	18,939,388
1929-30	25,390,085	18,219,390	7,034,796	25,254,186
1930-31	31,477,355	23,545,976	6,878,659	30,424,635
1931-32	37,963,011	28,946,961	7,126,598	36,073,559
1932-33	45,421,218	36,644,010	7,163,058	43,807,068
1933-34	84,689,082	76,511,764	7,578,021	84,089,785
1934-35	35,894,410	25,738,008	10,156,402	35,894,410
1935-36	54,043,639	44,205,138	7,838,501	54,043,639
1936-37	66,689,000	25,639,000	41,050,000	66,689,000

Municipal Loans At the end of March, 1936, the total indebtedness of Nagoya city amounted to ¥99,597,000 or ¥91.00 per capita of population.

Yokohama

General

History Yokohama, in the Bunroku Era, about 1587, was a hamlet of twelve families and by the time it became an open port, July 1, 1859, it was only a small fishing village of one hundred families or 350 people. The real growth began with the arrival of the foreigners. The commercial treaties Japan entered into with the United States of America, the Netherlands, Russia, Great Britain, and France stipulated that Kanagawa should be an open port, because it stood on the open harbour nearest Tokyo, then known as Yedo and the seat of the Shogunate Government, but as that village was already very crowded the Tokugawa Shogunate opened up the village of Yokohama instead.

In the beginning four streets were laid out, but as more and more Western, Chinese and Japanese merchants gathered there the area was quickly extended. The population in 1877 was 30,000, five years later it had grown to 52,000, and five years after that there were more than 94,000 in the town. At the end of September, 1932, the population was 661,500. Yokohama received the status of a municipality on April 1, 1889. In 1901, the once thriving port of Kanagawa and other adjoining villages and towns were absorbed by the newly risen Yokohama, and in 1911 and 1927, further extensions took place.

Quake and Rehabilitation Yokohama and suburbs suffered severely in the great earthquake and fire which occurred on September 1, 1923. Prac-

tically the whole town was reduced to ruins and ashes, but with the untiring efforts of its citizens, together with generous support from outside, the reconstruction of the town was completed, as originally planned, within six years of the disaster. On April 22, 1929, His Majesty the Emperor honoured the city with a visit of inspection, and the following day the municipality celebrated the completion of its programme of reconstruction which, in truth, was the creation of a new city out of a pile of cinders.

On April 1, 1927, two adjoining towns and seven villages, with a population of 115,757, were annexed to the municipality, and on October 1 of the same year the whole city was re-divided into five wards; Tsurumi, Kanagawa, Naka, Hodogaya and Isogo. By that time the construction of the gigantic breakwaters, the reclamation at Namamugi and Koyasu and the extension of the waterworks was completed, and the perpetual land leases were being bought back by the municipality one after another.

Location Yokohama is situated in the south-eastern part of Honshu, the main island of Japan, on the western shore of the Bay of Tokyo about 22 miles from the entrance to the bay, in latitude 35° 27′ N., longitude 139° 38′ E. It is the seat of government of Kanagawa prefecture, of which it is also the largest population centre. It is surrounded by hills on which the better class residential districts are located.

Climate Yokohama's location on the Bay of Tokyo serves to modify the heat of summer, the nights being generally cool and comfortable. In the summer months there is an absence of rainfall. Rain is most abundant in June and September, the two rainy seasons of the year, at which times the humidity is trying, but never so bad that the climate is unbearable. In winter the sky is clear and the atmosphere crisp and invigorating. In February there is a short season of damp cold during which there are occasional snowfalls. From March spring begins, with bright sunny days and frequent strong winds. During the summer months typhoons are to be expected, but Yokohama harbour is protected from their violence.

Area and Population At the end of 1935 the area of Yokohama was 135.-63 square kilometres. The population of Yokohama was on Oct. 31, 1936 738,-400 of which 377,200 were male and 361,-200 female while the population in 1930 was 620,306, of which 321,415 were male and 298,891 female. The area of Yokohama was 135.63 square kilometres in 1935.

POPULATION

	Men	Women	Total	Households
1925 (Census)	214,341	191,547	405,888	95,377
1930 (,,)	321,415	298,891	620,301	135,929
1931 (Estimate)	331,300	309,500	640,800	140,338
1932 (,,)	341,300	320,200	661,500	144,923
1933 (,,)	351,500	331,100	682,600	149,531
1934 (,,)	361,700	342,200	703,900	154,181
1935 (Census)	360,363	343,927	704,290	148,545
1936 (Estimate)	377,200	361,200	738,400	—

Foreign Residents Foreign population in Yokohama numbered 5,484 at the end December, 1936, against 5,088 in 1935, the increase being 396. Chinese increased by 169 during the same period, Hindu 78, German 45, American 19 and English 18. But this foreign population of 5,484 is still a big decrease if compared to 7,-492 in 1922 which at the end of 1923 diminished to almost a few hundreds on account of the great earthquake.

FOREIGN RESIDENTS IN YOKOHAMA

(1936)

	Households	Men	Women	Total
Britain	261	294	307	601
America	151	194	156	350
Germany	107	239	108	247
France	44	50	57	107
Russia	66	84	84	168

	Households	Men	Women	Total
Switzerland	30	36	29	65
Italy	16	15	18	33
China	935	2,215	1,272	3,489
India	40	96	24	120
Other & Total	1,771	3,288	2,198	5,484

Commerce

Raw Silk Transactions of raw silks made at the Yokohama Raw Silk Exchange in 1936 (January-December) amounted to ¥864,190,725 against 1,128,048 bales, deliveries reaching ¥10,162,400 against 13,550 bales. This means a big increase of transactions both in value and quantity compared with 1935.

RAW SILK TRANSACTION AT THE YOKOHAMA RAW SILK EXCHANGE

	Transactions		Deliveries	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
	Bale	yen	Bale	yen
1931	536,422	336,324,821	2,890	17,345,100
1932	465,026	336,124,804	13,030	8,514,300
1933	485,119	361,945,944	8,030	5,796,200
1934	503,703	264,579,837	8,950	4,924,900
1935	847,822	624,649,475	11,850	8,956,700
1936	1,128,048	864,190,725	13,550	10,162,400

Banks At the end of December, 1936, the number of banks in Yokohama including branches of those banks having their head offices in cities other than Yokohama counted 16 of which 3 were foreign banks. The banks which are carrying on foreign exchange business extensively are Yokohama Specie Bank, Dai-ichi Bank (branch), Mitsui Bank (branch), Sumitomo Bank (branch). Bank of Taiwan (branch), Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation (branch), Bank of India. Australia & China (branch) and National City Bank of New York (branch). The banks domiciled in Yokohama numbered 5 in December 1936, the most powerful one being the Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd. The 16 banks showed the following accounts in aggregate as outstanding on Dec. 31, 1936 : Deposits ¥370,950,000,000 discounts & advances ¥203,788,000. 12 out of the 16 banks were on Dec. 31, 1936, member banks of the Yokohama Clearence House.

Companies At the end of 1936 there were 1,476 commercial and industrial companies in Yokohama of which 936 were for trade and 438 for industries.

Warehouses At the end of 1936 Stocks in all warehouses in Yokohama were balanced at ¥79,465,634 as against ¥113,366,674 at the end of 1935. Stocks stored in during 1936 were valued at ¥62,900,988 and those withdrawn ¥67,677,236.

Foreign Trade Goods exported from the port of Yokohama for foreign countries in 1936 amounted to ¥673,323,067 of which raw silk shared ¥296,600,978 and goods imported in the same year were valued at ¥687,012,153 the adverse balance being ¥8,689,086.

FOREIGN TRADE THROUGH YOKOHAMA

(In ¥1,000)

	Exports	Imports	Total	Excess of
1931	370,662	305,637	676,299	ex. 65,025
1932	400,659	355,358	756,017	,, 45,031
1933	500,888	456,354	957,242	,, 44,534
1934	490,201	537,316	1,027,517	im. 47,115
1935	626,017	616,588	1,242,605	ex. 9,429
1936	678,323	687,012	1,365,335	im. 8,689

EXPORTS

(In ¥1,000)

Articles	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Wheat flour	6,557	11,011	22,701	19,805	27,173
Canned Crab	1,772	10,377	17,726	13,945	18,362
Raw silk	250,694	262,252	274,691	204,640	283,771
Silk crepe	7,335	7,671	13,935	20,632	7,453
Electric lamps	4,388	9,026	7,750	6,935	5,763
Toys	6,013	9,360	15,184	17,498	17,945

IMPORTS

(¥1,000)

Articles	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Wheat	17,103	26,809	27,414	25,040	30,789
Crude oil & heavy oil	14,752	21,563	29,305	38,193	47,751
Rubber	2,411	3,267	5,705	12,571	11,944
Cotton	21,894	31,601	41,898	48,601	52,210
Wool	13,959	19,584	39,595	43,763	40,715
Coal	7,447	7,334	9,145	10,845	11,785
Automobiles & parts	10.389	9,226	8,988	19,073	20,581
Lumber	13,044	10,907	11,819	11,169	4,483
Soya beans	—	—	—	8,375	13,393

RAW SILK EXPORTED TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES FROM YOKOHAMA, 1936

Countries	Quantities Bale	Value ¥
U. S.	329,778	255,712,142
Canada	818	642,352
Great Britain	20,338	16,527,531
France	20,770	16,347,965
Australia	3,593	2,956,500
Other Countries	7,456	4,414,488
Total	382,753	296,600,978
From all Japan	503,382	392,808,919

Industries

Factories and Production At the end of 1935 there were 115 factories for the spinning industry, 47 for the metallic industry, 107 for the machine and machinery manufacturing industry and 69 for the chemical industry, all showing expansion compared with 1934 while the most conspicuous one being the chemical industry which increased from 57 to 69. Both the number of workers and the amount of production also showed a corresponding increase, workers increasing from 31,184 to 47,625 and production from ¥278,151,503 to ¥334,409,880.

FACTORIES AND PRODUCTION IN YOKOHAMA

(1935)

Kind	Factories	Workers	Production (in yen)
Spinning	115	6,650	15,390,798
Metallic	47	6,129	49,454,427
Machine & machinery	107	20,599	145,915,504
Ceramies	15	1,631	10,490,014
Chemical	69	4,817	86,736,544
Wood works	65	1,256	3,914,085
Printing & book binding	44	736	1,892,515
Commodities	108	3,281	42,952,126
Gas & Electricity	4	390	13,881,958
Miscellaneous	125	2,036	3,881,958
Total	699	47,625	334,409,880

Note: This table excludes small factories operated by less than 5 workers.

Transportation

Ships The total tonnage of vessels that entered the port of Yokohama in 1936 reached 2,440,443 of which 710,243 were vessels in the coastwise navigation and 1,128 were sailboats of both Japanese and foreign ownership.

Ships that Entered the Port of Yokohama*

	Japanese		Foreign		
	Number	Tonnage	Number	Tonnage	Total Tonnage
1336	4,794	17,683,419	1,295	9,878,913	28,562,332
1935	4,513	16,862,724	1,238	9,922,565	26,785,289
1934	4,209	15,775,289	908	8,494,568	24,269,857
1933	4,159	15,205,015	883	7,909,745	23,114,760
1932	4,061	14,438,209	824	7,769,175	22,207,384
1931	4,092	14,384,796	919	7,988,359	22,373,155

*Source: The Harbour Department of the Imperial Customs of Yokohama.

Passengers Passengers by ocean-going vessels who landed and called at Yokohama in 1936 totalled 66,559 of whom 23,409 were those whose sea journeys ended at Yokohama and 43,150 were those who just called.

Below are given the nationalities of the passengers :

Nationalities	Number	
	Those who landed	Those who called
Japanese	12,261	6,388
Chines	1,823	15,974
British	2,673	3,331
French	121	118
German	442	396
American	4,809	12,053
Other foreigners	1,280	4,890
Total	23,409	43,150

Railway Passengers In 1935 the Government railway passenger who left and arrived at Yokohama, Sakuragicho, Tsurumi, Higashi-kanagawa and Hodogaya stations numbered 36,321,396.

Electric Tramways Tramways were first installed in July, 1904, by a private company and later were purchased by the municipality. There are now over 50 kilometres of lines and carried 43,543,943 persons in 1935. There are five private tramway companies attending to the suburban services, viz., the Keihin Electric Tramway, the Tokyo-Yokohama Electric Ry., Tsurumi-Rinko Ry. Co., Shonan-Electric Ry., and the Jinchu Electric Ry. The number of passengers of these private tramways for 1935 was 45,123,969.

Miscellaneous In 1934 the length of roads in Yokohama was 2,066.769 km. and the number of bridges 529.

In March, 1934, the total number of vehicles was 92,920, of which automobiles numbered 1,359 while bicycles totalled 73,062.

Education

Schools and Colleges On March 1, 1936, there were 71 elementary schools, of which 68 were maintained by the municipality. The number of children at these schools was 101,090.

There were 21 kindergartens with 1,286 children.

The number of middle grade, higher, and special schools and their pupils follows :

	No.	Students or pupils
Middle schools	6	4,180
Girls' high schools	8	5,101
Technical schools	10	5,230
Business continuation schools	25	3,878
Blind, deaf and mute schools	3	181
Colleges:		
Governmental	2	1,017
Municipal	1	366
Private	2	1,544
Total	5	2,927
Prefectural normal School	1	352

Young Men's Training Institutes The number of these institutes follows :

Municipal	30	3,372
Private	2	90

Libraries The library statistics as of March 1, 1936 were as follows :

	No.	Books	Visitors
Prefectural	1	10,012	1,580
Municipal	1	42,515	260,547
Private	2	22,560	10,654
Total	4	75,087	272,781

Religion In 1935 the number of Shinto shrines was 150, Buddhist temples 199, and Christian churches 30.

Social Works In 1935 the conditions of social works in Yokohama were as follows :

	Establishments		Beneficiaries
Employment exchanges	7	cases	356,945
		employed	333,116
Lunch halls	5		46,568
Pawnshops	12	Loans	¥678,901
Housing houses	2,063	households	1,525
Lodging houses	2		99,238
Proof relief			15,308

Finance

Revenue and Expenditure The ordinary revenue and expenditure of the city of Yokohama in 1929 to 1936, amounted respectively to :

1930-1931	¥16,171,428
1931-1932	15,182,861
1932-1933	16,540,066
1933-1934	18,799,462
1934-1935	15,245,519
1935-1936 (estimate)	14,087,166
1936-1937 („)	15,421,228

In 1936–37 budget of Yokohama the total amount of ordinary expenditure was estimated at ¥15,421,228. Itemized details follow :

Items	Amount in yen	Percentage
Municipal office	975,560	6.4
Education	3,320,000	21.5
Industry	242,178	1.6
Hygiene	560,780	3.6
Social works	403,776	2.6
Public works	903,335	6.0
Loans	8,381,364	54.3
Miscellaneous	634,235	4.0
Total	15,421,228	100.0

Bonded Indebtedness At the end of March, 1935, the total bonded indebtedness of Yokohama city amounted to ¥174,488,006.

Kobé

General

Located between the Osaka Bay and the Rokko mountain range, Kobé covers an area of 198 square kilometres, stretching 18 kilometres from east to west and 13.5 kilometres from north to south. With a population of 912,179 including about 9,122 foreigners, Kobé is one of the six largest cities in Japan. It is the "City of Wonders", as an international trade centre in the world. It ranks second in the revenue of bill-of-lading freight, London coming first.

Before the Restoration of Meiji in 1868, there were less than a thousand houses in Kobé, fishermen's village. In 1867 Hyogo harbour (Hyogo village) was first opened to foreign trade and then the foreign settlement came into existence near the East Recreation Ground in Kobé village and Kobé harbour has since been gradually turned to advantage. Since then Kobé has increased in population, Accordingly, Kobé village grew into the "Town of Kobé" in 1868. Hyogo and Sakamoto villages being annexed to it in 1879, the city of Kobé was born in 7889. Recently neighbouring villages being annexed again, Kobé has become a "Prospering Greater Kobé".

Geographical Position and Area The city of Kobé lies on the south-west coast of Hyogo prefecture in the Kansai district of Honshu, situated at 135° 5′–15′ E. long. and 34°38′–45′ N. lat. The greatest length from west to east is 14.47 kilometres and the greatest breadth from north to south is 13.5 kilometres, the total area being 83.06 square kilometres, of which about 60 per cent is occupied by mountains and hills, and the rest by farms and the city proper. The form of the city is like a long band, and is divided into eight wards known at Nada, Fukiai, Kobé, Hyogo, Soto, Minato, Hayashida, and Suma.

Climate The city of Kobé has an exhilarating climate at all seasons of the year on account of the advantage of its geographical position. It is backed by the Rokko mountain-chain and faces the Chinu Sea in Osaka Bay. The average temperature is 15° C (59° F). During summer the temperature sometimes runs up to 36° 4′ C (97.5° F), but the average temperature of August and September is 25°4′ C (77.7° F). In winter the thermometer sometimes ranges about 4° 4′ C below zero (24.1 F)′ but snow is rarely

seen. The highest temperature in 1935 was registered at 36.4° C (97.5° F), and the lowest temperature 3.8° below zero (27.0° F) the average of the year being 15° C (59° F). The precipitation in the same year was 1,759.9 mm.

Population The following are the results of the national census for the year 1935 :

Families	198,018
Population	912,179

As compared with the results of the general census taken in 1930, the population has increased 124,563 (15.8%), and the families 19,693 (11.0%) during the interval of five years.

Foreign Residents According to the statistics taken by the police office of Kobé, at the end of 1935, the total number of foreign residents in Kobé was 9,147.

Houses With the exception of public and municipal buildings and the houses of foreign residents, the total number of houses in the city was registered as 86,615 at the end of 1927, among which one-storied houses numbered 44,473, two-storied ones 41,185, and three-storied ones 957. There were 84,507 buildings of wood, 98 per cent of the total number ; of brick 1,651 ; of concrete 402 ; and of stone 11.

Waterworks The waterworks were at first designed in 1909 to supply 3 cu. ft. per capita a day to 250,000 inhabitants, but the plan was later altered to provided for 100,000 families, 25 cu. ft. a day. The work lasted until 1923 and cost ¥12,858,720, of which state grants amounted to ¥3,403,000. In 1926, the municipality increased its water supply by laying pipes in the eastern suburbs to draw water from the Sengari pond behind Mt. Rokko. In 1935 the city supplied 52,803,380 cubic metres to 167,576 households and other uses.

Police Stations The total number of police stations in the city at the end of March, 1935 was 10. Police boxes numbered 185, and policemen 1,800.

Commerce and Industry

Movement of Commodities The movement of commodities through the Kobé harbour and railway stations in 1934 within Japan proper and Chosen was as follows :

	Tonnage (in 1,000 tons)	Value (in yen) Japan proper	Chosen
Outgoing	2,436	477,315,042	32,191,212
Incoming	4,916	357,710,973	57,128,612
Total	7,352	835,026,015	89,319,824

Foreign Trade The grand total of exports and imports in 1935 was ¥1,732,540,000, showing an excess of ¥89,258,000 of imports over exports.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF KOBÉ IN 1929-1935

(In 1,000 yen)

	Exports	Imports	Grand total	Excess of
1929	701,893	882,331	1,584,206	im. 943
1930	523,172	563,649	1,086,821	im. 40,476
1931	409,011	457,740	866,751	,, 48,729
1932	499,303	535,647	1,034,950	,, 36,344
1933	650,539	641,122	1,291,661	ex. 9,418
1934	790,601	791,544	1,582,145	im. 943
1935	910,899	821,641	1,732,540	im. 89,258

Warehousing At the end of 1935 number of principal warehouse companies in Kobé was 8 and the aggregate floor area covered by the warehouses was 146,803 tsubo. In 1935, goods received by these warehouses were valued at ¥627,570,000, while ¥684.016.000 worth of goods were delivered. Goods stored at the year end amounted to ¥96,949,000.

Electricity and Gas At the end of 1934 the number of electric lamps in the city was 836,176 and electric motors 8,354. In the same year the municipality which undertakes the electric business got ¥12,391,978 from it.

In 1934, gas was supplied to 133,448 families with 347,633 spouts.

Banks and Business Firms At the end of 1935 the total number of banks and branches was 65, i. e. 3 banks, 15 branches thereof, and 40 branches of banks in other cities including 7 branches of savings banks. The deposits of ordinary banks and branches outstanding at the end 1934 amounted to ¥475,635,736 and advances and loans ¥252,738,022.

In 1935 the clearing house turned over 3,088,841 bills with the value of ¥6,009,715,000, gaining over the previous year 226,632 bills and ¥576,355,000 respectively.

At the end of 1934 the number of companies was 3,082 with the paid-up capital amounting to ¥780,819,648.

Factories and their Workers At the

end of 1934 there were 859 factories. The total number of the staff was 5,888, that of workers 62,073, and the total production was valued at ¥367,379,325.

Transportation

Roads At the end of 1935 the total length of roads in the city reached 691.02 km. gaining 4.6 km. as compared with the previous year.

Sea Transportation In 1935 the number of ships which entered the Kobé harbour was 105,642 with 52,359,980 gross tons, of which registered tonnage was 28,334,334 tons.

Of the total number 101,224 were vessels sailing home waters and 4,418 on international courses. The foreign vessels numbered 1,272 Great Britain heading the list with 543 (2,907,690 tons), followed by the U.S.A. with 231 (1,497,666 tons).

VESSELS ENTERED KOBÉ

	Number of vessels	Tonnage
1933	90,479	46,382,542
1934	97,170	49,481,808
1935	105,642	52,359,980

Vehicles At the end of 1935 total number of vehicles of various kinds was 72,879. The itemized table follows :

March 31 of	Rikisha	Wagons and Carts	Automobiles	Autocycles	Bicycles
1931	1,046	15,336	1,549	684	65,379
1932	801	12,527	1,549	771	68,847
1933	654	12,151	1,584	862	71,609
1934	489	10,792	1,598	939	74,030
1935	302	8,591	1,656	973	72,614
At the end of 1935	334	6,652	2,333	1,572	61,988

Railways In 1934 the total number of passengers who left from and arrived at 12 stations in Kobé was 46,075,637.

Electric Tramways The tramways within the city limits are operated by the municipality, the total open mileage being 62,746 km. at the end of 1934. Attending to the suburban service, there are private companies, the Sanyo Eectric Tramway (Hyogo-Himeji), Han-Shin Electric Ry., (Kobé-Osaka), Han-Shin Express Electric Ry., (Kobé-Osaka), and the Shin-Yu Electric Railway (Kobé-Arima). Han-Shin Kokudo Ry. was laid along the national road between Osaka and Kobé in 1927 and opened business in 1932, forming a parallel line to the state railway.

Education, Religion and Social Works

Schools In 1935 the number of elementary schools was 67, including 64 municipal schools, with 2,406 teachers and 113,782 pupils. Middle schools numbered 5, of which 3 were prefectural schools and 2 were private schools, with 180 teachers and 4,935 boys. The number of girls' high schools was 17, and pupils 11,437. The number of business schools was 15, of which 8 were commercial, 2 were technical, 4 were business and 5 were young people's schools. The total number of teachers was 452 and students 10,636. There is a government university of commerce and a technical college. In 1935 Kobé expended ¥6,464,926 for educational purposes.

Shrines, Temples and Churches .At the end of 1935 there were 100 Shinto shrines, 152 Buddhist temples, 397 Tenrikyo and Shinto churches, 254 Buddhist halls, and 55 Christian churches.

Social Welfare Work At the end of 1935 municipal establishments for social welfare work were as follows :

Markets, 11 ; cheap eating-houses,6 ; employment exchanges, 4 ; public nurseries, 2 ; lodging-houses, 4 ; child consultation offices, 1 ; municipal dwelling-houses, 2 places ; municipal pawnshops, 3 ; relief houses, 2 ; peoples' hospitals, 3 ; sanatorium, 1.

Finance

In 1933–34 Kobé received ¥44,305,647 and expended ¥42,652,765. The ways and means of the municipality for the past 5 years follow :

	Revenue	Expenditure
1930-31	44,818,597	44,991,844
1931-32	39,993,340	46,897,568
1932-33	40,362,920	41,566,316
1933-34	44,305,647	42,652,765
1934-35 (estimate)	49,306,906	50,161,680
1935-36 (estimate)	52,421,173	53,928,579
1936-37 (estimate)	53,903,396	56,174,874

The total amount of the city loans standing at the end of March, 1936, was ¥107,273,938. The loans and the sum borrowed in cash in the fiscal year 1935–36 was ¥112,712,700 while the sum refunded was ¥5,438,762.

CHAPTER XL

CHOSEN (KOREA)

General Description

Chosen, a peninsula extending southward from the north-eastern side of the continent of Asia, is washed on its eastern and western coasts by the Sea of Japan and the Yellow Sea respectively, and borders Manchoukuo and the Maritime Province of Siberia on the north, from which it is separated by the two rivers, the Yalu or Oryokko and the Tumen. Between the upper waters of these two rivers there is a mountain range which separates and turns them in opposite directions, the former flowing through Antung into the Yellow Sea. On the south the peninsula faces the Island of Kyushu and the western coast of Honshu, across the Korean Straits, with the islands of Tsushima and Iki about midway. It lies between the parallels of 33°06′ and 43° north and 124°11′ and 130°56′ east, having a total area of 220,740.72 square kilometres which is about one-third of the area of the whole empire.

Surrounded thus by sea on three sides, Chosen has a long coast line extending in all to 8,674 kilometres. It has many good harbours on the south and west coasts, such as Fusan, Reisui, Moppo, Jinsen and Chinnampo. The tides rise far higher on the west coast than on the east, the difference between the highest and the lowest tide-mark on the former reaching over ten metres, while on the east coast near Gensan it is less than half a metre. The country is as a whole mountainous, the eastern side steep and rocky, but sloping down more gently on the western side toward fertile plains traversed by large rivers such as the Daido, Kan, Kin and Rakuto. The northern half of the peninsula is comparatively level and fit for agricultural work, whilst the southern half is rich in timber and minerals indicating good possibilities for future industrial development. The climate in Chosen is continental running to extremities of both heat and cold, the spring and autumn seasons being very short though highly delightful. One needs hardly add that the climate is decidedly rigorous in the north and milder in the south. Moreover, the eastern coast has on the whole a milder climate than the western, the average temperature being some 2° C. higher, except in the middle of summer.

Flora and Fauna Plants in Chosen are classified into 160 families, 883 genus, 3,070 species and 550 varieties. Of these five genus and 500 species are peculiar to the country. The pine, larch, spruce, juniper, oak, willow, maple, alder and birch trees are found over the whole peninsula, the spruce, larch and birch mainly in the north, and the pine, oak, maple and alder in the south. Large specimens of old sophora, ginko biloba and spruce are also scattered over the country, especially in the central district; they are remnants of ancient forests and old temple sites. The poplar tree of Korean type exists, but the Lombardy poplar and the acacia have been imported and both are found widely scattered as aids against erosion. Flowering shrubs such as azalea, cherry lilac, syringa and spiraea are numerous and grow profusely on hill sides. The beech, maple and paulownia found on Dagelet Island are peculiar to that place. The soil and climate of Chosen have proved most suitable for the cultivation of fruit trees, and large orchards for imported apples, pears, peaches and vines have been set up. The walnut, chestnut, pinenut and persimmon are indigenous and yield good crops.

Fauna of Chosen is of the Palaearctic geographical distribution. Animals commonly found are the boar, deer, wildcat, wolf, hare, weasel, tiger and leopard, (the number of the last two is now much reduced). Native horses are small, but strong and wiry; the cattle are large and useful and are widely distributed. Among birds are the crow, magpie, jay, kite, heron, crane, oriole, lark, sparrow, robin, tits, pheasant, and quail, while the goose, bustard, duck, teal, swan and snipe are migratory, passing Chosen in spring and in autumn. The variety of acquatic animals is extensive, comprising the mackerel, sardine, herring, sea bream, plaice, cod, pollack, whale, oyster, crab and lobster. Various kinds of the snake are

found everywhere, but few are venomous. Insect life has been well studied, as many are harmful to trees and crops. Among butterflies over two hundred species have been identified.

Population

According to the report of the Ministry for Overseas Affairs, the popuation of Chosen in 1935 was as follows :

POPULATION OF CHOSEN (Dec. 31, 1935)

Province	Japanese	Koreans	Foreign (incl. the Chinese)	Total
Keiki	147,671	2,171,713	11,186	2,330,570
North Chusei	8,530	904,228	649	913,407
South Chusei	25,219	1,442,614	1,807	1,469,640
North Zenra	35,475	1,497,946	2,406	1,535,827
South Zenra	42,908	2,365,465	1,229	2,409,602
North Keisho	48,607	2,419,140	1,356	2,469,103
South Keisho	95,078	2,095,270	1,164	2,191,512
Kokai	19,466	1,597,050	3,202	1,619,718
South Heian	37,039	1,367,239	4,753	1,409,031
North Heian	21,737	1,577,981	18,067	1,617,785
Kogen	13,641	1,514,908	808	1,529,357
South Kankyo	46,207	1,551,033	6,095	1,603,335
North Kankyo	41,850	744,277	6,166	792,293
Total	583,428	21,248,864	58,888	21,891,180
1934	561,384	20,513,804	50,639	21,125,827
1933	543,104	20,791,321	42,626	20,791,321
1932	528,452	20,037,273	39,151	19,599,876
1925	424,740	18,543,326	47,460	19,015,528
1920	347,850	16,916,078	25,031	17,288,989
1910	171,543	13,128,780	12,694	13,313,017

The following is the classification of the population of Chosen according to occupation :

POPULATION ACCORDING TO OCCUPATION (Dec. 31, 1935)

Occupation	Japanese	Koreans	Foreign	Total
Agriculture, forestry, stock-raising, fishery, etc.	47,794	16,899,866	58,888	16,959,615
Industry	80,606	540,221	10,799	631,626
Commerce and transportation	175,118	1,400,003	26,449	1,601,570
Public service and profession	235,964	633,926	1,938	871,828
Miscellaneous occupations	22,914	1,421,038	7,258	1,451,210
Others	21,032	353,810	489	375,331
Total	583,428	21,248,864	583,428	21,891,180

The density of the population average 104 per square kilometre, ranging from 172.6 in the thickly inhabited south-west to 36.5 in the north-east. The average is 77 per square kilometre less than in Japan proper.

Only ten per cent of the people live in towns and cities where population numbers more than 8,000 and eighty per cent or 16,400,000 live in the country or seaside occupied in agriculture, forestry, stock-raising and fishery.

Among the foreign population the Chinese and Manchu predominate who numbered 41,266 at the end of 1933. Next came 721 Americans, 239 British, 96 Germans and 73 French.

Origin of the Korean Race

Though no conclusive opinion has ever been given as to the origin of the Korean people, it is evident that they are of the Mongolian family, and it is generally admitted that their cradle was in the neighbourhood of Changchun, Manchoukuo, in and around the place now called Petna on the River Sungari. It seems, therefore, but natural that they should have a profound liking to emigrate and settle in those parts of Manchoukuo. From various historic relics it appears that they were of the same stock with the Manchurians and those Japanese dwelling in the western

half of Japan. In course of time much intermingling of blood seems to have taken place among the Koreans and the Chinese ever since Chinese colonies were first established along the north-western coast. But the latter did not supersede the native Korean race to any appreciable degree. This is clearly seen from the fact that the two races today have a distinctly different facial appearance, though both alike have black straight hair, dark oblique eyes and a tinge of bronze in the skin. The Korean language belongs to the Turanian group; it is poly-syllabic and possesses an alphabet of 11 vowels and 14 consonants, and a script known as Eunmonn. In grammatical construction it is almost identical with Japanese, though in sound and vocabulary it is quite dissimilar. From all these and other facts and evidences it is beyond any doubt that these two peoples were akin to one another from very remote times.

Administrative Organization

Chosen is administered by the Government-General which was inaugurated on August 29, 1910, and has 8 main administrative offices, viz., (1) Governor-General's Secretariat, (2) Home Affairs Bureau, (3) Financial Affairs Bureau, (4) Industrial Bureau, (5) Judicial Bureau, (6) Educational Bureau, (7) Police Bureau, and (8) Forestry Bureau. There are also 5 affiliated offices which are (1) Communications Bureau, (2) Railway Bureau, (3) Monopoly Bureau, (4) Customs Bureau and (5) Tax Bureau.

Position of Koreans For a number of years since the establishment of the Government-General in Chosen all Koreans in government service were placed under different regulations from those applying to Japanese officials. Gradually, however, almost all discriminative features in treatment and salary have been wiped out and in October, 1919, Korean officials were finally placed on the same footing as the Japanese and came under the same regulations. Moreover, prior to March, 1920, in the courts Korean judges were allowed to try only those civil cases in which both parties were Koreans and the criminal cases where the accused were Koreans, but now they are allowed to try all cases in which people of any nationality may be involved. Moreover, prior to 1919 the freedom of the press had been rigidly restricted. No newspaper except the few already in existence was allowed to be issued. Now, however, more daily papers are issued, and the restrictions placed on the holding of public meetings have been partly removed.

The Central Council As the highest consultative body there is the Central Council which is convened by the Governor-General several times a year to discuss such measures as may be presented by him. This Central Council consists of 5 advisors, 65 councillors, 1 chairman and 1 vice-chairman. One of the characteristic principles by which the Japanese administration in Chosen is guided is respect for the old Korean customs and manners, and the work of investigating these old customs so dear to the native people is entrusted to the Central Council. Koreans attach great importance to their ancestral tombs as a form of ancient worship, and the selection of a burial site is always made with great care. This, coupled with their age-old superstition that the fate of one's family would be greatly affected by the position of its grave, has resulted in the devastation of a large area of land; wherefore the Government-General in 1912 issued an order requiring all people to use the public cemeteries for the disposal of their dead. This order, however, was revised in 1919 so as to allow the people to follow their old customs.

Local Autonomy and Suffrage

In establishing local administrative system due consideration was given to the system obtaining under the old régime and also to Korean culture and customs. Revisions have been made from time to time to suit changes in local conditions, and the system has finally developed into what it is at the present day.

The main principle upon which revisions were made was to prepare the way for laying foundation for local autonomy. The establishment of advisory organs in the revision of the local administrative system effected in 1920 had this object in view. During ten years after that progress in the preparation for self-government was made to such an extent that the time was considered ripe to effect further important reforms in the local system. An ordinance was, therefore, promulgated on October 1, 1930, the substance of which was as follows :

Administration of Province The former provincial advisory council (Do-Hyogi-Kwai) was changed into the provincial council (Do-Kwai) which is vested with administrative power. Two-thirds of members of the council are elected by members of the municipal councils, yu councils and men councils in each province, and one-third ap-

pointed by the Provincial Governor.

The Provincial Governor acts ex officio as Speaker of the council and the Vice-Speaker is elected from among members of the council. The term of members of the provincial council is four years.

Municipal System Each municipality has two bodies of the first and second educational sectional councils. The former is composed of Japanese and the latter of Korean members of the municipal council.

Yu-Men System The "men" (township) system (men-sei) has been substituted by the yu-men-system, and the yu (town) council was established in each yu and made an executive organ. The "men" council, composed of elected members, remains as an advisory body. The term of members of the yu and men councils is four years.

Administration of County and Island Counties and islands have county and island councils, the councillors of which are elected by the members of the yu and men councils. The term of the councillors is four years.

Supervision of Local Bodies As in Japan proper the right to reverse, to cancel, or to reconsider any decisions reached by local administrative organs is reserved to the Government-General, which may suspend or dissolve meeting when necessary.

Those portions of the ordinance that apply to the municipal system, yu-men system, county and island councils were enforced on April 1, 1931 while other parts which apply to the administration of provinces on April 1, 1933.

Suffrage Since conditions have not yet adequately improved and the sense for civic responsibility is not yet sufficiently strong or wide-spread to abolish the franchise qualification, which is payment of local rates of five yen the subject is still left untouched. This may be reduced, as conditions improve, to one yen for the yu-men council election. A course in civics has lately been added to school curriculum which will aid in impressing upon the people the importance and benefit of franchise.

Finance

Budgetary System Introduced Under the old Korean régime there was no clear distinction between the court and the government in the use of money collected from the people in the form of various taxes. Moreover, most of the state revenue was from the ginseng monopoly, leasing of state lands, and granting of concessions of various sorts. Accordingly, therefore, there was no means of framing a yearly budget. This state of affairs, more than anything else, called for speedy remedies. When, therefore, a Japanese financial adviser, Baron Megata, took up his duties in August, 1904, his first task was to bring order out of this financial confusion and his work was quickly done during the protectorate period. He drew up necessary plans for introducing the modern budgetary system, and the gold standard with a central bank to act as a state treasury and empowered with a right to issue convertible notes. A rigid taxation system was brought into existence, with the burdens of the people more equitably distributed. The former method of tax collection which gave rise to many serious abuses was quickly corrected. All the monopolies, such as that of ginseng, were turned over from the Imperial court to the government, and a clear distinction was marked between the finances of the court and of the state.

Japan in Chosen Upon the establishment of the Japanese hegemony in Chosen the Government-General took on its shoulders the heavy task of developing the country in every possible way so as to promote the welfare of the Korean people to the utmost extent. It necessitated starting new enterprises and increased expenditure, and the government outlay for the year 1911 reached over ¥48,740,000, an amount twice that of the preceding fiscal year. Since that time the tendency had always been upward, till it reached ¥246,852,843 in 1929, the highest mark ever seen in the budgetary history of Chosen. In 1930 a slight decrease was seen; the figures fell to ¥239,729,783, with a further slight reduction in each year until it reached ¥219,132,671 in 1932. Mention must be made of the fact that the determination of the Government-General to do its utmost for the economic development of the country and the promotion of the welfare of the people is shared by the Japanese government at home, for the latter is yearly advancing a subsidy of more than ¥15,000,000 from the national treasury to the Government-General. The budget again took an upward turn in 1933, and in 1936 it reached the highest mark of ¥317,875,960. Below is given a budget table showing the trend of steady expansion of expenditure:

BUDGETS 1911—1936

	Revenue	Expenditure
	(In Yen)	
1911	43,741,282	48,741,782
1920	124,798,469	114,316,860
1921	162,474,208	162,474,208
1922	158,124,617	158,124,617
1923	146,007,225	146,007,225
1924	142,700,159	142,780,159
1925	178,082,382	178,082,382
1926	194,487,914	194,487,914
1927	210,910,111	210,910,111
1928	222,746,979	222,746,979
1929	246,852,843	246,852,843
1930	239,729,783	239,729,783
1931	238,923,617	238,923,617
1932	220,140,627	220,140,627
1933	232,026,949	232,026,949
1934	278,284,452	274,634,642
1935	290,267,414	290,267,414
1936	317,875,960	317,875,960

On account of the dissolution of the 68th session of the Imperial Diet the budget for 1936–37 did not get materialized. Therefore a supplementary budget for 1936–37 was presented to the 69th Extraordinary Session of the Diet, which passed it. The budget for 1935–36 and the supplementary budget for 1936–37 are as follows :

BUDGET FOR 1936-1937

REVENUE

Items	Budget for 1935-36	Supplementary budget for 1936-37
Ordinary Revenue		
Taxes	¥53,366,263	¥133,405
Stamp receipts	15,172,736	26,450
Receipts from government undertakings and properties	169,239,951	19,470,056
Miscellaneous	2,819,892	64,467
Total	240,463,427	19,694,378
Extraordinary Revenue		
Proceeds from the sales of government properties	311,603	—
Contributions	6,000	250,000
Temporary profit tax	323,595	—
Grants from home national treasury, etc.	12,825,822	92,285
Loans (public or otherwise)	24,000,000	—
Part payment for the improvement of rivers and harbours	217,350	—
Brought forward	10,200,867	11,258,592
Total	47,885,237	11,600,877
Grand total	288,348,664	31,295,255

EXPENDITURE

Ordinary expenditure		
Chosen Shrine	70,000	—
Prince Ri's household	1,800,000	—
Government-General office	4,247,582	293,714
Courts and Deposits Bureau	3,702,971	71,277
Prisons	5,226,199	84,000
Provincial offices	26,736,923	564,756
Keijo Imperial University	1,808,212	40,498
Schools and museums	1,527,875	179,550
Police training school	2,117	—
Agricultural experimental stations	542,338	14,699
Cattle disease serum maunfacturing plant	249,013	3,981
Central Experimental Institute	103,379	3,604
Breeding horse and sheep pastures	59,423	3,380
Cereals inspection office	1,694,621	85,113
Fishery experimental station	175,303	46,170
Forestry „ „	150,733	15,882
Monopoly office	28,471,532	3,530,110
Railways	69,334,543	11,206,344

Items	Budget for 1935-36	Supplementary budget for 1936-37
	(In yen)	
Forestry Bureau	5,755,525	279,788
Communications	14,823,730	1,135,740
Taxation superintendence and tax offices	3,968,395	75,334
Customs Office	1,357,802	124,702
Social works	260,455	5,576
Leper sanatorium	488,453	111,270
National debt readjustment fund	27,027,451	3,906,280
Pension	6,938,409	347,999
Miscellaneous	432,542	300
Reserve	2,500,000	1,000,000
National shrines	—	2,120
Total	209,645,526	23,132,187
Extraordinary Expenditure		
Pension for the old Korean soldiers	43,440	—
Forests and fields investigation committee	50,324	—
Investigation and experimentation	231,314	329,506
Subsidies and encouragements	22,096,199	2,201,713
Buildings and repairs	4,427,054	1,997,942
Civil engineering works	12,053,152	—
Railways	24,000,000	4,040,789
Protection against shifting sands	600,000	200,000
Adjustment of the cadastre	87,145	22,854
Encouragement of Korean language	53,988	—
Improvement of land	5,139,251	—
Disposition of state property	170,276	—
Customs at frontiers	50,630	—
Temporary special allowance	326,239	6,673
Measures for the Koreans abroad	1,600,000	—
Compilation of the Korean history	80,243	—
Temporary supervision	664,491	—
Supervision of local public works	122,116	—
Construction of salt fields	1,180,000	—
Development of northern Korea	2,181,458	32,826
Improvement of farm districts	244,374	—
Manchurian Incident	836,284	—
For research works of students abroad	34,160	—
Supervision of foreign exchange	19,735	—
Control of cereals shipped to Japan proper	763,410	—
Purchase of land for military purpose	9,927	—
Measures for recovery of farming villages	—	620,981
Against calamities	932,095	983,457
Against thought crime	—	271
To General Account	—	1,900,000
Total	78,703,138	12,337,012
Grand total	288,348,664	35,469,199

Below is given the latest statement of receipts from domestic taxes and from leased state lands for the five years ending 1934 :

	1930	1931	1932	3933	1934 (Estimates)
			(In Yen)		
Land tax	15,617,023	15,810,219	15,422,197	15,853,159	14,738,161
Income tax	1,135,199	763,154	1,006,874	1,325,502	5,114,319
Mining tax	603,477	624,468	744,949	1,009,771	1,390,772
Business tax	1,591,627	1,291,983	1,233,306	1,329,090	1,563,446
Capital interest tax	314,882	332,874	345,881	483,918	447,760
Exchange tax	147,637	195,371	518,605	367,128	497,039

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934 (Estimates)
			(In Yen)		
Bank of Chosen note tax	—	145,556	7,326	—	55,078
Liquor tax	12,322,234	11,248,536	11,366,132	12,385,013	16,583,149
Sugar consumption tax	3,181,858	2,393,536	2,397,016	1,517,248	2,643,065
Clearing dues	54,307	145,746	125,694	119,864	91,894
Total	34,968,367	32,951,434	33,167,814	34,391,131	43,124,683
Customs duties	8,466,029	7,401,819	7,966,105	11,157,771	12,728,187
Tonnage dues	44,316	39,049	32,227	39,046	33,682
Grand total	43,478,712	40,392,312	41,166,313	45,587,948	55,886,552

RECEIPTS FROM CUSTOMS DUTIES

	(In Yen)		
1910	3,606,000	1926	13,361,000
1914	4,140,000	1927	10,946,000
1918	16,870,000	1928	10,410,000
1920	16,309,000	1929	10,716,000
1921	—	1930	10,284,813
1922	15,620,000	1931	7,401,819
1923	9,211,000	1932	7,966,104
1924	9,311,000	1933	11,157,771
1925	10,781,000	1934	12,761,869

Investments by Japan Proper At the twenty-fifth anniversary of administration the sum disbursed by the home Government to Chosen was estimated at ¥300,000,000, exclusive of military and naval expenditures. Investments by private interests during the same period are estimated at ¥3,000,000,000 which have been utilized for the completion of communications, the development of national resources, promotion of industries, etc.

The following table demonstrates the remarkable progress attained in the course of twenty-five years.

Item	1910	1934	Ratio of Increase
Population	¥13,313,017	¥ 21,125,827	1.6 times
Government-General Budget	48,741,782	262,978,776	5 times
National debt	21,175,422	489,830,524	24 times
Total production	296,500,000	1,287,000,000 (1933)	4 times
Agricultural products	241,721,000	704,678,000 (1933)	3 times
Forestry products	19,240,000	55,069,000 (1933)	3 times
Cocoon nroducts	431,861	21,865,000 (1933)	56 times
Mining products	6,067,000	48,301,000 (1933)	8 times
Fishery products	9,410,000	89,911,000 (1933)	9.5 times
Industrial products	19,639,000	367,236,000 (1933)	19 times
Exports	19,913,843	465,367,435	25 times
Imports	39,782,756	519,149,930	13 times
Exports of rice	544,000 koku	7,571,000 koku (1933)	14 times
Total import and export	59,696,519	984,517,365	17 times
Bank deposits	18,355,000	367,460,000	20 times
Rural Credit Association deposits	68,044 (1914)	139,417,000	2,000 times
Railway construction	1,086 k.m.	3,078 k.m.	2.9 times

Government Monopolies

Several industries are being carried on as monopolies by the Government-General under direct control of the Financial Affairs Bureau; they are the manufacture or preparation of ginseng, tobacco, salt and opium.

Ginseng This medical herb is regarded as a wonderful cure for many diseases in China ond Korea. The drug is obtained from the root of the plant carefully tended for six years. The principal customers for this plant are the Chinese, who are ready to pay a high price for it. Figures relating to its production follow:

	Area	Raw root	Prepared product	Receipts
	(tsubo)	(kin)	(kin)	(yen)
1911	14,345	7,719	2,300	119,000
1919	195,620	103,989	26,002	2,082,000
1920	319,321	116,508	29,694	2,544,000
1921	371,328	136,066	36,266	2,102,000
1922	475,339	163,053	40,571	1,269,000
1923	419,788	166,282	46,022	2,225,000
1924	397,850	141,983	38,546	2,152,000
1925	303,713	112,988	31,629	2,658,000
1926	230,368	109,759	29,369	2,768,000
1927	332,102	154,237	41,540	2,444,000
1928	327,491	197,340	50,901	3,067,000
1929	334,479	165,897	54,099	2,482,000
1930	336,918	170,709	62,097	2,449,463
1931	—	161,952	59,302	2,039,541

	Area (tsubo)	Raw root (kin)	Prepared product (kin)	Receipts (yen)
1932	—	165,172	58,789	2,099,819
1933	—	142,686	49,525	1,339,941
1934	—	142,577	49,829	1,567,061
1935	—	142,662	—	1,703,788

Tobacco As practically all Koreans smoke, the tobacco industry is a great source of income to the government. Three kinds are grown in Chosen, namely, Korean, Japanese and American. There are four tobacco manufacturing centres, these being Keijo, Heijo, Taikyu and Zenshu, the annual production reaching thirty million yen.

In 1935 the output of cigarettes was 5,313,528,000 pieces, that of cut-tobacco 4,633,846 kwan, and that of leaf tobacco 300,000 kwan. Tobacco amounting to ¥87,000 was also imported from Japan and foreign countries.

AREA, PRODUCTION & SALES OF TOBACCO

Year	Area (cho)	Amount of leaf tobacco (kwan)	Value in yen: Korean product	Imported	Total
1930	14,227	4,026,914	31,693,010	123,100	31,816,110
1931	15,232	4,384,183	31,149,374	99,751	31,249,125
1932	13,637	5,309,923	32,076,449	91,290	32,167,739
1933	13,558	4,414,268	35,227,038	87,148	35,313,186
1934	14,692	4,107,358	38,941,646	84,030	39,025,676
1935	16,367	5,845,627	42,835,698	90,588	42,926,286

Salt The salt consumption in Chosen amounted to 560,000,000 kin in 1932 which is a great increase as compared with the amount ten years ago. The consumption in 1921 was 114,000,000 kin valued at ¥1,120,000. As the native production is not sufficient to meet the entire demand of the people, a considerable amount is imported from Japan and foreign countries under the control of the Monopoly Bureau of the Government-General. The following shows production and the area of salt-fields in 1935 :

PRODUCTION AND AREA OF SALT-FIELD IN 1935

	Area (cho)	Production (1,000 kg.)
Koryowan	1,157	125,893
Shusan	1,115	116,962
Nanshi	483	30,926
Total	2,755	273,781

Opium Owing to the strict control of the Government-General the number of opium smokers has in recent years greatly decreased, but at the same time the number of those indulging in morphine-injection has increased. The use of morphine has of course been prohibited by the government, but owing to the activity of cunning dealers all the efforts of the government to put an end to it have been fruitless. The government thereupon has come to the decision to monopolize the manufacture and sale of morphine so as more effectively to control the spread of its use. Accordingly, in March, 1933, the government's manufacture of morphine was started at Keijo, its production being sold to certain designated pharmacies to be used for medical purposes only.

MORPHINE MANUFACTURE IN 1935

Raw opium	18,348 kg.
Manufacture	
Morphine (salt)	84,250 g.
Diacethyl morphine (salt)	—
Opium for medical use	5,030 g.
Total	89,280 g.
Sale	
Morphine (salt)	66,955 g.
Diacethyl morphine (salt)	12,383 g.
Opium for medical use	7,774 g.
Total	87,113 g.

Overseas Trade

Prior to its annexation by Japan the overseas trade of Korea amounted to about 50 millions of yen a year. Now it is approximately put at ¥1,000,000,000 as per figures for 1934 show. The following figures indicate its developments :

OVERSEAS TRADE

Year	Exports (¥ 1,000) Foreign countries	Japan	Total	Imports (¥ 1,000) Foreign countries	Japan	Total
1912	5,616	15,369	20,985	26,359	40,753	67,112
1917	20,236	64,726	84,962	31,396	72,696	104,092
1918	18,697	137,205	155,962	43,151	117,273	160,424
1919	22,098	199,849	221,947	98,158	184,918	283,076
1920	27,639	169,381	197,020	106,174	143,112	249,286
1921	20,884	197,393	218,277	75,898	156,483	232,381
1922	17,489	197,915	215,404	95,798	160,247	256,045
1923	20,403	241,262	261,665	98,338	167,452	265,790
1924	22,379	306,660	329,039	97,776	211,817	309,593
1925	24,341	317,288	341,630	105,388	234,623	340,011
1926	24,779	338,175	362,954	123,933	248,235	372,169
1927	28,133	330,791	358,924	113,943	269,473	383,417
1928	32,147	333,829	365,974	118,181	295,839	414,020
1929	32,773	309,891	342,664	107,767	315,325	423,092
1930	25,852	240,694	266,546	88,854	278,194	367,048
1931	12,771	294,027	261,798	52,696	217,770	270,466
1932	29,210	282,144	311,354	61,686	258,670	320,356
1933	52,773	315,854	368,627	64,368	339,817	404,185
1934	57,674	407,693	465,367	79,527	439,622	519,149
1935	64,903	485,893	550,796	44,185	558,813	659,403
*1936	44,185	343,120	387,305	79,215	400,922	480,137

* Figures for 1936 are for Jan.-Aug.

OVERSEAS TRADE BY COUNTRIES

Countries	Exports (¥ 1,000) 1933	1934	1935	1936*	Import (¥ 1,000) 1933	1934	1935	1936*
Japan proper	315,854	407,693	485,893	343,120	339,817	439,622	558,813	400,922
Kwantung Peninsula	4,975	5,104	8,009	5,098	3,689	4,128	4,932	4,490
Manchoukuo	40,588	48,358	50,034	33,795	40,765	46,681	49,015	43,543
China	1,598	2,007	3,312	2,528	5,857	7,796	16,448	10,862
The U. S. A.	2,746	312	546	262	2,195	12,935	7,547	5,139
Dutch Indies	—	—	—	—	2,137	1,431	—	5,730
Asiatic Russia	—	—	—	—	1,144	113	—	—
Great Britain	—	—	—	—	988	975	—	—
Germany	—	—	—	—	423	380	—	—
Others	2,869	1,891	2,998	2,499	7,170	5,083	14,847	8,583
Total	368,627	465,367	550,796	387,305	404,185	519,149	659,403	480,137

* Figures for 1936 are for Jan.—Aug. only.

PRINCIPAL EXPORTS (¥ 1,000)

Commodities	1934	1935	1936*
Rice	224,267	244,083	172,482
Beans	18,160	17,571	17,948
Fish	13,816	12,398	5,151
Laver	3,708	2,197	1,126
Sugar	1,511	3,146	2,418
Fish-oil	—	5,519	5,206
Timber	7,331	8,121	5,531
Foreign-style paper	4,353	3,776	2,725
Cotton	8,142	13,475	10,512
Cocoons	789	1,183	565
Raw silk	11,473	14,189	8,712
Graphite	1,395	2,246	1,475
Coal	6,168	6,723	2,380
Gold ore	2,427	6,481	4,535
Iron ore	985	1,231	784
Cattle	4,120	4,631	2,498
Fertilizers	25,258	32,152	29,273
Copper	11,041	21,607	10,848
Iron	16,579	23,291	11,190

PRINCIPAL IMPORTS (¥ 1,000)

Commodities	1934	1935	1936*
Rice	3,066	7,034	2,619
Millet	15,773	20,272	19,371
Beans	3,460	2,610	3,978
Flour	5,405	10,952	5,176
Sugar	6,315	7,581	6,677
Saké	1,514	1,656	818
Beer	1,542	857	776

	1934	1935	1936*
Salt	2,560	2,681	1,300
Woollen cloth	9,915	10,583	7,715
Silk tissue	24,950	31,994	20,179
Rubber shoes	2,173	4,678	3,394
Paper	10,270	12,355	8,298
Coal	13,167	14,594	10,224
Cement	5,472	4,916	5,032
Ceramics	3,936	5,281	3,394
Iron	28,251	42,384	28,484
Machines	18,867	35,602	27,394
Timber	9,801	12,868	9,675
Petroleum	6,069	5,063	5,387
Matches	1,144	1,433	819
Ginned cotton	14,115	16,824	14,830
Cotton yarn	10,329	9,915	4,472
Wild silk	6,679	6,563	2,562
Cotton cloth	44,166	36,328	17,289
Hemp cloth	1,766	1,510	1,444
Fertilizers	20,494	26,162	35,262
Gasolene	6,908	9,804	7,139

*Figures for 1936 are for Jan.-Aug. only.

Banking

Banking on a modern system was first introduced into Chosen in 1878 when the Dai Ichi Ginko of Tokyo established a branch office at Fusan. Later on, the Juhachi Ginko of Nagasaki opened branches at Jinsen and Gensan. After the China-Japan War these banks opened their branches in Keijo and other centres, while two native banks, the Chon-il (later renamed the Korean Commercial) and the Hansong, came into being in Keijo.

In 1902 the Dai Ichi Ginko was authorized to issue bank notes for circulation within Chosen. In 1906, to promote economic development in the provinces, agricultural and industrial banks were formed in several of the principal towns, the Government taking shares in them or granting them loans free of interest, and in the same year a third native bank called the Han-il was founded in Keijo.

In 1909 the Bank of Korea capitalized at ¥10,000,000 was founded in Keijo as a de jure central institution, and to it was transferred all the functions belonging to a central bank hitherto performed by the Dai Ichi Ginko. After the Annexation the bank was renamed the Bank of Chosen and branches were opened by it one after another in important places. Nor was its sphere of activity confined to the peninsula, for many branches were opened in Manchuria where it enjoyed free circulation of its notes, and its activity even penetrated North China and East Siberia. The Bank also made loans to China, and opened an agency in New York with a view to facilitating exchange operations and to utilizing the American money market for the development of Chosen and Manchuria. Stimulated by the steady expansion of its business, the Bank increased its capital to ¥40,000,000 in 1918, and to ¥80,000,000 in 1920, while authority was given to increase its maximum limit of note issue as occasion demanded; but owing to continued business depression the Bank suffered severe losses and was compelled in 1925 to reduce its capital by one-half. (See Chapter IX, the Bank of Chosen.)

Since then, encouraged by the economic development in general, and especially influenced by the war-time boom, many local banks were established in the country. During this time, however, the agricultural and industrial banks in existence were found much too weak to cope with the increasing demand for funds, their capital all told being only ¥2,600,000, so in 1918 they were all merged into the Industrial Bank of Chosen under special government protection, with a capital of ¥10,000,000, which has since been trebled.

The first clearing house was opened in 1910, and banks in Keijo became its members. Later additional clearing houses were established in Jinsen (Chemulpo) and other large commercial centres—the total number being nine at the present time.

In 1911 there were in Chosen only 11 banks with 59 branches. The total aggregate capital was then ¥12,350,000, with total reserve funds amounting to ¥366,000 and the deposits totalling ¥18,335,000. In 1934 the number of banks was 11 and their branches 165. The total aggregate capital increased to ¥100,675,000 and the deposits to ¥567,754,000. The following gives a more detailed account:

	1925	1930	1933	1934	1935	1936
			(¥ 1,000)			
Capital subscribed	102,275	101,425	121,075	100,675	99,175	99,175
Capital paid-in	58,850	60,991	61,871	61,731	65,912	65,980
Reserve funds	7,024	14,464	21,358	22,673	23,829	27,276
Deposits	217,597	226,563	458,159	567,754	609,028	386,191
Loans	429,361	457,557	730,614	1,047,339	1,013,146	712,380

The banking institution which is utilized most by the Korean masses is the Post Office Savings Bank. In 1921 there were about one million and a half depositors at this bank, their aggregate deposits reaching ¥18,726,338. In 1936 the number of depositors increased to 3,571,237, with the aggregate deposits expanding to ¥54,820,710. The following figures show the annual expansion :

March, 31	Number of depositors	Amount (yen)
1922	1,416,325	18,726,338
1923	1,590,470	19,875,093
1924	1,694,087	21,040,342
1925	1,606,740	21,029,849
1926	1,711,590	21,531,122
1927	1,795,858	22,466,126
1928	1,910,289	26,961,217
1929	2,023,977	30,787,502
1930	2,078,602	36,286,417
1931	2,118,178	38,852,866
1932	2,283,871	41,432,670
1933	2,494,062	40,939,391
1934	2,840,656	44,807,154
1935	3,156,074	52,631,553
1936	3,571,237	54,820,710

Local Credit Associations Local credit associations were first organized in 1907 by virtue of the Local Credit Association Regulations promulgated in the same year. The object of the organizations is to assist the Agricultural and Industrial Banks in the capacity as their auxiliaries, accommodate small Korean farmers with funds, and look after their interests in several other ways so as to ensure a healthy development of agriculture. Membership is confined to those who engage in agriculture, and each association is organized as a corporate juridical person. The Government endows each association with ¥10,000 as foundation fund or grants subsidy to encourage its development.

Principal business of the associations is to loan funds to the members, and store crops for them. In addition they distribute and loan seeds, seedlings, and fertilizers to their members, and also undertake consignment sales of products for the members.

At the end of March, 1936, there were 698 associations with 1,438,949 members and an aggregate paid capital ¥11,237,000. The progress of these asscciations is illustrated in the table below.

Year	Associations	Members	Paid up capital in ¥1,000	Deposit in ¥1,000	Advance in ¥1,000	Reserve fund in ¥1,000	Government grant in ¥1,000
1926-27	547	446,576	6,510	54,505	76,082	8,144	3,417
1927-28	575	489,720	7,064	63,614	85,177	9,620	3,542
1928-29	597	530,407	7,509	74,089	91,381	10,889	3,662
1929-30	621	588,560	8,561	76,892	104,931	12,295	3,777
1930-31	622	606,813	9,010	80,128	123,368	13,131	3,777
1931-32	663	726,322	9,279	88,755	123,842	13,556	3,970
1932-33	674	831,805	9,362	103,752	127,832	14,316	4,027
1933-34	685	1,003,648	9,871	124,284	133,897	15,647	4,092
1934-35	692	1,178,769	10,580	139,417	150,107	17,779	4,132
1935-36	698	1,438,949	11,237	152,358	204,775	20,750	—

Agriculture

Chosen, though mountainous, is essentially an agricultural country. It is enough to point out that more than 83 per cent of its entire population is engaged in agricultural pursuits. Though the soil is not very fertile, it is sufficiently so to produce enough foodstuffs to support its entire population.

In 1934 the total agricultural products amounted to ¥1,021,147,882. In 1910, the year of annexation, the value of production scarcely reached ¥250,000,000, but in 1930 it more than doubled the above figure. Of all agricultural produce rice is the most important, production in 1934 reaching 16,717,238 koku valued at ¥415,546,387.

Ka-den-min In Chosen there are quite a good number of so-called "ka-den-min" or fire-field-people, who use fire for making their land ready for cultivation in a most primitive way. In ancient times, people set forests or plains on fire and then sowed seeds and cultivated vegetables on the blackened land without manuring. When this land became sterile, they moved to another place to repeat the operation. Among the lowest class of Chosen peasants this primitive system of agriculture is still in practice. There are nearly 400,000 ha. of the fire-field on which about 230,000 families or 1,160,000 people are living. They are mostly distributed over such northern mountainous districts as South Kankyo and North Heian. They plant the sweet potato, German millet, Indian-corn, soybean, red-bean, barley and buckwheat.

Steep slopes or mountain tops, even above 1,200 m. in height, are burnt by these farmers. One of the causes of the bare hills noticed by visitors to Chosen is said to be this long practice of burning the forests. Most of these people are nomadic and cultivate about 2 ha., the average family with an income of about 60 yen a year. After the establishment of the new Japanese Forestry Bureau the forestry police have been taking measures to prevent the continuance of this destructive practice by teaching these peasants a better method of farming; but all their efforts seem in vain so far.

Grains In 1910 the rice fields covered a total area of 1,350,000 cho, yielding 10,400,000 koku, which rose in 1935 to 1,711,000cho and 17,380,000 koku, its export during the same period increasing from 798,000koku to 9,030,000koku. This wonderful development has been achieved by the improvement made in cultivation, in the selection of seeds and manure, and in irrigation and reclamation. Next in importance come barley, wheat and rye, which are, however, mostly cultivated for home consumption. In almost every province these grains are raised in the paddy fields, after the rice crop is harvested, production of these in 1935 being 8,751,963, 1,932,817 and 1,626,516koku respectively. Owing to the help in various ways given by the authorities to aid in the cultivation of these three cereals, their production has been on the increase year after year. Third in importance comes soy bean. In earlier times it was far from being an important produce owing to ignorance on the part of Korean farmers of the proper method of preparation, such as drying and assorting. It is now, however, in high esteem on the Japanese market where there is a demand for it not only as food, but for chemical industrial purposes, and thus the amount exported to Japan is yearly on the increase. In 1935 the total area under cultivation was 791,857cho and the amount produced reached 4,375,278 koku, which was an increase of more than five times, compared with the year 1910. Millet is for most Koreans what rice is for the Japanese people. They depend more upon it than upon rice on account of its cheapness in price. The Korean farmers sell their rice, but use their millet crops for their daily diet, so that the supply of the grain hardly suffices to meet the entire demands of the Korean people. They, therefore, import much of it from Manchoukuo, its import from that region reaching 1,050,000 koku, worth ¥20,270,000 in 1935.

Cotton Cotton is another important agricultural produce in modern Chosen. The present scale of its growth is owing to the encouragement given by the Government-General. It was in 1906 that the first trial plantation of American cotton was carried out in the neighbourhood of Moppo. As its superiority over the old native cotton was sufficiently demonstrated, soon its cultivation was vigorously encouraged in all parts of southern Korea, so that the cotton acreage was increased from 1,200 cho in 1910 to 147,643 cho in 1935, and the crop expanded from 660,000kin in 1910 to 169,948,818 kin in 1935. If the production of the native plant is added, the total cotton producion in 1935 amounted to 213,748,967kin from the total area of 209,567cho, as against 21,000,000kin from 60,000cho, in 1910.

Sugar Beet A trial plantation of sugar beet was also made first in 1906. As it proved quite satisfactory every governmental assistance was given to its cultivation. A subsidy was given to ensure a sufficient distribution of improved seeds. Further exhaustive experiments proved that Keijo and its vicinity is best suited for sugar beet cultivation and consequently the authorities encouraged and assisted its plantation in that part of Chosen, with very good results.

Fruit Farming Fruit farming has also become a thriving industry of the erstwhile hermit kingdom. Soil and climate alike are suitable, especially for the growing of apples, and the government authorities are extending their assistance in this direction likewise, with the object of improving the quality of the fruit and gaining for it a world-wide market.

Many new varieties of apple, superior to the old native ones, are now cultivated, the quality being in some cases better than that of the fruit grown in Japan, the recent annual production reaching as much as 12,447,000 kwan with money value estimated at ¥4,311,000.

Sericulture By 1910 the Government-General had done everything in its power to improve the native methods of cultivating the mulberry trees and raising silk-worms after the Japanese fashion. In 1919 a new system was instituted for carrying on a compulsory examination of egg-cards and for giving adequate care to the growing of good mulberry trees. All this paternal care and effort on the part of the Government-General for the advancement of the economic welfare of the Korean farmer was by no means thrown away. In 1910 the cocoon production was 14,-

000 koku and the number of households engaged in the work was figured at 76,000. In 1932 the number of households increased to 786,060 and the output to 593,054 koku; in 1933 the number increased to 810,000 and the output to 608,000koku; and in 1935 the number increased to 821,573 and the output to 681,801koku.

Stock Farming As Korean beef is very palatable, the demand for it is rapidly increasing in Japan and Manchoukuo as well as in Siberia. In 1910 the cattle in all Chosen numbered only 700,000 head, which in 1935 increased to 1,679,000. The export of cattle and hides totals from ¥5,000,000 to ¥8,000,000 a year. The raising of both pigs and poultry has been greatly encouraged by importing from Japan animals and birds of superior quality, with the result that in 1935 the former totalled 1,620,000 and the latter 7,120,000, both more than doubling the numbers found in 1910. Sheep were unknown in the old days in Chosen. Efforts were made since 1919 to raise them but the results were not satisfactory. Since, however, it is of great importance to make Japan self-sufficient in respect to supply of wool a new plan for encouragement of sheep was formed in 1934. Carriedale, which suits to the climate and soil of Korea, has been decided upon as a kind to be raised in Korea. Subvention will be given to private undertakings, and the national sheep breeding grazing ground has been located at Ama, Meisen county of North Kankyo Province.

Conditions of Farm Households The type and size of farm households in Chosen vary to a large extent. The average size of farm land is about one cho six tan (about four acres), which is larger than the average in Japan proper where the size is just over one cho (2½ acres). However, in Chosen, due to poor methods of cultivation, the yield per tan is only slightly over one koku (5 bushels) while it is two koku in Japan. Supplementary products are as yet hardly worth mentioning. The large ownership of farm land by a few landlords is one of the roots of the difficulties. The majority of farming population have to hand over a greater portion of crops as interest at rates ranging from 3% to 4% per month on borrowed foodstuffs or money in addition to farm rent which is also high.

A farmer working one cho eight tan is regarded as a fairly good farmer in the central or southern Chosen. His annual cash income is, however, as small as ¥100. A farmer less favourably fared obtains ¥48 per year. Majority of farmers are in similar conditions and they form a poverty-stricken community.

Expenditure is always greater than income, as is shown in the table below. The farm household generally suffers from shortage of foodstuffs. It will be seen that deficit is ridiculously small but even a shortage of ¥10 or ¥20 is a great burden to a petty farmer who is altogether unable to make out any plan for covering it.

Eighty per cent of the farming community may be regarded as having debts, bearing interest at 3% or 4% per month.

A Korean farmer works from 70 to 100 days a year while a farmer in Japan works from 200 to 250 days. The margin of difference is too great and might be made good use of by Korean farmers.

CONDITIONS OF REPRESENTATIVE KOREAN FARMERS

Name of farmer	A.—	B.—	C.—
Number of family	6 persons	5 persons	5 persons
„ capable of work	2.9 „	2.1 „	2.4 „
Kind of farming	Partly landed	Tenant	Tenant
Area of cultivated land	1 cho 8 tan (4½ acres)	1 cho 2 tan (3 acres)	8 tan (2 acres)
Cash income per year	¥ 98.50	¥ 52.70	¥ 48.40
Expenditure „ „	¥121.70	¥ 69.60	¥ 59.20
Deficit „ „	¥ 23.20	¥ 16.90	¥ 10.80
Debts „ „	¥ 130.000	¥ 49.00	¥ 52.00
Shortage of foodstuff	8 "to" of unhulled rice 2 "to" of millet	1 koku of rice 3 to of millet	1 koku of unhulled rice 6 to hulled of rice 4 to of millet
Number of days open for further work	290	260	240

Rural Revival To alleviate the severe agricultural depression, the Government-General devised a plan in 1932 for recovery of the farm through the effort

of farmers themselves. The results have so far been good and farmers regained hope. With improved economic conditions the relation between the Korean and Japanese became more harmonious, the industry more active, and living conditions of farmers as a whole improved. The concrete result of the plan has been that 4,695 villages comprising over 120,000 households have enlisted in the movement.

Measures Taken for Improvement of Condition of Farmers

Since 1912 steps have been taken to prevent possession of large estates by individuals. Uncultivated state-owned lands were leased to farmers who were willing to personally cultivate it and if the land were property reclamated it was given to these gratis. These measures were taken with a view to increase the number of independent farmers.

Tenant farmers, of course, predominate and form bulk of farmers. Their lives are miserable, and they have been driven into poverty, by their landlords and their agents. In view of this fact ordinances were put in force in 1920 with a special reference to the method of payment of rent. The ordinances were revised in 1928. In the new ordinances provisions were made for lease contract, farm rent payment, transport of crop, payment of taxes, improvement of yield, supervision of landlords' agents, etc. In 1932 regulations on mediation on tenancy disputes which had as their aim quick settlement of such disputes and lowering of the cost of law suit through simplification of the procedure were issued. Finally in 1934 the Chosen Farmland Ordinance was promulgated by which the safety of tenure of a tenant farmer and the right of his family or heirs were ensured. In accordance with provisions in the Ordinances local tenancy committees settle all questions regarding matters on tenancy, and actions of agents of landlords are subjected to control. This ordinance provides for : (1) the appointment and dismissal of "Saom", or landlord's agent to obviate abuses these agents make of their power ; (2) the term of lease, which has been made three years at the minimum for ordinary crops and seven years for perennial crops like mulberry, fruit, China grass, paper mulberry, etc., (3) inheritance of privileges and liabilities of the lease by heirs of a tenant ; (4) protection of the landlord against sub-lease ; (5) payment of farm rent, and reduction of its payment on its postponement in case of crop failure ; (6) appointment of tenancy committee and its duties, etc. The Ordinance was put in force on October 20, 1934.

Agricultural experimental stations have been established with staff of experts and their assistants. Many model villages have been selected and they are shown to farmers in other villages as model. Many young men have been trained also to get best out of their farms and to employ their own time most profitably.

Special agricultural courses are now given in common schools to infuse love of work in the mind of young people. Lastly the widespread self-help movement for the improvement of agriculture has been launched to make farmers endeavour to improve their conditions on their own account.

Forestry

The area of forests in Chosen covers 16,340,000 cho which corresponds with 73 per cent of the entire area of the land. But there existed before 1910 nothing like a forestry policy in Korea, and except a few protected ones, all forests were allowed to be devastated by ignorant and superstitious people. Therefore before 1910 nearly all the mountains in Chosen were treeless. The forests existed only in name. As a matter of fact, only one-third of the so-called "forest" areas was covered with standing trees, the remaining two-thirds being only thinly wooded. There was no system for safeguarding or protecting forests.

Afforestation Work Undertaken In 1908, however, the Korean government, by the advice of the Japanese, promulgated a forest law aiming at the protection of forests, and when the new régime was established the Government-General issued a new forest law providing, among other things, for the letting of forest lands to any interested party for the purpose of afforestation and, if the work were successfully carried out, the ultimate transference of them to the lessee. The total area thus leased now reaches 1,362,000 cho, of which more than 702,000 cho have been transferred to the successful planters. So far as the present situation is concerned, 5 million cho of the entire forest lands is owned by the state, and 120,000 cho is reserved for university research and as national parks, the rest being owned by private persons. There are at present 338 seeding plantations, where mostly pine, oak, chestnut, poplar, larch, etc. are being raised. In 1934 about 162,000,000 seedlings were grown by private undertaking, since the seedlings raised by the public plantations alone were not enough. Nor

is this all. Schools are given suitable pieces of ground whereon to plant trees, and the Third of April, the anniversary of the death of Jimmu Tenno, the first ruler of Japan, is fixed as Arbour Day, a day on which universal plantation of trees is encouraged throughout Chosen. In short, in the past twenty years more than a million cho have been planted with over 4,687,000,000 trees, and thus the mountain scenery in every part of Chosen is steadily undergoing a change with the accompanying effect of diminishing floods.

The Forest Districts There are several forest districts which escaped the almost wholesale denudation by kadenmin before 1910, the most important of which is the forest along the upper reaches of the Yalu and Tumen Rivers on the frontier. In 1906 the first systematic exploitation of the region was conducted by a joint undertaking organized by Japanese and Koreans and assisted by both the Korean and the Japanese governments with a capital of ¥1,200,000. This, combined with a similar enterprise financed by a group of Japanese and Chinese industrialists, forms one of the largest timber-supplies in the world. Since 1932, the government started the work of developing these forests with an expenditure of ¥12,183,000 to be operative for 15 years. The work consists of (1) development and utilization of forests, (2) education of kadenmin, and (3) protection of the forests.

Fisheries

Since 1910 all sorts of encouragement have been given to the Korean fishermen for the development of the fishery industry in Chosen, with the result that improvements in one way or another have been introduced in the building of fishing-boats and in the method of catching. Thus, while before 1910 the total value of catches was only about ¥8,000,000 a year, by 1935 it increased to ¥65,960,000, and other aquatic products in the meantime advanced from 2,650,000 to ¥65,000,000. The first fishery law in Chosen was issued in 1909, and this was replaced three years later by a new law providing for the definite establishment of fishing rights over a certain area of waters, the prohibition of certain actions harmful to fishing in specified areas and the prevention of individual monopolization of any fishing area. Trawling within special zones was also prohibited, and certain restrictions were made to the number of whaling-boats and to the diving apparatus carried. Mention should be made in this connection of famous "hanyo" (woman divers) of Quelpart Island. There are 7,000 of these women and they are engaged in catching sea-ears and many kind of shellfish, and gathering laver and other sea-weeds by diving into the deep sea. The total earnings of these women amount to one million yen a year.

The following shows the marine products for two years, 1934 and 1935, the value of each of which exceeds ¥1,000,000 :

Kind	1934 Value	1935 Value
	(In yen)	
Mackerel	5,716,000	5,438,000
Sardine	13,334,000	16,638,000
Guchi	3,621,000	3,835,000
Herring	2,548,000	2,539,000
Sea-bream	1,299,000	1,322,000
Hair-tail	1,931,000	1,912,000
Plaice	1,263,000	1,053,000
Cod	1,540,000	2,345,000
Shrimps	1,880,000	4,191,000
Mintai (Alaska pollack)	4,049,000	1,540,000
Mackerel-like fish	1,255,000	

Besides these, there are isinglass, yellow-tail, glue, shark, grey, mullet, rays, oyster, sea-eel, conger-eel, etc., valued each at between ¥500,000 and ¥1,000,000.

Mining

The present mining law, enacted in 1916, provides that mining rights can be granted only to Japanese citizens or to legal corporations under the Japanese law, and mining rights are treated as a form of real estate. As for mining rights secured by foreign citizens under the old régime, they are well respected. Of all minerals produced in Chosen gold occupies by far the most important position, the largest gold mine being the Unsan Mine operated by an American syndicate called the Oriental Consolidated Mining Company. Next in importance are the Shojo Mine worked by Frenchmen, the Suian Mine by Englishmen, and Sansei and Koyo Mines by Japanese. Formerly the mining industry in Chosen was carried on in a very primitive way except in those mines operated by foreign concerns. Soon after Chosen had been brought under Japanese protectorate rule in 1906 the Government tried hard to induce Japanese capitalists to invest capital in the mining industry of Chosen, but it was only in 1910 that Japanese capitalists began to display their energies in that lucrative undertaking. As, however, most of the more promis-

ing gold fields were already under operation by foreign capitalists, Japanese capitalists turned their attention to the exploitation of other minerals such as iron and coal. Iron ores in Korea hitherto found were mostly of hematite and limonite, the former being found in South Kankyo and Kokai provinces and the mixture of the two in South Heian and Kokai provinces. The amount of these ores stored, the purity of which is about 50 per cent, is estimated at about 20,000,000 metric tons. In 1933 about 570,000 metric tons of these ores were mined, of which about 394,000 metric tons were sent to the Kenjiho Iron Works and the balance of 176,000 metric tons to Japan proper. Fortunately a much greater store of magnesite ores is found in North Kankyo province. The purity of these magnesite ores is about 40 per cent on average.

As regards coal, almost unlimited quantity of brown and anthracite coals are stored in Korea, the quantity of the latter stored being especially large. Anthracite is mostly produced in the Heijo coal-field, and in South Kankyo, North Keisho and South Zenra provinces.

It must be mentioned that in Chosen nearly all kinds of minerals except sulphur, petroleum and asphalt are found in more or less abundance, gold, coal, and iron preponderating. The following shows the value of the mineral products of Chosen :

MINERAL PRODUCTION

(In 1,000 yen)

	1911	1921	1929	1932	1933	1934	1935
Gold	3,744	2,992	5,848	17,809	26,066	33,214	38,320
Pig iron	—	4,819	6,795	4,114	5,605	7,722	7,321
Coal	388	3,192	6,136	5,970	7,205	9,940	11,925
Iron ore	421	1,716	3,153	749	1,287	1,123	1,279
Copper	—	17	1,348	307	417	933	1,535
Gold and silver ore	262	584	1,353	944	1,906	2,511	6,502
Concentrates	246	1,489	633	638	—	—	—
Graphite	153	208	511	255	465	524	868
Placer gold	821	359	25	1,823	3,327	5,323	7,136
Silver	6	4	59	552	721	1,468	2,558
Lead	—	—	129	64	120	306	1,728
Tungsten ore	—	—	8	29	117	734	1,388
Zinc ore	21	4	85	—	97	85	80
Others	21	374	318	487	961	1,117	—
Total	6,069	15,767	26,488	33,746	48,301	69,172	88,039

Manufacturing Industry

It is only since 1916 that there has been any manufacturing industry worthy of the name in Chosen, and in 1935 the total value of manufactures reached ¥607,470,000, being over 20 times as large as that in 1911, in which year the total output was valued at ¥30,000,000. As the land has abundance of materials and a good labour supply, Chosen may be looked upon as a promising land for the future expansion of various industries. In 1911 there were in all the land only 252 manufacturing plants employing about 14,575 workers, but by 1934 this number of factories increased to 5,126 and the total number of employees to 138,809. The most important manufactures are :

(1) Cotton, hemp, and silk tissues, the total output in these goods expanding from ¥5,000,000 in 1911 to ¥82,320,000 in 1935.

(2) Paper increased from ¥382,000 in 1911 to ¥3,816,000 in 1929. Of late years the demand for foreign-style papers has grown, the imports expanding from ¥800,000 in 1911 to ¥12,355,000 in 1935.

(3) Ceramics, which show a yearly output worth ¥9,034,000 to ¥17,560,000 in 1935.

(4) Iron-wares, the annual production of which is now valued at ¥26,980,000.

(5) Fertilizers, which have an output of ¥5,292,000 a year.

(6) Tobacco, the total output being ¥39,479,319 in 1934.

(7) Marine products, the total product being ¥65,000,000 in 1935.

Total of industrial production of Chosen for the year 1935 was as follows :

INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION
FOR 1935.
(In yen)

Textile industry	82,320,000
Metalic industry	26,980,000
Machinery and tool	11,520,000

Ceramics	17,560,000
Chemical industry	147,830,000
Wood works	8,240,000
Printing and book binding	12,740,000
Gas and electric	39,800,000
Foodstuffs	169,420,000
Others	91,020,000
Total	607,470,000

Of the total ¥607,470,000, ¥200,130,000 was the production by the so-called household industries, outside factories managed by industrial companies or where more than five operatives are employed.

Justice and Police

Chosen has now a judicial system similar to that of Japan. That is to say, in addition to the supreme court there are courts of appeal and local courts, the last-named having detached and sub-detached courts widely located. Both civil and criminal cases are first tried by local courts, while appeals against the decisions of local courts are made to the courts of appeal. The supreme court handles those appeals made against judgements rendered by the local courts or complaints against decisions or orders rendered in the second instance by the courts of appeal. Grave crimes of one sort or another have greatly diminished owing to the improvement in the work of maintenance of order and security. On the other hand, what might be called intellectual crimes such as fraud, forgery, and perjury have yearly increased. Prior to the establishment of the Japanese administration flogging was a common form of punishment. In 1912 its application to aged persons, women and children was prohibited, and in 1920 it was finally abolished as it was unsuited to modern ideas of penology.

Police The police service in Chosen had been under Japan's direction for some years even prior to the establishment of Japan's protectorate in 1906. But the system which had been in force at that period proved unsatisfactory. Accordingly, in June, 1910, a new system was introduced by which the commander-in-chief of the military police was appointed chief of police, and gendarmes and civil policemen were separately stationed as local needs required. In 1919, however, that semi-militaristic police system was displaced by the one now in force. This new and present police system is modelled on that in Japan proper, with its headquarters entrusted with the entire administration of police and sanitary affairs. Numbers of administrative officials of police, police superintendents, police inspectors, police, etc. as of 1933 follow.

Class of officials	Japanese	Koreans
Administrative officials	13	—
Police superintendents	48	9
Police inspectors	338	86
Assistant police inspectors	604	154
Police	10,163	7,913
Total	11,166	8,162

Education

In the old days Korean children were taught in school nothing but Chinese writing and classics, but soon after the new régime was introduced they began to receive a more modern education, with such new subjects as arithmetic, geography and the Japanese language. The parents at first objected to the introduction of these revolutionary methods, and specially to the forcible teaching of the Japanese language, believing that this was a deliberate attempt on the part of the government to deprive the Korean children of their national and inherited traditions. It was due to this misconception held widely among the Korean people that the educational authorities found much difficulty in enrolling pupils despite the fact that no tuition was charged and all textbooks were supplied to the pupils free of charge. In 1930 the Government-General, animated by a desire to respect the wishes of the native race and to foster oriental morals developed by Confucius, reopened the old Meiringaku-in (Confusian Institute) at the Keigaku-in (formerly known to Koreans as the "Songkyun Kwan."), the oldest and highest seat of learning in the country for the study of the Confucian classics.

Important Reforms But many more reforms of far-reaching importance were made in 1920, when the present educational system was introduced. By it not only was the standard of educational attainment raised, but the principle of equality was laid down firmly though no compulsory features were adopted with regard to elementary education, as in Japan. The following differences, however, were made and are maintained out of respect for Korean sentiment.

(1) The Korean language is made an obligatory subject in schools for Korean children exclusively, while it is optional in schools for Japanese children in Chosen.

(2) The teaching of Korean history

and geography is to be particularly emphasized in schools for Korean children.

(3) Different text-books, though of an equal standard, may be used in view of the difference of language and customs of the two races. That is to say, schools for Japanese children may use text-books compiled by the Education Department of Japan, but schools for Korean children those compiled at the Education Bureau of the Government-General. Koreans are mostly educated in common schools, higher common schools and girls' common schools. The term of the Common school is six years while that of the higher and girls' higher common school is two years. Korean children who prefer to receive education at the Japanese school may enter the elementary or the middle school as they chose. The system proved very efficacious in developing the education in Korea. While there was only 100 common schools before 1910, they number now 2,105 with 565,000 pupils. The table below shows clearly the development of educational work in Chosen since 1910 :

	1911		1934		1935	
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students
Elementary schools	128	15,509	483	81,523	451	84,395
Common schools	172	20,121	2,716	636,958	2,362	720,757
Middle schools	1	205	11	6,553	12	6,715
Higher common schools	5	819	26	14,028	26	14,504
Girls' high schools	3	515	27	9,920	28	10,525
Girls' higher common schools	2	394	17	5,503	19	6,047
Normal schools	—	—	4	2,434	4	2,434
Industrial schools	20	961	58	16,229	63	17,072
Elementary industrial schools	3	93	92	4,661	97	4,163
Colleges	5	409	15	3,982	15	4,501
University preparatory schools	—	—	1	309	1	309
University	—	—	1	621	1	621
Total	2,006	110,789	2,951	782,721	3,079	872,043

Christian mission and other private schools are included in this table.

There are still a large number of Sohtang, which are old fashioned Chinese style schools where Chinese classics and brush-writing are taught. It is said that the number reaches 9,200 with 146,000 pupils. These schools are now utilized by the Government as agencies to foster public education and are controlled by regulations on Sohtang.

Short Course Elementary School Two million Korean children of school age are still unable to attend school, most of them living in remote agricultural and mountainous districts where it is not yet possible to provide educational facilities. To give some education to these children the Government introduced a plan to establish short course elementary schools with a two year course, which was put into force in April, 1934. The plan has been very popular in the country districts and the number of these schools established was very great. In 1935 they numbered 660 with 54,000 pupils.

Korean Students in Japan The Korean students in Japan now number about 4,519, most of them being in Tokyo. Those sent by the Government-General are comparatively few. The students sent by the Government-General are not only supplied with necessary funds by the Government during the period they stay in the colleges to which they have been sent, but are on graduation given official or educational positions.

Religion

Buddhism Buddhism first entered Korea about 370 A.D. It was introduced from China by a priest who brought with him a Buddhist image and the " sacred books ", and it flourished greatly in the peninsula during the days of Silla an Koryu. Under the dynasty of Yi, however, it met with persecution. The number of priests was limited and members of good families were forbidden to enter the priesthood, with the consequence that it soon lost its hold among the masses to a large extent. Things remained so until Japan extended her rule throughout the country. Then in September, 1911, an ordinance on religions was promulgated giving freedom of preaching and full protection to temples, and also raising the status of the priesthood. Since then Buddhism has been revived to a marked extent, so that at present there are

140 temples, 422 preaching houses, 610 priests and 268,000 adherents of whom 9,500 are the Koreans. There are several native religions not recognized by the Government-General, among which the most influential one is the Tendo-kyo, which in nature is a mixture of Confucianism, Buddhism and Taoism. This religion has followers numbering 82,200. Apart from Korean Buddhism and allied sects, we find Japanese forms of Buddhism lately established in the peninsula, priests of the Shin sect being the pioneers. Later three others, Jodo, Soto and Nichiren sects, entered the new religious field in competition with other sects and religions. At present nine sects of Japanese Buddhism are working among the resident Japanese as well as among the Korean masses, and at the end of 1933 there were 123 temples, 441 preaching houses, 597 priests, and 241,800 believers including 8,200 Koreans.

Christianity Christianity in Chosen was first brought by an official mission sent to Peking, China, by a Korean king in the latter half of the 18th century. This mission brought back with them a Bible and other Christian books. As its teaching, however, ran counter to the deep-rooted custom of ancient worship, King Seiso in 1784 issued an order prohibiting its preaching which was followed by a severe persecution. Though later occasionally the persecution was more or less relaxed, nothing for a time indicated a revival of Christianity. In 1833 a French missionary named Pierre Maubant came to Chosen to preach the Gospel. He was the first foreign missionary to tread the soil of the hermit kingdom. His energetic and devoted evangelistic work was not fruitless, but it alarmed the government officials, who in 1839 issued a prohibition edict. But it failed to suppress the spread of Christianity, and in 1863 there were as many as 18,000 converts. In 1866 the persecution against Korean converts was renewed with vigour, which cost the lives of 30,000 people. In 1882, however, freedom of worship was fully recognized in the country as a result of diplomatic pressure brought upon its government, and in 1885 several American missionaries came to Korea. This was the first time for Protestantism to be preached there, and it gained influence among the masses as time went on. When in 1906 Prince Ito, the foremost Japanese statesman at that time, was appointed first Resident-General, he pursued a policy of friendliness toward these foreign missionaries, this policy being pursued up to the present day under various Governors-General. The following table gives an idea on the situation of Christianity in Chosen in 1933 and 1934 :

1933	No. of mission	No. of missionaries	No. of members
Presbyterian	2,583	1,489	239,235
Roman catholic	327	184	95,520
Japan episcopal church	87	91	6,390
Japan christian church	12	15	1,802
Holiness	156	267	10,645
Methodist	16	21	1,655
Salvation army	74	77	6,523
Others	1,014	503	60,810
Total	4,269	2,647	422,580
1934	4,409	2,653	441,419

Communications and Transportation

Highways Highways existed in Korea in olden times. The Peking highway, which was one of them, connected Peking with Gishu and Keijo, and through that way embassies were exchanged between the old Korea and China. But in later years they were left in ruin. Under the Residency-General work for new ones was started with a sum of ¥1,500,000. As the first stage plan construction of four new lines aggregating 254.80 km. in four provinces was commenced in 1907, and in 1908 on another 196 km. highway in various provinces. In 1909 construction of three more highway totalling 188.16 km. in length was started, together with widening and readjusting works of streets in Keijo, Taikyu and Jinsen. In 1910 construction of twelve roads extending 164.64 km. in length was also commenced.

Since 1910 the Governor-General devised a plan to improve highway facilities through a construction of 23 roads extending over 2,263.60 km. with a sum of ¥10,000,000. The work was to run for five years consecutively, beginning with the fiscal year 1911. The plan included the followings :

First stage construction plan on 34 lines	2,690 kilometres.
Second stage construction plan on 28 lines	1,445 ,,
Highways along the frontier	863 ,,

In the fiscal year 1935, the total highways in Chosen extended 13,116 km. (1st and 2nd class highways) and 14,340 km. (3rd class highways).

Railways The construction of railways as a civilizing agency is being vigorously carried on in accordance with the 12 year programme laid in 1927. The programme covers the construction of a Tumen River line and four other lines totalling 1,384 kilometres and the purchase of five lines including the Zenshu-Riri Railway, totalling 339 kilometres. At the end of 1936 the total government-owned railway mileage reached 3,762.6 kilometres in active operation. The capital invested in the railways amounted to ¥467,700,000, and 16,557 persons are now employed in it. The following gives some idea of the development of railways in Chosen up to 1935.

	Length k. m.	Passengers	Freight (tons)	Receipts (yen)
1911	674 miles	2,024,000	888,000	4,095,000
1920	1,157 ,,	12,421,000	3,186,000	28,816,000
1925	1,309 ,,	18,241,000	4,297,000	30,708,000
1930	2,792	20,650,000	5,936,000	36,821,000
1931	3,009	19,673,704	6,025,150	36,300,512
1932	3,142	20,591,638	6,248,863	40,154,103
1933	2,935	22,238,338	7,254,859	43,611,142
1934	3,078	25,614,000	7,681,000	51,148,000
1935	3,389	29,344,188	8,667,642	56,477,897

As the through traffic between Tokyo and Europe is now established, the two main lines, Keijo-Fusan line and Keijo-Gishu line, form an important part of the railway system connecting Europe and Japan. Of all the lines now under construction the most important one is the line between Heijo and Gensan, 213 kilometres in length. When completed it will serve as an important traffic link between North China and Japan. As for the private railway enterprises in Chosen, regulations were issued in 1912 so as to provide adequately for effective supervision and protection. In 1921 new regulations were issued by which increased state aid was extended to private railway undertakings. These have in consequence made rapid progress, and at the end of 1933 their total mileage reached 1,163 kilometres operated by seven companies, though their earnings are far from being satisfactory. There are at present over 387 kilometres of additional lines either under actual construction or projected.

Tramways The followings are the main tramway lines now in operation :

49.0 km.	in Keijo
9.8 ,,	in Fusan
12.9 ,,	in Heijo
6.1 ,,	in Kanpei
1.1 ,,	in other parts
Total	82.2 kilometres

Navigation There are now 870 steamships with the total tonnage of 64,641 tons, their routes being interport, Korea-Japan and Korea-China-Russia. The following table shows the progress in this method of transportation in the last eight years :

	Steamers		Sailing-boats	
	Number	Tonnage	Number	Tonnage
1925	147	44,520	627	21,075
1929	185	47,161	694	23,083
1930	196	53,998	692	22,911
1931	202	52,302	745	24,778
1932	223	57,512	756	24,889
1933	235	57,920	796	26,573
1934	259	53,547	851	28,429
1935	870	64,641	10,502	134,386

Navigable Rivers The most important river in Chosen is perhaps the Yalu or Oryokko which, forming the boundary line between Chosen and Manchoukuo, rises in the Paktusan or "Everwhite" Mountains (2,744 m.) and empties into the Yellow Sea. Its length is about 800 km. of which about 700 km. is navigable by air-propeller boats under governmental subsidy. Timber felled on the mountain slopes is made into rafts and floated down until it reaches the lumber-yards at Shingishu or Antung. Another river of importance is the River Daido which flows through Heijo and empties into he Yel-

low Sea in the neighbourhood of Chinnampo. The river is 400 km. long, navigable for a distance of 245 km. These are also four other rivers wide enough for navigation by sailing boats and motor boats. These are :

Rakuto (flowing into Chosen Channel)	344 km. (Navigable course)			
Kanko (flowing into Yellow Sea)	300 km.			
Kinko	„	„	„	„ 130 „
Tumen	„	„	„	„ 85 „

Airways There are at present three airports established in Chosen. These ports are located at Urusan, Keijo and Heijo. Besides that in the following places ground marks are set up : Urusan, Kwokan, Taiden, Tenan, Shariin, Heijo, Teishu and Shingishu. Moreover, in Urusan and Keijo there are now built wireless stations for keeping in communication with the airways. At the airport of Urusan there is installed a meteorological observatory for forecasting weather conditions in the interests of air navigators. Most of the air traffic between Chosen and Japan is being done by planes belonging to the Japan Air Transport Company.

Post, Telegraph and Telephone Prior to 1905 there were 516 postal offices in the peninsula. In March, 1935, they numbered 1,009, but in this are included 913 offices engaged for telegraph and telephone service exclusively. Number of mails accepted and delivered in the same year amounted to 327,589,184 and 358,872,054, that of parcels to 2,505,926 and 3,728,794 and that of cables to 7,312,100 and 7,218,914 respectively. In November, 1926, a Radio Broadcasting Office was established in Keijo and opened to business in February, 1927.

With the advent of the Government-General the facilities of communication were further expanded as far as the budget could allow. Post offices now number 922, while the total length of telegraph and telephone lines reaches 8,758 km. and 9,531 km. respectively. Remote country places where there are at present no railway facilities mails are collected and delivered by automobiles. With the exception of a few islands, every town or village in Chosen has at least one mail delivered every day.

Public Hygiene

Prior to 1906 Chosen was a land practically without access to any medical service worthy of the name and the sick were simply placed under the care of unqualified practitioners of the old Chinese school or of witches or magicians. The situation was made worse by an entire lack of sanitary equipments and pure water, the consequence being frequent outbreaks of various infectious diseases. As soon as the protectorate was brought into existence in 1906 the first step taken by the government with a view to giving the nation the benefit of sanitation was the establishment of a modern hospital in Keijo. Since 1910 further steps have been taken to extend modern medical and sanitary benefits among the masses, even among those in very remote regions. The construction and extension of waterworks is another work pushed on by the government with vigour so as to provide the people with good drinking water. The Government-General has also taken efficient and energetic measures for the prevention of epidemics ; in consequence, small-pox which was formerly so virulent in Chosen, has almost died out. Moreover, sanitary regulations relating to foodstuffs, drinks, and drugs are rigidly enforced. Medical and hospital equipments have been greatly improved. At the end of 1934 hospitals numbered 136 including government institutions, and there were 2,302 licensed medical practitioners which meant that there was only one physician for every 8,836 of population. Korean medical practitioners numbered 4,155 in the same year.

Leprosy Asylums In view of a large number of lepers the Government-General established the Government Charity Hospital for Lepers at Shoroku Island, South Zenra Province in 1917. Since 1923 annual subsidies have also been granted by the National Treasury to private organizations engaged in this work. Apart from this the Government-General distributes free of charge to leper asylums as well as to individual patients medicine specially prepared for their cure. The number of lepers was estimated at 8,000 in 1932, of whom about 800 were taken care of at the Government Charity Hospital and 1,700 at three private institutions.

In December, 1932 the Sociey for the Prevention of Leprosy was organized by leading officials and citizens of Chosen. The primary aim of the society was to establish a colony large enough to accommodate 3,000 roaming lepers. The work was to be started in 1933

and completed by 1935. Contribution amounting to ¥1,580,000 was made, which consisted of ¥110,000 by the National Treasury, ¥170,000 from local funds and ¥1,210,000 by public subscriptions. In addition a special grant of ¥30,000 from Her Imperial Majesty the Empress Dowager, and another of ¥60,000 from His Highness Prince Yi were made. The society selected Shorokuto (Little Deer Island) as the site of the new colony where it purchased 1,100,000 tsubo of land. The construction work of the asylums was completed in October, 1935.

There are more than fifty lepers serving sentences in prisons of various places, where their segregation and treatment are very difficult. Accordingly the society made a plan to build a special prison on Shorokuto where these convicts might serve their term and might also receive proper treatment. 400 lepers were received in 1933, 1,600 in 1934, and by October, 1935 it was reported 1,000 more would be received. The colony and the Charity Hospital combined will ultimately be able to receive 3,800 in all.

Private Leprosy Asylums In addition to the asylum at Shorokuto three asylums have been founded by Christian missions. The Government-General has been granting them since 1923 annual subsidy of ¥36,500. This was increased to ¥62,596 in 1932. Her Imperial Majesty the Empress bestowed a special grant of ¥1,000 a year to each for five years beginning with 1930. Her Imperial Majesty the Empress Dowager, most graciously rewarded head of each asylum for their selfsacrificing services. Locations, etc. of these asylums follow :

Taikyu Leper Asylum.

Founded in March, 1913 at the outskirts of the town by Dr. A. G. Fletcher. At present patients number 500.

Fusan Leper Asylum.

Founded in March, 1911 by the late Dr. C. H. Irvin, and now managed by Rev. J. N. Mchenzie. Inmates number 600 at present.

Aiseien Leprosarium at Reisui.

Founded in February, 1911 by Dr. R. M. Wilson at the outskirts of Koshu (Kwangji) but in February, 1926 moved to Reisui, South Zenra Province. Inmates number 720 at present.

A comparatively accurate estimate on the number of lepers in Chosen made in 1934 put it at 12,000, of whom 6,000 were either poor wanderers or those whose disease was still concealed.

Prohibition of Opium Smoking

Soon after its inauguration the Government-General made a serious effort to deal with opium-smoking. The habit of pium-smoking among the Korean people had been quite strong, specially among those in the frontier regions, many deaths resulting therefrom. The Government-General's drive for the abolition of this vicious habit was a thorough one. Those who were found smoking opium were made liable for criminal punishment. It would be, however, an exaggeration to say that the land was entirely freed from the evil, as much opium still being smuggled in from China. In 1919 poppy cultivation was absolutely prohibited except for the purpose of supplying the needs of the medical profession and a certain limitation was placed on the area of its cultivation, and the product so raised was not permitted to be sold on the general market, being all taken over by the Government at a fixed price. In 1930, the Government-General granted a subsidy of ¥16,240, in addition to sufficient money to buy a necessary quantity of morphine to be divided among the provinces to assist in the cure of addicts. As a result 2,837 addicts out of a total of 2,944 treated at the provincial morphine asylums were completely cured. The following is the policy now being pursued by the Government-General in its effort to conquer the evil of opium-smoking :

(1) To attempt to cure all morphine addicts within 10 years ;

(2) To take into its own hands all the work of manufacturing and selling the morphine to be supplied to the registered addicts :*

(3) To permit no person other than those registered to use morphine, and to punish heavily those who smuggled or secretly sold it ;

(4) To educate the people so as to prevent any increase of addicts.

On March 3, 1930, the Government-General issued an order forcing all addicts to be registered and in the end of that year those who registered totalled 3,278 out of 5,094 persons known to be addicts.

Principal Cities and Places of Interest

Keijo (Seoul) In 1392, A.D. at the old palace in Songdo Yi Taijo, the founder of the Yi Dynasty, ascended the throne after a stormy coup d'état against the former Wang Dynasty, and selected Seoul as his new seat of government. His palaces were surrounded with great walls. Seoul became the scene of the

*The government manufacture began March, 1933.

Hideyoshi Invasion of 1592 and the Ching Conquest of 1636. More recently the Chino-Japanese War was fought around it.

The age-old lofty peaks of "Hokkansan" (Pukhan) on the north and the green-clad slopes of "Nansan" on the south, permanent sentinels of the old capital, look down on the transformed city. The Kan (Han) River which encircles the site of the town tells mysterious tales of the past, but its course is now spanned by modern heavy steel bridges over which run steam trains, electric trolley cars and hooting motors. Under these fussy motor launches thread their way through drowsy sails of the tenaciously enduring junks. A glimpse from the sky reveals the city changing to modernity, but withal the historical palaces and gates remain to draw attention and provide a panorama combined of the old and new.

Keijo Station is the main entrance to Seoul. Every day ten thousand passengers rush in and out of this station. It is located outside of the South Gate between main streets of Keijo and the suburb of Ryuzan.

The Commercial Museum was built in 1929. Visitors can readily get here the first hand information on agricultural products and manufactured goods of the peninsula as well as on its methods of commercial transaction.

The Nandaimon (the South Gate) is the largest and most beautiful of eight gates on way to Keijo. During the reign of the Yi Dynasty, the gate served as the main entrance to the capital. Then, when the great bell installed at the heart of the city rang in the evening the gate was closed and traffic stopped. The walls have gradually been removed and broad paved roads laid in their place. Their remnants still exists on mountain slopes nearby. The old gate was built in 1396 under the reign of King Yi Taijo and there it proudly stands with its splendor today, a flower of the oriental art, challenging modern buildings that surround it.

The Chosen Jingu. To the right towards "Nansan" from the "Nandaimon" by the broad asphalted road and still higher through the stone "Torii" by the granite stairway of 384 steps, the threshold of the grand Chosen Jingu is reached. This shrine is dedicated to the spirits of the great Amaterasu Omikami, Sun Goddess, and of the late Emperor Meiji as Guardian Deities of the peninsula. The construction work started in May, 1920 and completed after five years and six months at the cost of two million yen.

The Great Bell. In the heart of the city at Shoro (Chongno), a red painted belfry in Korean style towers which contains the Great Bell, ten feet high with a circumference of twenty feet. Though silent now, it rang twice a day under the old régime before daybreak and at sunset. The early morning bell announced opening of the eight gates of the city, while the evening bell ordered their closing and instructed men to withdraw from the streets so that women could go out. This bell was cast in 1468 by order of King Seicho, and at first it was placed in a belfry at the Nandaimon.

The North Palace (the Keifukukyu) was built in 1395 immediately after the removal of the capital from Songdo (Kaijo) to Seoul, but was burned in 1592. According to the old records, the original architecture bore splendid works of art which have been proved by archaeological discoveries made among the ruins in later years. In 1867 the Regent, Taiwonkun, started repair works on the palace, which was completed in two years. The Royal family then moved to it from the East Palace.

In the Audience Hall (Kinseiden) of the palace coronation and other important official ceremonies were performed and the King used to give audience to the princes of the blood and other high dignitaries. "Keikairo" means the "Pavilion of Happy Meeting," and here luxurious court banquets and other classical entertainments were given. The two storied pavilion is supported by forty-eight solid stone pillars, fifteen feet high. In 1909 most of palace buildings of lesser importance were dismantled and in 1919 the buildings which contained the royal bed chambers were also moved to the East Palace. The total area of the North Palace is 130,000 tsubo. The wall that surrounded the original palace was twenty two feet in height and extended more than three kilometres.

Government-General Office. The magnificent white building, with the old North Palace at the background, is the Office of the Government-General. Begun in the summer of 1916, it was finished in the winter of 1925, at the total cost of nearly seven million yen. The art museum is located between the modern Government-General Office and the old classical "Keifuku" palace.

The East Palace (Shotokukyu). The royal residence of Her Highness the Dowager Princess Yi was built as detached palace, but has since been twice burned. The present palace was built

after the Hideyoshi Invasion.

The Throne Room (Jinseiden or "the Hall of Benevolent Rule") and royal dwellings are located in the inner court. Here are the art museum of the Prince Yi household, and the zoological and botanical gardens. An old palace called the "Meiseiden" (The Hall of Bright Rule) belongs to the architecture of the later period of the "Koryo" Dynasty. Because it is facing the east contrary to all other palaces which are facing the south and because it is one of the oldest buildings in Keijo, this palace is the object of admiration for those who are interested in archaeology.

The Keigaku-in (Temple of Confucius). This solemn classical edifice is rich in Chinese colouring and is surrounded by gingko biloba and other venerable old trees. In this temple sacrifices are offered to the spirits of Confucius and other sages at festivals held twice a year, in the spring and autumn. Attached to the temple is a Confucian institute known as "Meiringaku-in" where young men are trained in the principles of Confucian teachings.

The Tokujukyu (Toksu Palace). Beyond a large red gate known as Taikanmon (Taihanmoon) are a group of palaces. Those which are built in Korean style stand on one side and European-styled granite palaces at the farthest end of the royal ground.

Pagoda Park was laid out in 1905-1907 over the buried ruins of an ancient Buddhist temple. The pagoda itself was erected in 1464 under the reign of King Seicho, together with the old temple. In the park there is also a huge stone tortoise with a stone tablet on its back—a memento of an old temple. The bronze statue in the park is a monument dedicated to the late Baron Megata, financial adviser to the Korean Government, who rendered meritorious services to the Government and who was greatly interested in having the park enlarged and improved.

The Chosen Hotel. One of the most palatial, yet most homelike hotels in the orient and is built on the site where the Emperor Yi held his coronation in 1897. As a souvenir of the ceremony a wooden pagoda known as the "Temple of Heaven" still stands in the centre of the "rose-garden" behind the hotel.

The Dokuritsu-mon (Doknip-moon or Independence Arch) bears inscription, "Independence". The arch was built commemorate the virtual Korean independence from China as the result of the Chino-Japanese War. In front of the arch there was once a gate known as "Geion-mon" which literally means gate of inviting favour from the celestial empire. Now only the lonely pillars remain.

Shochu-dan Park and Prince Ito Temple. To the east of the park across a stream stands Prince Ito Temple in the Kamakura age style, a magnificent two storied reinforced concrete building. The temple was erected to the memory of the late Prince Ito, the first Resident-General of Korea.

Jinsen (Inchun or Chemulpo) Until fifty years ago Jinsen was only a small fishing village lying on the coast of the Yellow Sea at the mouth of the Han River. It is a big port to-day. About 25 miles in distance to Keijo it stands in something like the same way as Yokohama stands to Tokyo and railway connection between the two is good. In its inner harbour lies Getsubito while in its outer harbour are Yeisoto and a large group of smaller islands. The difference in the height between mean high and low tides in the harbour is ten metres which used to cause a great inconvenience for steamers in anchoring, and loading and discharging cargoes. To overcome this difficulty a lock-gate dock was constructed with electric control. The dock is 454.5 metres long and 218.1 metres wide with the minimum depth of water of 8 metres, and was finished in 1918 after seven years' work.

Getsubito, meaning literally "Moon-Tail Island," is known to foreigners as Roze Island, where amusements of various kinds are provided. Kokato or Kangwha Island in the mouth of the Han River is rich in historical remains and is beautiful to look at. Kangwha was a shelter of refuge for the Korean royal families in turbulent days.

Kaijo, or Songdo Songdo is an interesting place full of historical remains and scenic beauties, and is also a land of ginseng. In the tower of the South Gate is a big bell six hundred years old, which bears artistic designs and wonderful inscriptions in Sanskrit. Songdo was the capital of the Koryo Dynasty. The Wangs ruled there for 460 years till it was destroyed by Yi Taicho in 1392. In the environs of Songdo mausoleums of kings and queens of the Koryo Dynasty are found. At these mausoleums are some of the best products of art of the Koryo Period. To the north from Kaijo Station is the famous Park Yun waterfall, above which is an elegant pavilion arch, which was the north gate of an old castle formerly used as a detached palace of kings of the Wang Dynasty.

Heijo, or Pyengyang Heijo, now the

greatest city in the northwest Chosen is situated on the extensive fertile plain watered by the Daido River and is a great industrial city.

There is an evidence that the people of the stone age made their dwellings along the Taitong River. A few miles north of Pyengyang are found remnants of this age, such as axes, knives, hammers, daggers, and arrowheads. Tangoon was believed to be the father of Korea and the name Chosen was given it by him probably in 2,333 B.C. Tangoon must have ruled Chosen and made Pyengyang his capital and made it, too, one of the oldest cities in the world. Pyengyang became later the capital of Naknang Province and flourished until the Kokuryu people, migrated here from Fuyo district north of the Yalu River, invaded and took its possession about 314 A.D. The tombs and remains of these people show that the degree of culture which they attained was high. About 20 miles to the west of Pyengyang, at Oohulli, are three great mounds, 30 feet high, 170 feet in diametre and 500 feet in base circumstance. They are built of granite with an unusual skill.

Kongosan or Diamond Mountain Of all places of interest in Chosen Kongosan is most famous and is always the centre of admiration and praise of tourists.

The mountain group is a portion of the main range which extend from north to south of Chosen and stretches along her east coast. It extends over 65 kilometres and the precipitous peaks are said to number twelve thousands. It is only six hours' comfortable trip by train to get there from Keijo.

The best season for visiting the mountain is mid-autumn when the land enjoys an unbroken spell of fine weather ideal for outings. Then the entire mountain is agleam with gorgeous tints of autumn foliage. Another season which is good for visiting will be April and May when lilacs, magnolias and azaleas are in glorious bloom. It is also a good summer resort for those desiring to escape the heat in that season.

Koreans in Manchoukuo

History of Emigration The emigration of Koreans to Manchuria across the Yalu and Tumen Rivers has a historical background in addition to geographical reasons. According to popular traditions, there were Korean farm villages already dotted in the district of Chientao (Kanto) during the reign of "Kiang Hsi" (1662–1723). In early days there was no frontier line defined by the Governments of China and Korea for Chientao which was sparsely inhabited though the soil was very fertile. It was therefore perfectly natural for many Koreans to cross the Tumen River. In 1890 there was a record outflow of the northern Koreans who attempted to escape from privations of a terrible famine. After the establishment of a branch office of the Residency General in Chientao in 1907 there was a further increase. According to the latest official statistics, these immigrants, who number now 453,345 and occupy about 80 per cent of the total population of Chientao, are mostly farmers who have turned the wild soil into the pres ent fertile land. More than half of the arable land in Chientao is owned by the Koreans while a portion of the rest, though under Manchou ownership, is cultivated by Korean tenants. So Chientao has appearance of being a portion of Chosen.

Other groups of Koreans crossed the Yalu River and advanced to the interior of Manchuria. After the Russo-Japanese War still greater number from the north and south of Korea swarmed into Manchuria through Antung, and many have settled in the regions now traversed by the North Manchuria and the Kirin Tunwha Railways. According to the latest official returns, they number about 354,000, but the actual figure may be twice as large. These Korean farmers have transformed vast dreary wilds into 100,000 chobu of rich paddy fields, which form a good economic resource to Manchoukuo. The Government-General, in conjunction with the Imperial Government and the South Manchuria Railway Co. are making efforts to promote education, public health, quarantine, banking, industries, relief work, police affairs, census registration, etc. for these people. With the birth of Manchoukuo the general conditions have changed and the Koreans in Manchuria are now fared well, so that the Koreans at home began moving afresh to the new state in increasing number.

In order to provide permanent settlements for new immigrants the Government-General established between 1931 and 1934 within safety areas of north and south Manchuria four large farm villages. At the same time various facilities to look after their health, education, economic welfare, etc. have been installed. Conditions of these farm-villages follow :

(1) The Tieh-ling farm-village is on the upper basin of the Liaoho, about three miles from Lan Hsieh-Shan Station on the South Manchuria Railway line. The

total area of the village is 720 chobu of which 600 chobu are paddy fields and 120 chobu dry land. At present the village has 250 Korean families with 1,200 people.

(2) Ujimiho farm-village is near a tributary of the Sungari River lying to the east of Harbin six miles to the north-east of Ujimiho Statin on the North Manchuria Railway line. The total area is 2,500 chobu, of which 2,000 chobu are paddy fields and 500 chobu dry land. A plan is now completed to accomodate a thousand Korean families on this farm.

(3) Yingkow (Newchwang) farm-village is at the mouth of the Liao River opposite Yingkow harbour. The total area is 2,500 chobu near which a vast grassland of 15,000 chobu extends along the right bank. There are one thousand families on the farm.

(4) Suika farm-village is about twelve miles to the east of Chin Chia on the Hulan-Hailun Railway in north Manchuria across the Sungari River. The total area is 1,300 chobu with 3,000 people and 600 families.

The Chientao district has long been a nest for Korean malcontents and communist bandits. They used to incessantly harass Korean farmers, especially after the Manchurian Incident. In 1932 and 1933 the Government-General set about establishment in Chientao of twenty five special farming groups. Each group organized its self-defence corps and fortified their village. These groups enlarged their safety zones, and succeeded in establishing them at various strategic points, which play an important rôle in the preservation of peace in Chientao. The Government-General provides there all means to further prosperity of the farmers and assists them in making the farms ideal ones. An agreement was also made with the Oriental Development Company in 1932 with a view to installing 2,500 families of independent farmers with a grant of ¥2,000,000 spread over five years. At the end of August, 1936, 2,830 families have been settled on an area of 13,264 cho, and the expenses needed for the purpose reached ¥1,474,153.

CHAPTER XLI

TAIWAN (FORMOSA)

General Description

Area and Topography Taiwan (Formosa) forms the westernmost part of the Japanese Empire. It is washed by the Pacific on the east, and is separated from China on the west by the Formosan Straits and on the south from the Philippines by Bashi and Balintang Channels. It extends from 119° 18′ to 122° 6′ E. longitude, and from 21° 45′ to 25° 38′ N. latitude. The Tropic of Cancer bisects the island, which is about 394.28 km. long, its greatest width being 122.31 km. The Pescadores (Bokoto) and other outlying islands form a political division of the Taiwan Government-General. They cover 126.86 sq. km. The area of Taiwan, including the Pescadores, is 35,973.55 sq. km., being about 5.3 per cent of the total area of Japan, a little smaller than Kyushu, and about one-sixth the size of Chosen (Korea). As regards its topography, Taiwan is an island which rises from the sea to a height of 3,950 metres, reached at the summit of Mount Niitaka (Mount Morrison). It consists of a mountain range with narrow valleys on both coasts which are the population centres. The valley on the west coast is the principal population centre. That on the east coast is little developed and is capable of but slight further development. The rivers are not long and their current is very swift; in the rainy season they flood the surrounding country, causing much damage. The climate is semi-tropical. In summer the north is visited by rains; in winter the south. The temperature rarely falls below the freezing point.

The Inhabitants The territorial system of Formosa was organized during five years, 1898 to 1902, by a large land-investigation enterprise made by the Government-General. The island is inhabited by Japanese, natives and foreigners. The Japanese went there after the occupation of the island by Japan, and the foreigners are mostly Chinese. The number of Western people is small. The native Chinese are mostly Mins from Fukien province and Cantonese from the China coasts across the Formosan Straits, composing 92 per cent of the total population. The aborigines consist of savages and semi-civilized tribes. The following figures show total number of the population at the end of 1934 and 1935 :

	1934	1935
Japanese	262.964	269,798
Koreans	1,316	4,990,131
Natives	4,882,288	150,489
Aboriginal savages	148,472	1,604
Chinese	48,193	53,900
Foreigners	219	209
Total	5,194,980	5,315,642

Including the savages, the total population at the end of 1935 in Taiwan was 5,315,642, showing an increase of 120,662 over that at the end of 1934 and 2,268,787 over the end of 1905, when the first census-taking results were announced. This means a yearly gain for the 30 years of 75,626.

The areas, population, number of counties and districts and number of towns and villages of five provinces, three districts and nine cities at the end of September, 1934 follow :

	Area sq. ri	Population	No. of counties or sub-districts	No. of towns and villages
Taihoku province	297.9	1,032,110	9	39
Shinchiku „	296.3	733,004	8	42
Taichu „	478.7	1,157,453	11	57
Tainan „	351.5	1,313,883	10	66

	Area sq. ri	Pupulation	No. of counties or sub-districts	No. of towns and villages
Takao province	371.0	718,491	7	43
Taito district	228.0	66,624	4	11
Karenko „	300.1	106,572	4	10
Boko „	8.2	66,843	2	5
Taihoku city	3.0	283,085	—	—
Keelung „	3.0	84,650	—	—
Shinchiku „	2.3	54,110	—	—
Shoka „	4.2	51,152	—	—
Taichu „	1.4	68,414	—	—
Tainan „	3.1	109,867	—	—
Kagi „	3.6	70,083	—	—
Takao „	2.7	81,582	—	—
Heito „	4.0	41,715	—	—

The Climate Being in the semi-tropical zone, the summer time is long and the winter is short. The highest temperature, however, is not very much higher than in Japan proper, but the weather is warmer during the winter time. Frost is very rare and water has been known to freeze over only twice since Taiwan came under Japanese rule. The island lies in the highway of typhoons, and is yearly visited by them, terrible damage being sometimes caused.

During a 38-year period ending in 1934, Formosa was hit by severe typhoons no less than 91 times; of these, as many as 7 occurred in the year 1914.

Typhoons originate generally in the offing northeast or east of Luzon Island of the Philippines, and cross the island or enter the Chinese mainland, passing the southern or northern extremity of the island. Taiwan forms a part of an earthquake zone connecting Kyushu, Okinawa Islands and the Philippines and naturally it is very often visited by seismic shocks. The number of earthquakes registered in the island or the neighbouring seas during 25 years ending 1933, was 8,502, which means 327 a year or nearly one every day.

Administration System

When Taiwan came under Japan's rule in April, 1895, the Japanese Government established the Taiwan Affairs Bureau in June of that year and then in August of the same year the Taiwan Government-General Act was promulgated in connection with the introduction of military administration. This was replaced by the civil administration in March of the following year. The Taiwan Government-General came under the supervision of the Minister of Overseas Affairs with the establishment of the Ministry in June, 1929. The Governor-General invested with authority to require military assistance from the commanders of the army and navy in the territory under his jurisdiction, when he deems it necessary to do so for the maintenance of peace and order in Taiwan. If the Governor-General is either a soldier or a naval man, he is able simultaneously to assume the command of the Formosan Army. The Governor-General also is invested with authority to supervise officials under him, promote them in rank, retire them from service, or recommend them for honours through the Minister of Overseas Affairs and the Premier, and to suspend or cancel orders and administrative measures of provincial governors under him, when such are deemed damaging to public interest or overstepping the sphere of their authority. The Taiwan Government-General consists, besides the secretariat to the Governor-General, of five bureaux, that is, the Home Affairs Bureau, Educational Affairs Bureau, Financial Affairs Bureau, Colonial Development Bureau and Police Affairs Bureau. The chief of general affairs, or civil governor, directors of the five bureaux and many other officials are under the supervision of the Governor-General. There is an Advisory Council to the Governor-General, which serves as a very important organ for the administration of the island. Not only does it give advice to the Governor-General on laws or regulations but also on general important business. The members consist of Government-General officials and leading persons in private circles in the island. The provincial administration extends over 5 provinces, 3 districts, 9 cities and 45 counties. There are the same number of provincial governors, district superintendents, city administrators and county chiefs, all under the Government-General.

Aboriginal Administration

The Taiwan aborigines are the oldest inhabitants of the island and are classified into semi-civilized aborigines and savage head-hunters. The former have now settled down as ordinary peaceful citizens and differ nothing in culture and general status from the natives who belong to the Han (Chinese) race. The head-hunters, on the other hand, live in mountainous districts and still adhere to their traditional habits and manners, their culture being very low. The Taiwan Government-General is concerned in its aboriginal administration mostly with these savage tribes. These savages lead a very primitive life, their dwelling-places being so difficult of access, and they still deter other tribes from settling near them by their traditional custom of head-hunting. Since Japan's occupation of Taiwan great efforts have been directed by the authorities to their subjugation and cultural improvement, and at the present time head-hunting is rapidly becoming extinct, and these savages are entering the first stage of civilized life. Some of them living along the mountain zone in west Taiwan, and those living on the sea coast in east Taiwan, pay taxes. These aborigines have a close resemblance to the Negritoes in the South Sea islands and are supposed by anthropologists to be of a Malay-origin. They may be classified into seven tribes: Taiyal, Saiset, Bunun, Tsuwo, Paiwan, Ami and Yami, and are entirely different in countenance, physical build, language and habits from the Han race who came over from continental China. These savages are distinguished by their extreme hatred of other tribes, and have a habit of combining together in an offensive and defensive alliance against any enemy. The number of these savages at the end of 1934 was 148,472, of whom 74,404 were male and 74,068 female. They lived in 24,496 houses in 592 villages. Their population in 1934 and 1935 was:

Tribes	1934	1935	Increase or decrease
Taiyal	34,957	35,639	682
Saiset	1,462	1,482	20
Tsuwo	2,191	2,168	23
Bunun	18,408	17,757	(−) 651
Paiwan	42,614	43,460	644
Ami	47,064	48,237	1,193
Yami	1,682	1,695	13
Others	455	51	(−) 404
Total	148,472	150,489	2,017

Note: (−) shows decrease

The Four Tribes The savages of the Taiyal and Bunun tribes are known as the most ferocious of all. Occasionally they quarrel with and even kill their own comrades. The Tsuwo tribe abolished the custom of head-hunting many years ago. The Saiset tribesmen are the gentlest of all, and are quickly losing their savage proclivities. The Japanese authorities have cudgelled their brains how to bring these wild people under control. When Holland occupied the south of Taiwan and Spain the north, they tried to pacify them principally through the medium of religion and medicine. During the time when the Cheng family from south China ruled the island, force and conciliation were adopted in turn, but the results were not satisfactory. Conciliation has dominated Japan's policy toward these savages in the island since her occupation of Taiwan. When the campaigns against rebels came to an end in 1902, attention was given to the aboriginal control policy. Owing to the stubborn resistance offered by the savages, the Governor-General, General Viscount Samata Sakuma, drafted a five-year plan for dealing with the aborigines and established the campaign headquarters in the Government-General in 1909 to start the enterprise on an elaborate scale. The fundamental policy was based on conciliation, and training the savages to become law-abiding people on the one hand, and chastisement of the insubordinate on the other. The confiscation of their arms was one of the important tasks. All arms were given up to the Japanese authorities by the northern aborigines in 1914. This completed the task of aboriginal pacification in January, 1915. Occasional raids on police stations and head-hunting of innocent people were committed after that, owing to the instigation of malcontents. The worst outbreak that took place was the Musha Incident in October, 1930, which culminated in the sending of troops. Many of them are engaged in farm work and pay taxes. Some of them receive special education. Policemen are stationed at various points of vantage in the savage districts and peace maintenance, job-finding, education, medical care, traffic, public works and sundry other affairs are being looked after by them. Since the occupation of Taiwan to the end of 1934 rifles confiscated numbered 30,021, of which 14,286 rifles were confiscated in 1914, when the five-year campaign plan came to an end. Spades replaced rifles. During the 39 years which ended in 1934, 7,082 people lost their lives at the hands of savages and the

largest number of them in a single year was 761 in 1912. In 1930, 158 deaths were reported. This is due to the Musha Incident. Of the total of 7,082 victims during those 39 years, those of police, Japanese and native, numbered 2,205 and those of officials and ordinary people together 4,877. During the same period 4,099 were wounded in connection with the campaign against savages. A change, however, is beginning to be made in the lives of these people in recent years. They are emerging from their primitive condition into an economic existence. They are glad to work on paddy fields and take up other sorts of labour. They are now pretty well initiated into money-saving habits. Their postal savings deposits at the end of 1934 amounted to ¥440,725, representing 22,853 depositors, the highest single deposit being ¥5,464 and the average deposit ¥19.29 per head. At present the aboriginal administration consists mainly in finding work for the aborigines and giving them education.

Occupations of Aborigines The work in which the aborigines are mainly engaged is cultivation of paddy fields, stock-raising, sericulture and other kinds of farming. They raised 24,792 koku of unhulled rice in 1934 (one koku being 5.1116 bushels), showing a gain of 1,434 koku over 1933. The authorities also encourage stock-raising. At the end of 1934 the natives had 33,319 pigs, 6,733 buffaloes, 3,373 cattle, and 3,857 goats. The value of their cocoon crop for 1934 totalled ¥36,671. They also raised sundry other farm products valued at ¥129,742 for the same year. Education is gradually spreading among the aborigines. At the end of 1934 there were 8,291 aboriginal children attending 183 schools maintained at the expense of the Government-General specially for these tribes. The Government-General authorities also are directing their energy to cultural enterprises for them. The aborigines have their own social organizations, such as the chiefs' societies, women's societies, young men's associations, school children's patron societies, and others. Members of these societies numbered 42,863. Also there were about 18,713 at the end of 1934, who were able to understand Japanese to the extent to perform some simple work. Superstition is being gradually eradicated from among the aborigines, as medical attention is being increasingly given them. Free dispensaries provided exclusively for them numbered 226 at the end of 1934. The Government-General established 106 "exchange" houses for them to sell their products. The sales at these houses in 1934 totalled ¥611,977.

Police and Judicature

The Police The Taiwan police consist of men appointed from among Japanese, natives and semi-civilized aborigines. Their services are divided into the ordinary service and aboriginal police service. The police in aboriginal districts are reenforced by police assistants appointed mostly from among naitves. These are features of the police services of Taiwan. What is known as the tithing system of Taiwan provides a feature of peace preservation in the island. This system is of Chinese origin and was first adopted as an auxiliary to the police system in 1898. Owing to the satisfactory results attained, it also was extended to the lower grades of the administration in 1909. One tithing group consists of 100 houses and it looks after the peace of the group. In case these groups organize an association, the matter has to be sanctioned by provincial governors or district superintendents. Each group has its chief, who is elected and sanctioned by governor or superintendent. His duty is to maintain peace and order in his tithing district. Members of groups consist of men ranging from 17 to 50 years old and must be of good character. They offer their services free. The number of groups involved in the tithing system of Taiwan was 5,383 at the end of 1934. Many pirates infest the coast of Taiwan, mostly coming from south China. They attack junks during the summer time. The police on duty against these sea raiders are attached to provincial or district governments.

Judicature The judicature of Taiwan consists of two grades of courts, viz., the supreme court and three district courts, the latter having four branches in all—all under control of the Governor-General. The functions of the various courts are practically the same as those of the courts in Japan proper.

Religion and Education

Religion There are 26 Shinto shrines in Taiwan. The Taiwan Shrine is a first-rank Government shrine and is the central shrine of worship for the Japanese people in the island. It is located in a suburb of Taihoku, the capital of the island, and is dedicated to Okuninushi, Oanamuchi and Sukunahikona, all legendary leaders of the early Japanese race, and to His Imperial Highness General Prince Yoshihisa Kitashirakawa,

who died in the island when commanding the Japanese expeditionary force in Taiwan during the Sino-Japanese War. Shintoism, Buddhism and Christianity have been propagated by the Japanese since 1895. Confucianism is observed among the natives and Chinese people in the island.

Education The continuous efforts of the Government-General have been rewarded to such an extent that the natives have been receiving education since 1922 together with Japanese in the classes of middle-school grade and in higher institutions, although the elementary education is still given both in the vernacular and Japanese languages. Besides numerous elementary schools. Taiwan had at the end of April, 1935, 10 middle schools, 13 girls' schools, 6 special schools of middle school grade, 4 normal schools, 4 colleges and 1 Imperial University. The Taihoku Imperial University was founded in March, 1928. It consists of two departments, one literature and politics and the other physics and agriculture. The educational expenses for the last six years are :

	Total amount	State expenses	Provinces and districts	Cities, towns and villages
		(In ¥1,000)		
1930	16,916	5,638	7,707	3,570
1931	17,074	5,428	7,709	3,936
1932	16,289	4,820	7,842	3,627
1933	16,723	4,895	7,842	3,985
1934	18,026	5,042	8,391	4,593
1935	21,264	5,839	9,379	6,251
Average	17,714	5,277	8,145	4,490

Agriculture

Agriculture is the most important industry of Taiwan. Since the island came under Japan's control, it has made a rapid development and the total farm production in 1935 was worth ¥361,040,000, composing about 50 per cent of all the industrial production of the island. The area under cultivation in 1900 was 363,290 ko(one ko being 2.377 acres or 2,934 tsubo). It increased to 856,775 ko at the end of 1935, more than double that of 31 years ago. The cultivated land is more than 20 per cent of the island's total area. The area of cultivated land since 1900 has been as follows :

Year	Paddy field	Dry land	Total
	(In 1,000 ko)		
1900	211	151	363
1908	328	345	673
1912	346	364	710
1917	330	412	742
1922	376	397	773
1927	399	422	821
1928	403	425	829
1929	406	423	829
1930	408	428	836
1931	411	424	835
1932	439	400	839
1933	482	362	845
1934	463	388	851
1935	493	363	856

People engaged in agriculture are about 54 per cent of the total population. At the end of 1935 their number was 2,790,331 of whom tenant-farmers were 842,823, landed farmers 850,878, and landed tenant-farmers 842,823.

Rice Crops The climate is very well suited to rice cultivation especially in the western district, where crops are harvested twice a year. The production in 1935 was about 9,120,000 koku with a value of over ¥192,000,000. Rice forms the chief of the three most important farm products of Taiwan, that is, rice, sugar cane and potatoes. Rice known as Hōrai rice is grown heavily in recent years. Its plantation area for 1935 totalled 304,986 ko and the crop amounted to 4,496,003 koku for two crops a year. The plantation areas and rice crops since 1900 follow :

	Plantation areas (In ko)	Crops (In koku)
1900	360,922	2,052,970
1912	495,128	4,046,611
1917	480,642	4,833,813
1922	527,096	5,445,814
1927	603,153	6,898,672
1928	603,058	6,795,005
1929	579,274	6,480,762
1930	633,444	7,370,516
1931	653,380	7,479,846
1932	684,928	8,949,216
1933	696,423	8,361,839
1934	687,664	9,088,886
1935	699,675	9,122,152

Sweet Potatoes. Sweet potatoes also are extensively produced almost everywhere and all through the year in the

island. The chief producing centres are Potatoes serve as fodder for cattle besides being used as ordinary foodstuff. Dried potatoes are shipped to Japan as material for producing alcohol and starch. The export value of dried potatoes for 1935 totalled 44,332,580 kin (one kin being 1.3 pounds), worth ¥1,290,-529. The crop of sweet potatoes for 1902 amounted to 501,160,292 kin and the amount has been increasing yearly since. The 1934 crop totalled 2,706,834,982 kin. The plantation area of 63,147 ko for 1902 increased to 142,448 for 1934.

Tea Tea is one of the principal exports of Taiwan. The export totalled once as large as ¥11,500,000, though somewhat declined in recent years. The tea production amounted to 20,808,765 kin (in plantation area of 28,308 ko) for 1902 and that for 1935 amounted to 17,-000,000 kin (in the area of 45,765 ko). Tea plantation was introduced there by immigrants from China. In 1868 some amount of tea roughly made in Taiwan was exported to Amoy, where it was refined, but later the Taiwan producers, bringing tea operators from Amoy and Foochow, began to export refined tea, and in 1869 as much as 280,000 pounds of refined tea were exported to New York. This was the first export of Taiwan tea to America. Then tea production developed considerably year after year. Export tea is classified into varieties, viz., Oolong, Pouchong, green and black. Oolong and Pouchong teas are most abundantly produced ; the former, appreciated by Americans, and the latter, preferred by the people of the South Sea Islands, is exported to Java and Siam. Black tea extending its markets, and, although not as good as Ceylon tea, it is better in quality than Japanese black tea.

Other Products Other agricultural products are peanuts, beans, wheat, sesame, longan, (otherwise known as "dragon's eye") and vegetables. The yielding areas and production of these farm products for 1935, as compared with those for 1900, follow :

	Yielding area (In ko)		Production (In koku)	
	1900	1935	1900	1935
Peanuts	11,958	31,466	120,838	580,868
Beant	11,365	29,267	50,281	¥615,735
Barley	1,479	540	11,460	29,267
Wheat	1,857	845	11,282	13,808
Sesame seeds	6,889	3,948	36,279	12,871
Jute	1,155	5,260	1,481,548 (kin)	20,881,402 (kin)
Hemp	1,654	1,490	1,022,063 „	2,104,149 „
Tobacco	240	951	363,900 (kg)	2,035,175 (kg)
Oranges	.317 (1905)	4,492	2,025,965 (kin) (1909)	53,783,430 (kin)
Pineapples	—	7,026	—	87,119,146
Longan	—	534,458 (trees)	—	4,223,399 (kin)
Vegetables	—	—	—	¥13,498,142

The export of raw pineapples for 1935 totalled ¥182,710 and that of canned pineapples ¥8,078,174.

Bananas are Taiwan's representative fruits. They are planted everywhere in the island, but are produced most heavily in Taichu province, where 52 per cent of the total production is got. They occupy the third position in the export list of the island, the first being rice and the second sugar. Bananas exported during 1935 totalled 3,090,446 baskets, worth ¥14,216,211. In 1909 the plantation acreage was 560 ko with a crop of 10,-536,062 kin, which increased in 1934 to 19,062 ko with a crop of 302,418,306 kin.

Live-stock The live-stock raising industry in Taiwan is flourishing. The number of cattle at the end of 1935 was 394,865, of which buffaloes numbered 306,874. Buffaloes play the most important rôle in agriculture. Hog-raising industry is widely maintained and hogs are kept by almost all native farmers. Their number at the end of 1934 was 1,836,169, having increased three-and-half times since the cession of the island to Japan. Poultry consists of chikens and geese, their total number at the end of 1935 being 8,627,530. It was in 1912 that sericulture was started in the island. Before that year no sericulture existed existed there. It took nearly 10 years before native farmers appreciated it as a side-line. This industry is becoming important among farmers. In the first year the cocoon crop amounted to only 84 koku and it increased to 2,201 koku in 1934. One of the unique features of sericulture in

Taiwan is that silkworms can be raised at any time of the year, since even during the winter-time mulberry leaves are grown. Moreover, no insect ravage is experienced in the island. The cost of production is scarcely half of that in Japan.

Agricultural Equipment The Taiwan Government-General has taken every possible measure to encourage the rice cultivation and improve the quality of rice. "Hōrai rice" is a Japanese variety, and after many years' experiment the island succeeded in raising rice of good quality. The inspection of rice has been made under control of the Governor-General since July, 1926. Silkworms are raised and distributed by the Sericultural Experimental Station of the Colonial Development Bureau in the Government-General. The Government-General also is adopting all possible steps for improvement of tea cultivation and for this purpose is training tea-raising experts at its Tea Institute. The Pineapple Experimental Station is maintained under control of the Government-General for promotion of this industry. Agricultural warehouses, numbering 36, are doing business upon Government subsidy. The immigration of the Japanese into Taiwan so far has failed to realize satisfactory results. Farm settlers from Japan proper numbered 3,995 at the end of 1935. They maintain an area of paddy fields covering 1,183 ko and farms covering 1,641 ko. Fundamental farm investigation is being constantly carried on by the authorities. The investigation involves that of land management, tenancy, farm economy, farm production, demand and supply of products and fertilizers, land utilization, farm labour, market prices of farm products, etc. Irrigation work also is pursued on an approved plan. The Landlord and Tenant-Farmers Harmonization Society was established in 1927 with government aid for the improvement of relations between landlords and tenants.

Sugar Industry

Taiwan is the centre of the sugar industry of Japan. The industry has existed since the coming of the Han race to the island and, when the Dutch occupied the island in 1624, sugar had already become one of the staple products of the island. It has maintained the topmost position of Taiwan's industries. At the time of Japan's occupation of Taiwan the annual output was only about 80,000,000 kin, one kin being 1.323 pounds. Japan proper consumed more than 300,000,000 kin of sugar, most of which had to be imported from abroad.

Dr. Nitobé's Plan Alive to this situation, the Taiwan Government-General concentrated its energy on the increased production of sugar by means of business improvement and expansion, and this has resulted in the present industrial prosperity. Not only has this prevented the import of foreign sugar, but it has contributed a great deal to the exploitation of natural resources and the financial and industrial development of the island. The late Dr. Inazo Nitobé was engaged by the Government-General to work out a sugar-industry development plan. He proposed several measures for industrial development, namely, the improvement of kinds of sugar cane and their cultivation, improvement of pressing and manufacturing methods, the application of artificial irrigation, increased land cultivation and expansion of sugar plantations, the establishment of sugar experimental stations, and the organization of sugar production guilds, as well as other measures. These formed the basic policy of the Taiwan sugar industry. The sugar encouragement regulations were issued in June, 1902. According to these regulations, the Government-General would give a subsidy to sugar-cane planters or sugar manufacturers for cane plantation, fertilizers, cultivation, irrigation, and manufacturing machines, or, if necessary, implements will be lent or given. The subsidies given in this connection up to the end of the fiscal year of 1931–32 totalled ¥12,908,698. The Government-General is adopting a policy of reducing the subsidy with the progress of the sugar industry. With the establishment of sugar mills the competition for the acquisition of canes became severe.

Upon Consolidated Basis In order to prevent evils arising out of this competition, the authorities issued regulations restricting the spheres of cane plantations in 1905. This caused sugar-makers to work on a consolidated basis yearly. As it was impossible for sugar manufacturers to get material from districts other than those designated for them by regulations, the makers took great care of the planters working on their fields. Planters also were placed on a definite basis of economy by the regulations, because the canes raised by them could be sold to the mills to which they belonged. When the sugar policy was established, the Extraordinary Taiwan Sugar Affairs Bureau was organized, but it was later replaced by the Sugar

Refinery Section of the Colonial Development Bureau. The Government-General first established the Young Cane Seed Experimental Station in Taichu province in 1913. Seeds raised there were distributed to intermediate experimental yards, where they are further grown. Manufacturing companies are bound by duty to distribute these seeds free to farmers within their plantations. Thus the improvement of canes was realized. Young plants distributed till the end of March, 1934, totalled 574,243,540.

The Sugar Experimental Station. The Taiwan Government-General Sugar Experimental Station was reorganized and was founded in Taiwan city in March, 1932, as the central organization for the promotion of sugar plantation. At first, the Hawaiian "rose bamboo" canes were adopted for the Taiwan sugar cultivation and canes of this kind occupied 96 per cent of all grown in 1913. Due to lack of adequate measures to keep the quality unchanged, and also to the fact that these canes had little power of resistance against storms they finally deteriorated. Then they were replaced by Java canes. At the end of March, 1932, the land under irrigation totalled 112,416 ko. The following are figures showing the area of sugar plantations and crop per ko since 1902 :

Fiscal year	Plantation area (In ko)	Cane crop (In kin)	Crop per ko (In kin)
1902–03	16,526	683,157,902	41,338
1905–06	35,158	1,690,206,794	48,078
1908–09	39,035	2,219,471,541	56,858
1910–11	75,329	3,159,598,569	41,944
1914–15	85,150	3,933,805,780	46,199
1917–18	150,450	6,817,535,709	45,314
1919–20	108,376	4,382,506,262	40,438
1920–21	142,032	6,752,838,826	47,544
1921–22	123,233	7,793,688,518	63,243
1923–24	130,480	8,825,841,621	67,641
1925–26	123,426	8,615,430,295	69,802
1926–27	101,531	7,411,962,535	73,002
1927–28	108,318	9,697,644,651	89,529
1928–29	120,046	12,291,944,205	102,394
1929–30	109,397	11,618,358,936	106,204
1930–31	99,094	10,944,669,505	110,447
1931–32	109,496	13,415,197,477	122,518
1932–33	83,690	8,782,001,849	104,835
1933–34	91,163	8,883,801,544	97,449

Production of Sugar

The sugar industry at the time of Japan's occupation of Taiwan was very primitive. Out of about 1,100 sugar mills, not a single mill had adopted the modern mechanical method of manufacturing, and all of them used animal power. Owing to insufficient pressing power, a large percentage of sugar-substance was wasted during the manufacturing process and, moreover, the product was inferior. By 1934 there were only 92 mills of this kind, as the majority of them were gradually eliminated. In these primitive mills two stone wheel cars or three metal wheel cars are employed for grinding by animal power. Improved mills use pressing machines and motors. Brown sugar is also manufactured. Such mills numbered only 6, with a total productive capacity of only 910 tons for 1934. The modernly-equipped mills have pressing capacity ranging from 300 to 3,000 tons a day and are able to produce in great quantity. The Taiwan Sugar Manufacturing Company founded in 1901 was the first of its kind. During the financial boom following the Russo-Japanese War many sugar-manufacturing concerns were established, and Japan finally leaped into a prominent position among the world's sugar-producing countries. In 1934 there were 50 mills with the daily productive capacities of 28,150 British tons and 13,400 American tons. Most of them produce crude sugar known as centrifugals. Some of them turn out white sugar by a change of milling operation. Sugar-cane pressing capacity and production of white sugar follow :

Companies	Cane pressing capacity (In tons)	Production of white sugar 1929 (In kin)	1933 (In kin)	1934 (In kin)
Taiwan Sugar's Taihoku mill	Brit. 500	7,143,743	4,273,350	3,636,984
Taiwan Sugar's Sharokan mill	Amer. 1,200	30,310,350	28,410,043	22,807,603
Taiwan Sugar's Kibi mill	Brit. 1,200	18,973,300	23,210,074	22,063,274
Meiji Sugar's Shoryu mill	,, 750	—	—	—
Meiji Sugar's Nansei mill	,, 1,000	6,124,800	18,015,650	15,467,001
Meiji Sugar's Ujurin mill	,, 750	13,875,200	11,984,408	11,358,024
Dai Nippon Sugar's Toroku mill	,, 500	10,000,000	16,258,400	16,000,000
Ensuiko Sugar's Shinei mill	,, 1,000	38,383,450	26,193,100	29,090,444
Ensuiko Sugar's Kishinai No. 1 mill	,, 550	25,473,700	27,812,400	37,679,436
Kishinai No. 2 mill	,, 700			
Total	,, 6,950 Amer. 1,200	150,284,543	156,157,425	158,102,766

Summary Summarizing the status of the sugar industry, the caneplantation area at the beginning of 1902 was 26,-167 ko, and there was only one mechanically-operated mill with a daily capacity of 200 tons and capitalization of only ¥1,000,000. In 1927 such mills numbered 45 with a daily productive capacity of 39,414 American tons and total capitalization of ¥290,520,000, although this dropped to ¥250,966,600 in 1934, owing to mergers or readjustment of business. But the capacity increased to 43,528 American tons for 1935. The total production in 1902 was only 90,000,000 kin, but in 1927 it rose as high as 1,315,540,-000 kin and further to 1,648,440,000 kin in 1932. It decreased to 1,078,310,000 in 1934 due to curtailment of production as agreed upon among sugar companies.

Companies	Head offices	Capital		No. of mills
		Sub-scribed	Paid-up	
		(In ¥1,000)		
Taiwan Sugar	Heito, Takao province	63,000	43,080	14
Shinko Sugar	Tairyo, Takao province	1,200	1,200	1
Meiji Sugar	Mato, Tainan province	48,000	39,200	7
Dai Nippon	Sunamachi, Tokyo city	51,416	45,779	7
Ensuiko Sugar	Shinei, Tainan province	29,250	17,437	6
Niitaka Sugar	Wami, Taichu province	28,000	10,750	3
Teikoku Sugar	Taichu city	18,000	16,200	5
Showa Sugar	Goketsu, Taihoku province	7,000	7,000	5
Taito Sugar	Taito	1,750	1,750	2
Sango Sugar	Nirinsho, Taichu province	8,350	3,350	1
Total		250,966	189,196	50

Production of sugar for the 1933-34 fiscal year follows :

Companies	Materials used	Sugar production	Production of molasses
	(In kin)		
Taiwan Sugar	1,902,242,800	286,499,873	36,239,049
Shinko Sugar	88,929,120	12,468,702	2,578,276
Meiji Sugar	1,216,881,480	170,642,359	24,822,798
Dai Nippon Sugar	1,698,987,580	236,367,346	33,104,476
Ensuiko Sugar	1,202,857,600	163,570,965	22,766,558
Niitaka Sugar	363,556,680	50,547,100	7,658,746
Teikoku Sugar	584,462,960	81,494,653	13,306,232
Showa Sugar	217,401,060	30,276,718	4,505,477
Taito Sugar	114,066,690	16,409,280	2,598,111
Sango Sugar	75,308,930	9,061,556	2,044,218
Total	7,463,694,900	1,057,338,552	149,123,941
Improved mills	53,529,571	7,869,235	—
Primitive mills	132,920,527	13,178,332	—
Grand total	7,650,144,998	1,078,386,119	149,123,941

Sugar production in Taiwan since 1905 has been as follows :

Year (Nov.-Oct.)	Mechanically-operated mills	Improved mills	Primitive mills	Total
		(In kin)		
1905	7,558,418	641,533	74,432,707	82,632,658
1913	105,047,715	7,266,608	6,834,921	119,149,244
1915	313,064,988	18,609,895	15,771,514	347,446,398
1917	681,942,099	44,267,332	37,280,842	763,490,273
1919	435,905,228	17,226,885	33,224,850	486,356,963
1921	401,948,211	8,695,462	10,579,932	421,223,605
1923	581,460,227	3,766,752	7,093,274	592,320,253
1925	778,774,392	8,040,111	12,418,544	799,233,047
1927	671,018,437	5,571,867	8,643,715	685,234,019
1928	952,868,631	6,475,108	7,517,395	966,861,134
1929	1,296,552,378	9,627,008	9,368,152	1,315,547,538
1930	1,330,505,897	11,750,135	8,549,854	1,350,805,886
1931	1,311,805,427	9,584,858	7,458,389	1,328,798,674
1932	1,628,731,287	11,240,564	8,441,111	1,648,415,962
1933	1,028,066,503	16,784,410	11,356,418	1,056,207,331
1934	1,057,338,553	7,869,235	13,197,643	1,078,405,431
1935	—	—	—	1,609,750,000
1936	—	—	—	1,502,700,000

Forestry and Afforestation

The surface of Taiwan is covered by mountains to the extent of almost two-thirds of its entire area, and the island is rich in thick forests of immense depth. Forest protection and afforestation are done on an approved system by the Government-General. The great mountain ranges running north to south with numerous peaks provide vegetation peculiar to temperate as well as to tropical and sub-tropical regions. The most renowned of the natural forests of Taiwan are those on the mountains in the central ranges, from Taibysan in the south to the peninsula of Koshun; those on famous Mt. Arisan; those on Mt. Rokujodaisan in the north; and those on Mt. Seiran. Besides these, there are also extensive forests in the valleys of the River Dakusui and in some districts of Karenko. The total forest area in Taiwan in 1934 was 2,444,387 ha., of which 2,183,025 ha. government owned forests. Building-timber, sleepers and other forest products turned out in the same year amounted to ¥12,666,794. When the Portuguese first discovered the island, they were impressed with the immense expanse of forests and cried "Formosa!" signifying "beautiful." Reckless cutting of trees was done by Chinese immigrants and this, combined with the lack of adequate forest administration of the Manchu Dynasty, resulted in the devastation of forest districts. The Forest Bureau was established in 1915 and since then forest protection has been carried on in an approved manner by the Government-General.

Timber Industry The timber industry of the Arisan group is controlled by the Government-General. This famous mountain group is located east of Kagi in Tainan province and is on the Tropic of Cancer. It stands 9,240 feet high. It is covered with red cypress, Mongolian oak and hemlock. The former two kinds of wood are highly valued. There are many trees aged more than 3,000 years. Even the Imperial forest at Kiso in Nagano prefecture has few oaks of such great age. Timber used for the building of important shrines such as the Kashiwabara Shrine, dedicated to the memory of Jimmu Tenno, the first Emperor of Japan, the Imperial Mausolea at Momoyama for the Emperor Meiji and Empress Shoken, and the Meiji Shrine was grown on these mountains. The two great pillars constituting the torii of the Meiji Shrine are estimated to be 1,900 and 1,090 years old respectively. Both came from these mountains. The number of these valuable trees was originally estimated at 1,468,416 with 6,073,970 cu.m. But as the result of cutting down since the actual volume of trees at the end of 1934 was found at 1,481,000 cu.m. The Government- General spent ¥4,898,212 as initial outlay for the five years ending in 1912. This included ¥2,643,015 for railway construction, ¥1,200,000 as subsidy for Fujita Gumi, Osaka, which temporarily undertook the enterprise for the Government-General, ¥1,052,869 as general expenses, and ¥2,327 for other purposes. Lumbering work started in 1912. Sales of lumber amounted to ¥1,586,458 for 1929; ¥1,366,296 for 1930; ¥1,210,274 for 1931; ¥1,061,852 for 1932; ¥1,139,310 for 1933; and ¥1,138,432 for 1934.

The lumber industry on Mt. Taihei near Rato town in Taihoku province is considered one of the most promising of all in the island. Until 1913 the mountain was not exploited, because it was a stronghold of the most savage aboriginal tribe. The quantity of timber on the mountain is estimated at 14,159,000 cubic metres, nearly four times that of Mt. Arisan. Work started in 1915 and has so far realized satisfactory results. Sales of lumber totalled ¥1,135,780 for 1930; ¥1,038,067 for 1931; ¥905,705 for 1932; ¥1,024,507 for 1933; and ¥1,079,096 for 1934.

How Disposed Taiwan wood is not only used for shrine and temple construction, but for building of warships and merchant-ships. Demand from naval arsenals and dockyards is yearly increasing. Taiwan wood is exported to Japan proper, Korea, China, British India, South Africa, Australia and other places. Sales to the market in the island, Japan proper and foreign countries from 1916, when the sales began, to 1933, follow:

	Amount (In cubic m.)	Value (In ¥)
1916		
Sales in islands	42,296	835,098
Sales to Japan	17,728	385,900
Sales abroad	911	24,556
Total	60,935	1,245,554
1929		
Sales in island	67,934	2,435,373
Sales to Japan	22,582	1,125,117
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	90,516	3,560,490
1931		
Sales in island	75,540	1,928,817
Sales to Japan	21,101	1,002,895
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	96,641	2,931,712

	Amount (In cubic metres)	Value (In yen)
1932		
Sales in island	78,130	1,833,316
Sales to Japan	18,269	699,575
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	96,399	2,532,891
1933		
Sales in island	86,408	2,002,383
Sales to Japan	21,560	769,037
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	107,968	2,771,420
1934		
Sales in island	90,852	2,126,751
Sales to Japan	19,381	710,996
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	111,233	2,837,747

Aquatic Products

The seas about Taiwan are rich in various kinds of fish and shell-fish, and catches are especially abundant in spring and autumn. Fishing is to a great extent still conducted in a primitive manner. There are, however, now 27 fishing companies of which 4 have their head offices in Japan proper and the rest in the island with capitalization of ¥34,500,000 for the former and ¥5,843,583 for the latter. There were 91 fish markets in the island at the end of 1934, and the total fish sales there during the year amounted to ¥11,620,000 and showed an increase of ¥1,351,000. The Takao Fish Market led the list. The Taiwanese are a fish-eating people, but the annual catch is so great that a large quantity is exported to Japan proper and other countries. Taiwan's marine product trade for 1934 amounted to ¥16,438,490, exclusive of salt, showing an increase of ¥4,241,922 over the previous year. Trade figures include exports abroad totalling ¥2,973,875, imports from abroad totalling ¥548,406, exports to Japan proper totalling ¥3,042,223 and imports from these districts totalling ¥9,873,986. The making of dried bonito is the largest marine products industry The annual output of dried and canned marine products is worth about ¥2,300,000, half of which goes to the dried bonito production. The marine production of Taiwan follows :

	Catches	Manufacturing	Cultivated fish production	Total
		(In yen)		
1921	5,943,217	1,665,125	2,153,856	9,762,198
1923	9,030,651	3,303,756	1,943,565	14,277,972
1927	10,822,119	2,505,311	3,920,591	17,248,021
1928	12,670,180	2,706,623	3,401,779	18,778,582
1929	14,446,265	2,775,420	3,734,684	20,956,369
1930	11,771,144	1,793,273	3,142,981	16,707,398
1931	8,482,776	1,524,869	3,047,254	13,054,899
1932	9,197,468	1,545,164	3,130,800	13,873,432
1933	10,806,670	1,908,982	3,223,832	15,939,484
1934	11,452,341	2,290,923	2,890,340	16,633,604
1935	13,639,986	2,290,741	3,483,582	19,414,309

Mineral Products

The principal mineral products of Taiwan are gold, silver, placer-gold, quicksilver, copper, iron, lead, zinc, coal, petroleum, sulphur and phosphorus. The mine-lots at the end of March, 1933, numbered 611 with a total area of 182,645,280 tsubo, one tsubo being six feet square. Mines in operation numbered 199 covering an area of 83,460,349 tsubo. Of these 199 mines, 1 was gold mine, 2 gold and silver mines, 1 gold-copper mine, 14 placer-gold mines, 157 coal mines, 10 sulphur mines and 14 oil fields. The mineral production for 1935 totalled 22,838,751 showing an increase of ¥3,891,084 over 1934. The mineral production during the past five years, 1931-1935, inclusive follows :

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
		(In yen)			
Gold	636,486	722,733	1,681,592	1,581,328	3,494,040
Gold-copper ores	3,457,187	3,027,792	3,709,157	3,773,194	3,995,854
Placer-gold	9,421	11,611	57,017	94,730	62,477
Silver	10,790	10,003	16,632	8,472	21,542
Copper	154,799	174,419	294,388	274,484	376,072
Gold ores	81,401	70,750	—	66,633	2,330,178
Quicksilver	—	2,488	—	—	—

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Coal	9,613,416	7,164,598	6,571,195	7,681,689	9,868,193
Sulphur	33,217	51,290	37,148	62,075	65,553
Phosphorous ores	2,448	647	—	—	365
Petroleum	381,304	263,631	245,944	424,677	384,860
Gasolene	760,729	1,797,275	994,003	574,857	490,383
Carbon black	—	43,552	205,527	341,079	516,125
Others and total	15.141,198	13,337,790	13,950,888	14,196,250	22,838,751

The Government-General conducted a mineral and geological investigation for eight years over the island following the introduction of civil administration in 1896. As a result, oil distribution was found almost all over the island. Subsidies were granted to those who had proper equipment for boring for oil to a depth of more than 2,000 feet. The subsidy was given from 1901 to 1924. It was then suspended, owing to financial reasons, but was resumed in 1930. Metal ores are found exclusively in the extreme north and the eastern district, coal in the northern and central parts and oil all over the island, especially in the central and southern districts. The mineral production in 1897 was only ¥112,000, but in 1907 it increased to ¥2,255,000, and in 1936 to as much as ¥15,196,250. Of this more than 50 per cent was coal, gold-copper ores 25 per cent; gasolene 4 per cent; gold 10 per cent; other minerals in smaller amounts in the following order: petroleum, carbon black, copper, placer-gold, gold ore, and sulphur.

Gold and Silver. Placer-gold was first discovered by Japanese invaders in Taiwan over 400 years ago, when Japanese pirates infested the neighbouring coasts of China. It was then got at Takkiri Gorge in Karenko district. In later years placer-gold was found in several localities, but at present the mining is conducted along the Keelung and other rivers. When the mining was most prosperous in 1903, the annual output reached 161 kan, one kan being 8.267 lb., valued at ¥610,000, but since then the industry has been sinking. The 1931 output was only 3.165 kan. A gold vein was first discovered at Mt. Kubu in 1893. In the following year gold deposits were found at Kinkwaseki and in 1891 another vein was discovered at Butanko. The gold mining interests at Butanko and Kinkwaseki was merged in 1913. The mining operation is done at Zuiho and Kinkwaseki. The Kinkwaseki mine is located about 10 miles east of Keelung. It is managed and operated by the Tanaka Mining Company, Ltd. The mining area at the end of 1931 was 4,053,000 tsubo. It has its own refinery.

Production at the mine for four years ending 1935 follows:

		1932	1933	1934	1935
Gold	Output in g.	208,844	32,301	—	—
	Value in yen	433,341	80,049	—	—
Silver	Output in g.	426,639	52,466	—	—
	Value in yen	11,858	1,886	—	—
Gold-silver ores	Output in m.t.	103,809	115,693	—	65,085
	Value in yen	3,709,157	3,773,194		2,330.178
Gold-Silver -Copper ores	Out put in m.t.	—	—	130,297	104,384
	Value in yen	—	—	5,008,812	3,995,854
Gold ores	Output in m.t.	1,157	805	624	232
	Value in yen	78,982	66,633	56,286	20,127
Precipitated copper	Output in kg.	1,620,124	1,365,780	2,299,168	2,411,204
	Value in yen	294,388	274,484	327,970	376,072
Precipitated gold and silver	Output in kg.	—	7,802	12,710	11.121
	Value in yen	—	250,716	445,794	623,118
Total Value in yen		4,527,626	4,446,962	5,833,862	7,345,349

Fujita Gumi, Osaka, first operated the Zuiho Mine in 1898, but the enterprise was transferred to the Taiyo Mining Company in 1920. Business has failed to realize satisfactory results. Its gold and silver output for three years follows:

		1932	1933	1934	1935
Gold:	Output in g.	569,749	566,907	1,002,928	1,131,862
	Value in yen	1,238,051	1,501,279	3,169,393	3,494,040
Silver:	Output in g.	180,968	178,666	296,941	329,212
	Value in yen	4,774	6,586	15,085	21,542
Total value in yen		1,242,825	1,507,865	3,184,478	3,515,582

Other Minerals The output of sulphur in Taiwan for 1932 amounted to ¥37,148 and that of quicksilver for the first six months of 1931 amounted to ¥2,488, but since then the mining operation has been at a standstill. The coal output for 1932 amounted to 1,354,995 tons, worth ¥6,571,195, showing a drop of ¥593,403 from 1931.

Oil Oil in Taiwan was discovered by a Chinese about 80 years ago at Shukotan, near the Koryu valley, over an area covering 599,670 tsubo. Since 1905, 71 oil wells have been sunk. Well No. 18 is the best of all. From 1913 to 1925 the oil output from this well totalled 53,205 koku, by the Nippon Sekiyu Kaisha (Japan Oil Company, Ltd.). Owing, however, to the concentration of energy on the exploitation of the Kinsui Oil Field by the company, the output has gone off from the daily output of 300 koku. Lamp oil, gasolene, light oil and paraffin are manufactured from crude oil obtained here. The oil refinery is in Byoritsu.

The production from the crude oil is gasolene, 5 per cent, lamp oil 85 per cent, heavy oil 8 per cent and wax.

The kinsui oil field is the most important one in Taiwan. It is operated by the Japan Oil Company. A government subsidy was paid to exploit wells No. 1 to No. 5. It took eleven years for well No. 5 to realize satisfactory results. Well No. 10 produced an enormous output of 30,000,000 cubic feet a day in March, 1930, and a gasolene plant was installed there in November of the same year. When the capacity of the gasolene plants is fully developed, the daily output of gasolene will be 1,000 koku.

Other Industries

Prior to the World War, industries other than sugar and tea developed very little in the island. Since the War, however, chemical, spinning, machinery and other miscellaneous industries have developed to a considerable extent. The more important of them for 1934 follow :

	¥
Metal Industry:	
Tin plates	1,790,000
Gold and silver works	1,531,000
Machinery Industry:	
Sugar refining machinery	3,887,000
Agricultural implements	1,178,000
Ceramics Industry:	
Tiles	2,162,000
Cement	3,810,000
Chemical Industry:	
Alcohol	5,922,000
Mineral oil and wax	1,128,000
Vegetable oils	1,297,000
Refined camphor	1,242,000
Mixed fertilizers	3,652,000
Food Stuff Industry:	
Soy sauce	1,859,000
Flour	2,314,000
Sugar	119,725,000
Confectioneries	4,923,000
Canned pineapples	6,250,000
Macaroni	3,042,000
Ice	1,259,000
Polished rice	965,000
Miscellaneous Industries:	
Woodworking	4,175,000
Hats	5,066,000
Others and total	214,000,000

Of the total 1933 industrial production amounting to ¥214,000,000, the foodstuff industry totalled ¥153,000,000, or 72 per cent, the chemical industry ¥20,000,000, or 9 per cent, other industries ¥13,000,000, or 6 per cent, the ceramic industry ¥6,500,000, the mechanical and tool industry ¥5,800,000, the metal industry ¥3,900,000, and the spinning industry ¥2,500,000.

Overseas Trade The overseas trade of Taiwan, although it has experienced temporary set-backs from time to time, has made remarkable progress in recent years. The bulk of overseas trade is, however, with Japan proper, the rest being chiefly done with China, the United States, the Straits Settlements, the Dutch East Indies, the United Kingdom, Germany, British India, the Kwantung Leased Territory and Hongkong. The trade is carried on principally through the four large ports of Keelung, Tamsui, Anping and Takao. As Keelung is the most important port of trade in the north, so is Takao in the south. The trade volume for 1898 amounted to ¥30,000,000 which increased to ¥50,000,000 in 1906, and, owing to the phenomenal growth of the sugar industry and import of sugar milling machinery, the amount went up to more than ¥100,000,000 in 1910. In 1917 the amount recorded a further gain to ¥234,000,000, due to active trade in sugar, alcohol and rice and heavy transit trade with China. An all-time record of ¥613,000,000 was made in the trade volume for 1935. The amount gained ¥93,000,000 over the year before. In 1929, the trade figure amounted to ¥476,000,000, but declined to ¥366,000,000, affected by a great economic defression. Taiwan's overseas trade since 1897 has been as follows :

OVERSEAS TRADE VOLUME

	Exports abroad and exports to Japan proper and its colonies	Imports from abroad and imports from Japan proper and its colonies	Total	Index
		(In yen)		
1897	14,856,848	16,383,020	31,239,868	100
1910	59,962,255	48,923,289	108,885,544	349
1913	62,791,679	62,632,416	125,424,095	401
1916	112,347,948	65,021,600	177,369,548	568
1921	152,438,500	133,954,458	286,392,958	916
1925	263,214,651	186,395,340	449,609,991	1,439
1926	251,425,070	183,412,450	434,837,520	1,392
1927	246,676,284	186,948,387	433,624,671	1,388
1928	248,417,285	190,653,933	439,071,218	1,406
1929	271,893,266	204,910,684	476,803,950	1,526
1930	241,441,304	168,258,310	409,699,614	1,311
1931	220,872,866	145,622,123	366,494,989	1,173
1932	240,727,988	164,497,770	405,225,758	1,298
1933	248,413,329	185,388,938	433,802,267	1,389
1934	305,928,680	215,021,701	520,950,381	1,668
1935	350,745,000	263,120,000	613,864,000	1,965

TAIWAN'S FOREIGN TRADE

	Exports	Imports	Total	Excess of imports
		(In yen)		
1901	8,234,097	12,809,975	21,044,072	4,575,878
1911	14,960,228	19,307,126	34,267,354	4,346,898 (export excess)
1916	31,652,474	15,430,037	47,082,511	16,222,437
1921	23,541,621	40,433,290	63,974,911	16,891,669
1925	47,965,844	56,489,060	104.454,904	8,523,216
1926	49,315,487	62,007,666	111,323,153	12,692,179
1927	44,597,707	65,840,396	110,438,103	21,242,689
1928	33,895,688	58,335,729	92,231,417	24,440,041
1929	33,187,977	64,541,012	97,728,989	31,353,035
1930	22,807,963	45,131,193	67,939,159	22,323,230
1931	19,448,759	30,858,816	50,307,575	11,410,057
1932	18,045,250	31,040,823	49,086,073	12,995,573
1933	17,666,418	35,142,961	53,142,961	17,810,125
1934	26,518,409	38,030,977	64,549,386	11,512,568
1935	36,544,000	44,979,000	81,523,000	8,435,000

LIST OF PRINCIPAL EXPORTS

	Oolong tea	Pouchong tea	Camphor	Coal	Sugar	Cotton textiles	Dried and salted fish
			(In ¥1,000)				
1901	2,996	505	789	134	1,031	382	—
1909	4,301	1,506	4,377	92	2	342	—
1912	4,057	2,563	4,409	117	1,719	379	—
1916	3,936	2,323	4,669	400	11,327	419	—
1921	3,534	4,386	280	6,582	2,068	435	—
1925	5,220	6,172	3,609	7,448	5,887	497	—
1926	5,407	6,771	1,949	8,437	3,177	499	—
1927	5,102	6,454	1,895	6,174	2,550	496	3,746
1928	4,315	5,493	3,215	3,964	1,252	314	—
1929	3,423	5,765	1,653	3,308	453	230	2,993
1930	2,608	5,785	1,085	2,872	67	111	1,436
1931	2,350	4,489	1,586	2,295	2,356	80	428
1932	2,802	1,836	1,547	1,315	3,174	1,054	544
1933	2,894	1,816	2,962	1,530	563	363	602
1934	3,117	2,641	2,381	1,387	122	1,055	1,495

Of the above, tea deserves special mention. In 1934 production of unrefined tea amounted to 18,392,028 kin, worth ¥7,546,869, and that of refined tea 16,996,587 kin, worth ¥10,894,283. Refined tea included ¥3,562,301 of Oolong tea, ¥3,074,989 of Pouchong tea, ¥4,250,395 of black tea, and ¥6,600 of green tea. The tea is almost exclusively produced in Taihoku and Shinchiku provinces. Oolong tea is appreciated by Britishers and Americans. The largest amount goes to the United States and the second largest amount to Great Britain. Pouchong tea is shipped to the South sea islands. Tea exports for 1934 show that the exports of black tea greatly increased amounting to ¥2,889,002 against ¥557,963 for 1933. Exports of Pouchong and Oolong tea for 1935 totalled ¥6,855,930, gaining ¥909,405 over 1934. Details follow :

	Exports abroad		Exports to Japan Proper and colonies		Total	
	Quantity (In kin)	Value (In yen)	Quantity (In kin)	Value (In yen)	Quantity (in kin)	Value (In yen)
Oolong	6,624,253	3,814,289	9,558	11,015	6,633,811	3,825,304
Pouchong	4,620,749	2,814,975	538,140	215,651	5,158,889	3,030,626

LIST OF PRINCIPAL IMPORTS

(In ¥ 1,000)

	Opium	Leaf tobacco	Lamp oil	Gunny bags	Lumber	Matches	Bean cake
1901	2,310	242	841	21	430	74	74
1909	2,379	650	785	307	428	346	422
1912	3,093	890	756	100	608	496	1,962
1916	3,724	460	554	448	330	746	3,073
1921	1,504	821	1,947	395	2,119	574	6,352
1925	2,816	810	1,307	2,794	1,711	1,233	16,777
1926	987	754	1,107	2,485	2,332	897	13,744
1927	837	910	1,395	2,411	2,692	596	12,289
1928	451	345	1,130	2,050	2,978	524	12,326
1929	1,081	283	1,484	2,884	2,946	689	12,757
1930	1,122	343	1,014	2,407	1,499	511	10,252
1931	1,128	275	636	1,652	1,103	527	7,354
1932	707	318	669	1,327	556	488	10,342
1933	148	582	534	2,718	283	501	11,593
1934	120	—	375	417	118	—	12,204
1935	449	—	2,379	6,650	1,171	1,982	14,641

TAIWAN'S TRADE WITH JAPAN PROPER AND ITS COLONIES

(In yen)

	Exports	Imports	Total	Balance
1902	7,407,498	9,235,200	16,642,788	1,827,792
1909	36,309,500	24,006,803	60,316,303	12,302,697
1912	47,831,451	43,325,290	91,156,741	4,561,161
1916	80,695,474	49,591,563	130,287,037	31,103,911
1920	181,091,635	112,070,364	293,161,999	69,021,271
1921	128,896,879	93,521,168	222,418,047	35,375,711
1925	215,248,807	129,906,280	345,155,087	85,342,527
1926	202,109,583	121,404,784	323,514,367	80,704,799
1927	202,078,577	121,107,991	323,186,568	80,970,586
1928	214,521,597	132,318,204	346,839,801	82,203,393
1929	238,705,289	140,369,672	379,074,961	98,335,617
1930	218,633,341	123,127,117	341,760,458	95,505,224
1931	201,424,107	114,763,307	316,187,414	86,660,800
1932	222,682,738	133,456,947	356,139,685	89,225,791
1933	230,746,911	149,912,395	380,659,306	80,834,516
1934	279,410,271	176,990,724	456,400,995	102,419,547
1935	314,200,483	218,140,837	532,341,320	96,059,646

LEANDING EXPORTS TO JAPAN PROPER AND ITS COLONIES

(In ¥ 1,000)

	Rice	Sugar	Canned pineapples	Camphor	Camphor oil	Alcolol	Bananas
1902	1,603	3,172	—	869	921	—	—
1909	8,779	33,001	—	—	1,610	111	155
1912	10,260	28,134	—	1,008	1,561	1,502	336
1916	6,960	51,685	—	1,602	2,313	7,686	1,054
1920	19,294	84,709	—	1,517	1,976	5,801	4,156
1925	72,110	105,651	—	2,087	2,468	3,854	9,096
1926	63,092	98,375	—	1,618	2,976	4,081	10,900
1927	67,885	96,430	3,145	1,078	1,887	3,616	8,616
1928	53,229	121,413	2,604	1,572	1,757	3,602	8,614
1929	49,320	142,601	4,407	2,612	3,040	3,505	8,419
1930	38,695	141,865	3,481	1,255	2,422	2,592	8,369
1931	41,097	120,475	4,157	766	1,824	3,054	8,329
1932	63,074	121,718	5,151	963	2,062	2,975	6,982
1933	64,627	118,614	4,791	1 174	1,554	5,455	7,899
1934	101,816	122,321	4,587	2,175	1,902	5,950	8,137

LEADING IMPORTS FROM JAPAN PROPER AND ITS COLONIES

(In ¥1,000)

	Wheat flour	Dried and salt fish	Iron	Cotton and silk tissues	Paper	Lumber	Fertilizers
1902	57	98	235	1,065	223	705	8
1909	—	1,567	—	2,586	492	1,662	1,060
1912	—	3,053	—	5,016	838	2,939	1,524
1916	—	3,667	—	5,775	1,157	1,158	3,990
1920	—	4,920	—	7,736	2,363	3,066	4,355
1925	—	5,905	—	15,708	3,422	2,194	6,691
1926	—	6,056	5,764	19,805	3,065	3,395	4,745
1927	2,983	6,135	8,126	14,942	2,989	4,044	4,138
1928	2,985	5,498	8,695	15,077	3,237	4,822	4,692
1929	3,126	6,547	9,087	16,873	3,567	5,807	5,170
1930	2,374	4,032	7,901	13,394	3,254	4,535	5,832
1931	2,011	3,412	7,343	13,596	3,233	4,216	4,319
1932	2,716	3,253	8,013	13,358	3,470	5,491	7,745
1933	2,710	3,535	10,458	15,105	3,970	6,276	11,225
1934	3,413	3,956	2,517	17,250	4,515	7,271	16,582

Finance

The Bank of Taiwan is invested with authority to issue notes. This bank was founded in September, 1899, replacing the Taiwan Agency of the Bank of Japan. The bank was capitalized at ¥5,000,000 when it was founded. After 1920 its capitalization was increased to ¥60,000,000, but in September, 1925, it was cut to ¥45,000,000 and further to ¥15,000,000 in November, 1927, due to its readjustment following the great financial panic of the spring of 1927. The head office is in Taihoku and it has 31 branches and one agency in Japan and abroad. The Japan Hypothec Bank maintains its real estate business in Taiwan and the outstanding balance of its loan in the island at the end of 1934 amounted to ¥82,870,000. The aggregate capitalization of banks having their head offices in the island at the end of 1934 was ¥28,300,000, of which ¥20,670,000 was paid up. The balance of deposits at the end of 1934 was ¥151,420,000, of which savings deposits totalled ¥10,310,000 and the outstandings deposits totalled ¥10,310,000 and the outstanding balance of loans totalled ¥252,640,000. Exchange deals for the 1934–1935 fiscal year totalled ¥967,900,000 for income and ¥942,020,000 for payment. The average amount of note issue of the Bank of Taiwan for 1935 totalled ¥67,173,000, the highest being ¥73,466,000 and the lowest ¥61,970,000.

Government-General Finance The finance of the Taiwan Government-General has become independent from subsidization by the general accounts of

the Central Government since the 1905–06 fiscal year, owing to favourable income following the Russo-Japanese War. In 1897 the revenue was about 11 million yen. In 1907, 10 years after the establishment of special accounts in Taiwan, the revenue increased to three times that amount; in 1917, after 10 more years, to six times; in 1927, to 12 times; in 1929 to 13 times the first figure. Revenue and expenditure follow :

	Revenue (In yen)	Expenditure
1897	11,283,265	10,487,610
1917	65,425,496	46,166,558
1927	138,626,830	101,533,285
1929	150,420,607	122,295,326
1930	129,757,760	109,970,881
1931	115,972,147	99,060,013
1932	120,303,279	97,240,295
1933	130,812,152	102,220,615
1934	141,617,595	112,176,683
1935	156,549,000	123,943,000
1936 (estimate)	133,536,000	133,536,000

Bonds Expenses required for enterprises such as the railway construction, land investigation, Keelung harbour construction, building of government offices, river work, Takao harbour construction, and purchase of private railways were raised by bonds. The outstanding balance of bonds in 1900 was ¥3,200,000, which increased to ¥34,465,399 in 1910, ¥94,213,038 in 1925, ¥106,946,733 in 1927 and ¥128,057,690 at the end of 1935.

Monopolies

The products of Taiwan, opium, salt, camphor, tobacco, and saké are placed under monopoly of the Taiwan Government-General.

Opium The Taiwan Chinese, mostly natives, were addicted to opium smoking when Japan assumed ownership of the island. It was found impossible to eradicate the habit at once, and in order to limit the use of the drug a government monopoly, controlling the manufacture, sale and retail distribution of opium, was established. Smokers are registered and have to obtain a licence to buy the drug. In this way and also through education of the rising generation the vice is being gradually eliminated. The total names registered in September, 1900, reached 169,064, to whom the licences were granted. The number of licenced smokers at the end of 1932 had decreased to 19,532, of whom 16,532 were males and 3,254 females. The Chinese people who smoke opium on licence at the end of 1932 numbered 191, of whom 174 were males. Japan, in conformity with the spirit of the League of Nations' International Opium Treaty, has been endeavouring to stamp out the bad habit of opium smoking and has realized satisfactory results so far.

There are two forms of opium, viz., "treacle-opium" for smoking, and powder; the latter is sold only for medicinal purposes. Raw material obtained from poppies is imported from British India, Persia and Turkey. The Persian products are widely used now. Sales to licensed smokers are made by the Monopoly Bureau to specially designated wholesalers through provincial and district governments. The sales price to these wholesalers is ¥1.61 per 15 grammes, that from wholesalers to retailers is ¥1.63 and that from retailers to consumers is ¥1.77. 15 grammes is the maximum amount that one smoker is permitted to buy at one time: this must last him for three days.

Sales have been decreasing yearly as follows :

	Quantity	Total sales
1902	130,723,125 grammes	¥3,008,386
1906	87,690,750	4,359,497
1910	80,320,875	4,844,534
1913	86,326,500	5,289,495
1918	76,326,750	6,650,764
1922	51,558,000	5,449,345
1930	38,095,125	4,010,655
1931	31,535,625	3,320,071
1932	26,136,075	2,819,388
1933	21,553,200	2,350,363
1934	19,668,600	2,146,692
1935	—	2,567,588

Salt This was monopolized in 1899 by the Government-General. In former days the fields were only 197 ha. producing about 10,800,000 kg. a year, but in 1934 they were increased to 1,878 ha., producing 191,340,000 kg. Sales of salt in 1905 were only ¥557,876, which increased to ¥3,108,000 for 1935.

Camphor Taiwan maintains a monopoly on the cutting, distillation and selling of camphor. The island is rich in camphor trees, particularly in what are known as the "savage districts", and is the greatest camphor-producing place in the world. For many years after it came into Japan's possession, the production of camphor was a free industry, but the necessity of improving the quality compelled the Government-General to assume monopoly in 1899. The camphor production amounts to about 3,000,000 kilogrammes a year,

which represents 70 per cent of the world's production. The manufacturing of camphor and camphor oil used to be entrusted to the Taiwan Seino Kaisha, but in July, 1934, the Government-General purchased it and now places the production and sales of their articles under its direct control. The improved B-quality camphor is sold by the monopoly bureau as material for refined camphor or celluloid. Refined oil is directly sold by the bureau in Taiwan, but in Japan it is sold to industrialists through the Japanese Government Monopoly Bureau. It is exported abroad on consignment mostly to the United States, Great Britain and other countries. The United States is the largest consumer. The sales price of improved B-quality for 1932 was ¥145.-50 per kilogramme f.o.b. Taihoku and ¥148 f.o.b. Kobé. By-products are widely used for making insecticides. As the demand for camphor increases yearly, the Taiwan Monopoly Bureau is carrying out a camphor-tree plantation plan covering an area of 135,246 acres, for the production from natural-grown trees is expected shortly to become too small to meet the future demand. The proceeds from the camphor monopoly for 1935 totalled ¥7,710,000. The United States used to buy about ¥2,400,000 of camphor a year, but the export amount has decreased somewhat in recent years, owing to the invention of synthetic camphor.

Tobacco The tobacco monopoly in Taiwan dates from 1905. At the beginning of the monopoly the quality of tobacco grown in Taiwan was so poor that the leaves had to be imported from China. Efforts were made by the authorities for the improvement of native-grown leaves. Now tobacco cultivated in Taiwan is not inferior to Chinese tobacco. In addition to the Chinese variety, a successful experiment has been made in the cultivation of an American yellow variety for cigarettes, and another for cigars. The area of tobacco plantation in Taiwan was about 776 ha. in 1933 and the crop of leaves about 1,535,689 kg. The proceeds of tobacco monopoly for the fiscal year 1906–07 totalled ¥1,492,284, which increased to ¥11,531,850 for the year 1921–22, ¥16,-275,916 for the year 1929–30, but declined to ¥14,465,962 for the year 1931–32, advancing to ¥16,552,070 for the 1934–35 year, further to ¥18,420,000 for the 1935–36 year.

Saké and other drinks These have been placed under monopoly since 1922. The sales of saké and other alcoholic drinks under the monopoly are not restricted to those made in Taiwan only, but include all drinks imported from Japan proper and other countries. Drinks now brewed in Taiwan are of 30 kinds besides saké. The saké monopoly furnishes a large source of revenue for the Government-General and brought in ¥20,960,000 for 1935.

Railways

At the time of Japan's occupation of Taiwan there was a 62-mile railway between Keelung and Shinchiku. Railway construction was undertaken by the Government-General subsequently and now the total mileage is 881 km. The railway receipts are as follows :

Fiscal year	Passenger fares	Freight receipts	Others	Total	Indices
		(In ¥1,000)			
1900-01	214	127	1	342	100
1906-07	1,062	1,138	9	2,209	643
1916-17	2,575	3,544	44	6,163	1,455
1926-27	7,488	9,711	—	17,199	5,008
1927-28	8,002	10,644	—	18,646	5,428
1928-29	8,277	11,420	—	19,697	5,735
1929-30	8,349	11,915	—	20,264	5,900
1930-31	7,720	11,391	—	19,111	5,564
1931-32	6,897	11,367	—	18,264	5,317
1932-33	7,109	11,742	—	18,851	5,488
1933-34	7,468	11,862	—	19,331	5,628
1934-35	7,966	13,458	—	21,425	6,238
1935-36	9,599	13,931	—	27,495	—

PRIVATE RAILWAY STATISTICS IN TAIWAN

	Mileage (in km.)	Passenger fares (in yen)	Freight receipts	Others & total	Indices for income
1907-08	120	50,120	34,900	85,194	100
1926-27	525	986,557	2,060,641	3,089,685	3,627
1928-29	551	993,761	2,302,948	3,326,098	3,904

	Mileage (in km.)	Passenger fares (in yen)	Freight receipts	Others & total	Indices for income
1929-30	554	929,023	2,345,612	3,308,648	3,884
1930-31	542	775,164	2,168,499	3,001,102	3,534
1931-32	530	544,704	1,752,781	2,332,097	3,737
1932-33	534	460,706	1,913,548	2,406,931	2,825
1933-34	502	453,595	1,499,054	1,998,246	2,346
1934-35	504	451,595	1,643,378	2,121,833	2,491
1935-36	505	453,561	2,262,195	2,840,008	—

Light Railways

	Mileage (in km.)	Passenger fares (In ¥1,000)	Freight receipts	Total	Indices for income
1907-08	267	—	—	—	100
1926-27	1,022	962	1,543	2,505	751
1928-29	1,162	945	1,652	2,597	778
1929-30	1,329	867	1,551	2,418	727
1930-31	1,327	688	1,357	2,045	613
1931-32	1,367	562	1,096	1,658	497
1932-33	1,325	520	1,049	1,569	470
1933-34	1,247	521	1,129	1,650	494
1934-35	1,232	514	1,149	1,663	498

Formosa Development Company

In connection with Japan's economic expansion in the island, the Formosa Development Company was founded by virtue of Law No. 43 of 1936 upon approval at the Imperial Diet on May 26 of the same year. The company is capitalized at ¥30,000,000, a half of which is invested by the Government in the shape of Government-owned property, consisting of fields, farms, forests, pastures, land and other real estate. The other half was invested by private persons. The Government organized an establishment committee of 81. Formal sanction of the company's establishment was given by the Overseas Minister on August 27. Its virtual establishment took place on November 25 of the same year. The company's paid-up capitalization to ¥18,750,000. Its head office is in Taihoku and a branch in Tokyo. Its president and vice-president are appointed by the Governor-General of Formosa on sanction of the Overseas Minister. The company is authorized to issue Formosa Development debentures three times its paid-up capitalization.

Because of its nature as a special business institution, the Government is vested with authority to issue necessary instructions for supervision to the company. The company is not bound by duty to pay any dividend to the Government's investments until it is able to declare an annual 6 per cent dividend rate to shareholders other than the Government. When it can declare a 7 per cent dividend, it will have to pay a 4 per cent dividend to the Government, and, when it can declare more than an 8 per cent dividend, it will have to pay the same dividend to the Government. Mr. Kyohei Kato is its president.

The company has a mission to do the following enterprises: land management, cultivation of agricultural and forest lands, mass emigration of farmers, financing and investments in promising enterprises overseas.

The company adopted a 10-year plan for the industrial development of Formosa. The plan calls for investment of ¥1,000,000,000. First-period enterprises in the 10-year plan include raw cotton cultivation, colonial development and industrial emigration. These enterprises are expected to require for the first year about ¥4,500,000, which will be supplied by the company. The company has authority to issue debentures to raise necessary funds. Later, the company will develop plantations of cinchona and cacao trees and mericinal herbs. The company has decided to found a Formosa Raw Cotton Company with a capitalization of ¥3,000,000, making it its subsidiary. Its factory will be built at Kagi. Eventual object of the cotton company is to raise 100,000,000 kin of cotton a year on a plantation covering 100,000 chobu. This amount is expected to be raised 10 years hence. Total expenditures will be about ¥30,000,000. The first year's cotton crop is estimated at about 6,000,000 kin.

Electricity

The Taiwan Electric Power Company, Ltd., was established in April, 1919, under ordinance of the Taiwan Government-General. The Government-General appraised all of its electric assets at ¥12,000,000 and offered them to the company. The Government-General owns the company's shares to that amount, being the largest shareholder. The company started a gigantic power-generating undertaking, utilizing the water of Lake Jitsugetsutan, in August of the same year, but, owing to the subsequent financial depression, the work was suspended. In 1929 the resumption of work was decided on and the necessary amount, $22,800,000 (¥45,737,211) was raised in America in July, 1931, on Government guarantee. Work was actually resumed in October of the same year on a three-year plan. Taiwan's electric enterprises at the end of 1934, are summarized as follows :

Companies	Capitalization	Lamps fitted	Power supplied kw.	Fans fitted
Taiwan Electric Power	¥34,495,000	646,994	20,822	25,934
Taiwan Electric Light	1,500,000	81,272	2,213	2,592
Taiwan Godo Electric	2,000,000	28,664	779	340
Karenko Electric	1,240,000	10,806	365	202
Koshun Electric	100,000	1,408	—	—
Nansho Electric	8,500	204	—	—
Total	39,343,500	769,348	24,179	29,068

Principal Cities

Taihoku Taihoku is the capital city of Taiwan. It is situated on the Tamsui River, near the northern extremity of the island. Formerly is consisted of three districts, Jonai, Daitotei and Manka, but with the introduction of the municipal system in 1920, all the surrounding villages were included in the greater Taihoku, and at present the city covers an area of about 15 square miles, embracing a population of 283,085, including 81,277 Japanese, 185,594 natives and 16,214 foreigners, mostly Chinese residents. In Jonai are found the important pubilc buildings, such as the official residence of the Governor-General, and many governmental buildings. Most of the Japanese residents live in this district. Daitotei is the commercial centre. It is inhabited by more than 63,000 people and is renowned for its tea trade. Manka is situated close by the Tamsui River, west of Jonai. This district was formerly the most flourishing part of the city. During the Manchu Dynasty its commercial supremacy was transferred to Daitotei. This district is populated by 37,000 inhabitants. There are many places of interest in and around Taihoku, of which the more famous are :

TAIWAN SHRINE This shrine is situated at a point two miles east of Taihoku. The sanctuary is built in the old Japanese style. In the neighbourhood is the noted Maruyama park commanding a very fine view.

THE RAPIDS OF SHINTEN KEI Situated at a point about 8 miles from Taihoku and at the confluence of the two rivers of Shinten-Kei, the rapids are among the chief attractions for visitors to Taiwan. On both sides stand out precipices. Shooting the rapids by boat affords a favourite pastime.

Shinchiku Shinchiku had been the cradle of civilization for the inhabitants in the northern Formosa. It became a city in 1930 and revived as a trade port since 1932, having a population of 54,110 in 1934.

Tamsui This is one of the four great ports of trade with a population of 25,666 in 1934. It is located 13 miles north of Taihoku. About one mile west from Tamsui Station lies the ruins of an old Khomoh castle, built by the Spaniards in 1626.

Keelung This is the starting-point of the railway which runs from north to south throughout the whole length of the island. The city with its 84,650 inhabitants extends as far as Taihoku covering a distance of 18 miles. Keelung is not only a port for liners from Japan proper, but is an important for those sailing to and from south China and the South Seas. Keelung was once occupied by Spaniards and afterwards by the Dutch, and was under the control of the Manchu Dynasty. About 1.5 miles distant from Keelung is located the famous Courbet Beach, where the French Admiral Courbet, in command of the French Asiatic Squadron consisting of 15 warships, landed during

the Franco-Chinese War in 1884. This admiral was one of the victims of infectious disease, which claimed a heavy toll among his men. He died on Boko Island where his tomb still stands.

Taichu Located about 100 miles south of Taihoku in the centre of rice production. It is the seat of the provincial government of the same name, with a population of 68,414. Lake Jitsugetsu-tan is in this province.

Kagi Kagi has a population of 70,-083 and is situated 163 miles south of Taihoku. Kagi is the starting point for climbers of Mt. Arisan.

Tainan Tainan has a population of 109,887, being the second largest port of Taiwan. Kaizan Shrine is dedicated to the spirit of Chen Cheng-kung, a loyal subject in the last days of the Ming Dynasty, who came over to this island, drove out the Dutch setlers, and opened war against the Manchu Dynasty, but failed.

Takao Takao has a population of 31,-582. Terminus of the central railway line, situated at a distance of 229 miles from Taihoku, this port is as important in the south as Keelung is in the north.

CHAPTER XLII

KARAFUTO (SAGHALIEN)

General Survey

Geography Karafuto is a long island situated in the extreme north of the Empire of Japan along the Maritime Province of Siberia, and separated from it by the Mamiya Straits. The eastern coast is washed by the cold waters of the Sea of Okhotsk, which is bordered by the mainland of Siberia on the north, the Kamchatka Peninsula on the east, and the Chishima Islands (the Kuriles) on the south-east. Japanese Karafuto is the southern half of Saghalien Island, the dividing line being the 50th parallel of latitude; the northern half of the island is under the jurisdiction of Soviet Russia.

At the extreme southern end of the island lies Cape Nishi-Notoro. On the east or opposite side of it, across the Aniwa Gulf, is Cape Nakashirutoko, and embraced by these two capes is the port of Ohtomari at the northern extremity of the Gulf, which is an important port connecting with Kakkanai the extreme northern port of Hokkaido, across the Soya Straits. The traffic connection between Ohtomari and Wakkanai is maintained by freight boats run by the Imperial government railways.

Beyond Cape Nakashirutoko lies Taraka Bay, on the farther side of which Cape Kitashirutoko runs out to the north-east. Thus, Karafuto is deeply indented by the two large gulfs, Aniwa and Taraka, the latter lying to the north-east of the former. The island has two mountain ranges running parallel from north to south with the plains hemmed in between. The total area of Karafuto is 36,090.3 sq. km., the length being 455.6 km. and the breadth from 27.5 at the narrowest to 157 km. at the widest.

Climate The months which enjoy an average temperature above the freezing point are the seven months from April to October. The coldest month is January and the warmest August. The temperature rises suddenly as the thawing season approaches and falls abruptly when the snows set in. The western coast is warmer than the eastern owing to the warm ocean current. The island is, as a whole, high in humidity on account of the frequency of sea fogs, except for the southern point of the western coast, but in both spring and autumn it decreases. Rainfall is most abundant in the summer and autumn seasons.

Population The great majority of the population of Karafuto is Japanese. The following table shows the racial distribution at the end of 1935 :

POPULATION BY RACE OR NATIONALITY

Japanese	Korean	Ainu	Other Natives	Chinese	German	Polish	Russian	Total
313,115	7,053	1,508	447	105	7	42	197	322,475

POPULATION IN CHIEF TOWNS

(Dec. 31, 1935)

Toyohara	35,390	Shirutoru	18,298
Ohtomari	27,965	Esutor	25,743
Shikuka	27,375	Ochiai	14,421
Hontocho	11,040	Tomarioru	10,966
Maoka	18,810	Rutaka	9,475

Note: For 1935 census see Chapter II.

Administration The chief administrative office of Karafuto is the Karafuto government and the governor is under direct control of the Minister of Overseas Affairs, but the powers of the former are far wider than those of a governor in the home land, as they extend over mining, forestry, taxation, railways and the postal service. The governmental work of Karafuto is subdivided into four main offices, i. e., Secretariat, Interior Bureau, Forestry Bureau and Police Bureau. The revenue budget of 1935 amounted to ¥24,890,000, of which ¥21,392,488 was from taxes and others, and the rest from various government undertakings and loans to the extent of ¥3,810,000.

Finance

The revenue of the Karafuto government is derived from taxes and other

sources of income as well as an annual replenishment from the ordinary account of the national treasury. The principal taxes are :—the town homestead tax, income tax, business profit tax, liquor-brewing tax, liquor-export tax, consumption tax, mining business tax, and fishery tax. The revenue from all these taxes was, in the 1936–37 budget, estimated at ¥29,435,533. The revenue, other than from taxes, consists of receipts from the sales of stamps, railway traffic and freight charges, medical treatment charges at governmental hospitals, charges receivable at the Central Experiment Station, receipts from the sales of trees felled in the state forests, rents of homesteads and various Government buildings and loans. Below is given a brief fiscal history of the Karafuto government :

REVENUES (Yen)

	Taxes and non-tax elements	Replenishment from national treasury	Sum brought forward	Loans	Total
1907	1,037,046	629,406	—	—	1,666,452
1910	1,229,705	544,714	260,524	—	2,034,943
1911	1,369,045	570,657	137,479	—	2,077,181
1912	1,534,991	591,819	169,949	—	2,296,759
1913	2,062,574	389,291	219,082	—	2,670,947
1914	1,548,748	323,575	392,901	—	2,265,224
1915	1,495,046	323,575	191,191	—	2,009,912
1916	2,058,576	293,575	329,255	—	2,681,406
1917	2,619,315	323,575	829,563	—	3,772,453
1918	2,936,793	—	1,663,970	1,091,000	5,692,761
1919	3,570,658	300,000	2,720,110	1,173,500	7,764,269
1920	5,221,674	770,000	2,022,404	3,381,209	11,395,291
1921	7,057,103	1,433,000	3,109,807	4,173,290	15,775,205
1922	8,386,012	1,100,000	3,707,623	7,607,920	20,801,558
1923	12,436,861	1,786,000	2,758,969	4,475,436	21,452,266
1924	15,772,056	1,000,000	2,168,245	416,218	19,357,520
1925	16,000,305	900,000	78,454	1,700,000	18,678,760
1926	18,339,308	1,577,343	618,814	1,786,562	22,322,027
1927	18,414,702	2,029,635	4,587,927	1,845,052	26,877,316
1928	21,963,835	2,029,635	6,894,976	1,857,924	32,646,370
1929	22,280,159	3,100,000	6,955,100	4,569	32,339,827
1930	21,192,064	1,600,000	3,752,468	—	26,544,532
1931	22,944,655	1,600,000	79,281	1,500,000	26,123,936
1932	19,001,609	1,600,000	826,744	1,000,000	22,428,353
1933	21,511,620	1,600,000	1,774,673	2,955,241	27,841,498
1934	33,408,070	1,000,000	5,626,912	4,615	40,039,597
1935	27,565,141	—	15,339,451	—	42,904,592
1936 (estimates)	29,435,533	—	3,898,053	—	33,333,586

Expenditure

The expenditures have been increasing yearly. In 1907 they totaled only ¥1,211,968, but for the 1936–37 fiscal year the amount increased to ¥33,333,586, of which ordinary expenditures totaled ¥18,655,367 and extraordinary expenditures totaled ¥14,678,219. Items of expenditures consist of administrative, educational, forestry, employers, Karafuto development enterprises, public works and many others. Expenditures for the preceding five years are ¥17,734,099 for the 1926–27 year ; ¥19,982,340 for the 1927–28 year ; ¥25,691,270 for the 1928–29 year ; ¥28,587,359 for the 1929–30 ; ¥24,629,293 for the 1930–31 ; ¥26,123,936 for the 1931–32 ; ¥22,428,353 for the 1932–33 year ; ¥23,566,668 for the 1933–34 years ; ¥25,929056 for the 1934–35 year ; and ¥28,703,053 for the 1935–36 year.

Monetary Organs

The principal monetary organs in the island are the Hokkaido Colonial Bank and the Karafuto Bank. The former is represnted by its branches at Toyohara, Ohtomari, Maoka, Honto, Noda, Tomarioru, Ochiai, Shirutoru, Shisuka and Rutaka ; its head office being located at Sapporo, Hokkaido. The business

operation of the bank in the island at the end of 1934 showed deposits amounting to ¥207,522,989 and loans advanced to ¥30,041,495. The Karafuto Bank is the only one having its head office in the island, its deposits totaling ¥15,910,897 and loans advanced ¥7,188,561 on the same date. The bank came into existence in May, 1934, with a capital stock of ¥500,000 which was increased to ¥2,000,000 in March, 1919. The Karafuto Bank has its head office at Ohtomari and a branch at Maoka. The two banks are doing good work for the development of the island. Besides these banks there is a special bank which has a branch at Toyohara, and that is the Hokumon Savings Bank. This savings bank branch was opened on April 1, 1922. Its local business operation showed at the end of 1934, advances figured at ¥720,504 and deposists at ¥1,473,561.

Military Training Camps

The military training camps ordinance was promulgated in April, 1926, providing for the establishment of camps for the military drilling of youths below the conscription age. The ordinance, however, was not promulgated in oversea territories, the only exception being Karafuto, where the local authorities in view of the almost complete lack of nationalistic social work in operation and of the smallness in the number of non-Japanese elements in the population, issued an order in May of the same year, making possible the growth of the military drilling work for the youths. Below is shown the present status of the work so far carried on :

MILITARY TRAINING CAMPS

Town	No. of Camps	Attendants
Toyohara	8	238
Ohtomari	7	249
Honto	5	146
Maoka	7	351
Tomarioru	7	164
Motodomari	3	115
Shisuka	4	81
Total	41	1,344

Overseas Trade

The history of the overseas trade of Karafuto since 1905 is a history of steady expansion, though it underwent a frequent recession in the course of those 31 years. The table below illustrates the trend in a more graphic way :

Year	To Foreign Countries	To Japan proper	Total
		(In yen)	
1927	755,135	90,193,622	90,948,757
1928	937,710	97,000,380	97,938,090
1929	2,042,652	103,034,631	105,077,283
1930	2,335,126	82,140,506	84,475,632
1931	841,655	80,233,395	81,075,050
1932	274,447	92,626,343	92,900,790
1933	367,088	104,886,093	105,253,181
1934	430,644	133,777,256	134,207,900
1935	869,965	130,940,201	131,810,166

SHIPMENTS TO AND FROM JAPAN PROPER

Year	Outward-bound	Inward-bound	Total	Excess of Outward-bound
		(In yen)		
1927	48,740,382	41,453,240	91,193,622	7,287,142
1928	50,915,329	46,085,051	97,000,380	4,830,278
1929	56,388,752	46,645,879	103,034,631	9,742,873
1930	46,812,144	35,328,362	82,140,506	11,483,782
1931	50,984,860	29,248,535	80,233,395	21,736,325
1932	63,510,076	29,116,267	92,626,343	34,393,809
1933	73,455,524	31,430,569	104,886,093	42,024,955
1934	96,648,171	37,129,083	133,777,256	59,519,086
1935	92,884,992	38,055,209	130,940,201	54,829,783

Principal shipments to Japan proper in 1934 consisted of pulp, lumber, paper, marine fertilizer, salt-salmon, salt-codfish, dried herring, dried codfish, fish oil, edible seaweed and canned crabs. Principal shipments from Japan proper

during the same year consisted of rice, cotton goods, oils, beer, saké, oats, peas and beans, salt, sugar, soy (Japanese sauce), miso (bean paste), tobacco, fish and shellfish, vegetables, fruits, and mineral products.

Trade with Foreign Countries

The ports open to foreign trade in Karafuto are Ohtomari and Maoka. The countries with which Karafuto has trade relations are Chosen, China, Eastern Russia, the Kwantung province, America, Germany, Spain, Belgium, the Dutch Indies and Egypt. The following table contains detailed information on the foreign trade of Karafuto in the past 6 years :

EXPORT TRADE OF KARAFUTO

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
			(In yen)			
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	81,834	12,321	152
Soviet Russia	—	—	—	8,000	6,851	—
China	1,739,906	635,650	898	—	500	9,511
Kwantung Province	247,540	10	4,347	18,049	1,952	23,317
America and European Countries	162	—	212	—	—	—
Total	1,987,608	635,660	8,558	107,883	21,624	32,980

IMPORT TRADE OF KARAFUTO

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
			(In yen)			
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	1,340	1,570	—
Soviet Russia	54,553	2,851	192	5,413	3,680	2
China	1,781	—	76	—	—	5
Kwantung Province	91,176	97,121	76,679	126,069	248,832	173,552
America and European Countries	200,008	106,022	188,267	126,293	154,938	661,426
Total	347,518	205,994	265,889	259,205	490,020	834,985

EXCESS OF IMPORTS OVER EXPORTS

1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
			(In yen)			
—	—	—	257,331	151,322	387,396	802,005

EXCESS OF EXPORTS OVER IMPORTS

1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
			(In yen)			
604,162	1,640,090	429,666	—	—	—	—

Agriculture

There was practically no agriculture in Karafuto prior to its cession to Japan in 1905. No sooner had it passed into Japan's possession than vigorous steps were taken for the reclamation work of all arable lands. Today the annual farm production reaches approximately ¥4,000,000, farming households 11,593 and arable lands over 469,000 hectares. Yet the lands under actual cultivation cover only 31,600 hectares, which shows that there is still room to accommodate more farming inhabitants. The chief agricultural products are grains, peas and beans, potatoes and green vegetables, and of the grains oats and rye are most abundantly produced. Keeping livestock goes hand in hand with agriculture in the island, for it is by pasturing that the livelihood of the agricultural settlers is made more stable. Every assistance is, therefore, being given by the Karafuto government to live-stock raising. Cattle, horses, swine and foxes are the principal animals kept, with some sheep, rabbits, chickens, ducks, etc. In 1934 the total live-stock product amounted in money value to ¥2,116,000, just one-half of the entire value of farm products.

Mineral Products

Coal The most important mineral product in the island is coal and next to it comes petroleum. The coal producing centres are divided into the northern, southern and central districts. The coal bed is of the tertiary formation consisting of upper, middle and lower measures. Of the three coal districts the central is the largest and belongs to the lower measures. It runs for 100 kilometres from north to south and has a breadth of from 2 to 5 kilometres. A portion of the southern coal field along the western coast and the greater portion of the northern and eastern coal fields belong to the upper measure. On the northwestern coast there are several important coal fields belonging to the middle measure. The upper measure belongs to the Pliocene and the middle and the lower to the Eocene Period.

At the end of 1934 there were 21 coal fields under operation of an aggregate area of 127,186,700 square metres as against 6 coal-fields of a total area of 23,562,593 sq. metres in 1921. The following table shows the general trend of the increase :

Year	No. of coalfields	Area (sq. m.)	Quantity	Value ¥
1921	6	23,562,593	115,255	1,328,512
1922	6	23,562,593	114,547	1,238,198
1923	6	23,562,593	167,304	1,809,422
1924	9	32,030,708	199,385	2,255,713
1925	7	34,413,720	250,615	2,737,970
1926	11	36,982,649	245,220	2,712,289
1927	12	37,470,086	357,046	3,553,731
1928	12	49,626,496	539,481	4,887,989
1929	11	46,923,352	635,515	5,743,322
1930	14	97,915,360	644,963	5,622,177
1931	—	—	637,962	5,249,815
1932	—	—	677,389	5,200,889
1933	16	111,848,900	888,907	—
1934	21	121,186,700	1,196,647	—
1935	22	—	1,510,000	—

Of all the coal mines that of Kawakami used to be the most productive, though now superseded by O-hira mine. Its annual output coming up to 175,875 metric tons in 1932 and 190,210 tons in 1933. The O-hira mine had an annual production of 204,277 tons in 1932 and 290,901 tons in 1933. The Kawakami Mine extends over about 800 hectares located at a distance of 32 km. from Toyohara and is owned and operated by the Mitsui Mining Company, Ltd. The O-hira Mine is operated by the Oji Paper Mills, Ltd. The mine is located at a point 15 km. northeast of Esudori. Other large coal mines are the Shirutoru, Osakayé, Higashi-Shiraura, Kashiho, Amauchi, Naihoro, Estoru, Chitosé, Mita and Tokai.

Petroleum Petroleum was first discovered at a point on the south-western coast of Karafuto in 1907 when an official investigation was conducted, after which oil strata were discovered in the neighbourhood of Hontocho, Konotoro, Karabutsu, Maruyama and several other places. In 1934 digging operations were conducted by the Japan Petroleum Co., Ltd., on Well No. 2 of Maruyama of Ochiai-machi while such operations were carried over a total area of 23,204,106 square metres in 1930 and over 13,344,900 square metres in 1929 and 10,000,800 square metres in 1925.

Fishery Products

The chief fishery products of Karafuto are herrings, salmon, codfish, trout, crabs, whales and fur-seals, the average yearly catches reaching as much as ¥10,000,000 to ¥20,000,000 in value. Of these varieties the herring comes first in importance, the 1935 catch being figured at ¥8,155,731. Most of these fishery products are canned in the distributing centres in the island. Of all the canning centres Maoka ranks first, followed by shisuka and Tomarioru. Edible seaweed is obtained along all parts of the coast, but principally along the western coast and Aniwa Gulf. The Island located on the north-eastern edge of Taraka Bay is the only breeding spot of fur-seals in Japan. When the southern half of Saghalien came into Japan's possession in 1905, seal hunting in this small island was prohibited, and every possible protection was given to their breeding. In 1911 the hunting ban was

alleviated, the annual number to be killed being limited to 550. In 1913 it became apparent to the supervisiors that the number of landing fur-seals was decreasing, so in 1915 the ban was again imposed and was maintained until 1917. It was then withdrawn, with an annual permit to kill up to 550 head. In 1924 the hunting of old, non-breeding fur-seals was started. This increased the production in the year to 824 head and that in the following year to 942. In 1930 the total reached 1,715 and 1,704 in 1931. In accordance with the Fur-Seal Treaty concluded by Japan with the United States and Russia in 1911, Japan is paying 10 per cent annually of the profit from this fur-sealing to the governments of these two countries. Whales are principally hunted by the ships of the Oriental Whale-Hunting Company which has a base for that purpose in Aniwa Gulf. The following shows the money value of the chief fishery products :

FISHERY PRODUCTS IN MONEY VALUE (Yen)

Kind	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Herrings	9,811,698	8,020,723	6,756,851	6,868,066	9,356,354	8,155,731
Trout	1,161,910	609,279	369,120	1,927,229	817,164	3,829.815
Salmon	328,340	194,625	115,885	210,498	295,982	340,143
Codfish	1,220,662	916,877	878,429	845,675	757,802	1,046,134
Sardines	96,481	19,273	136,945	215,284	191,002	558,343
Soles	98,770	52,634	65,296	153,940	142,203	202,511
Crabs	1,661,553	1,749,480	937,335	1,683,325	2,280,513	1,885,771
Seaweed	745,251	689,600	934,927	501,406	957,025	1,151,511
Whales	88,149	14	—	—	—	—
Sharks	4,263	1,990	6,004	4.216	2,914	52,116
Hypomesus japonicus	26,246	19,486	14,216	35,588	45,536	482,284
Shellfish	158,685	131,912	34,218	76,084	79,301	154,264
Others	507,067	344,526	388,842	674,039	747,964	878,996
Total	15,909,075	12,750,419	10,638,131	13,195,350	15,673,760	18,737,619

Timber Production

The island is so thickly and extensively covered with primeval forests that, according to an authoritative estimate, about 2,976,491 hectares, i. e., about 83 per cent of the entire area of the territory, is forest land. In this estimate is included 833,333 hectares reserved for future growth and 79,365 hectares in use for the field work of the Imperial Universities of Tokyo, Kyoto, Hokkaido and Kyushu. There are about 49 species of trees and 73 of shrubs growing on the island, but those that have any commercial value are the Ezo-matsu (Picea ajanensis, Fisch), todo-matsu (Abies sachaliensis, Mast), gui-matsu, ichii (the yew, Taxus baccata), shirakaba (the silver birch, Betula alba), doroyanagi (a willow), hannoki (the black alder) tamo, and a few others. Their distribution is regular, according to districts. In the low coastwise districts we find the yanagi, hannoki, tamo, etc.; on the higher levels grow the todo-matsu and Ezo-matsu, and as we climb the slopes forests of the graceful silver birch mix with and replace the pines (matsu), growing thicker and thicker as the mountain peaks are approached. The guimatsu (a pine species) grows principally in the lower, damper land. But the todo-matsu and Ezo-matsu are the species which predominate in nearly all parts of the island, occupying as much as 80 per cent of the total forest land. The revenue from the forestry amounted to ¥21,680,893 in 1934.

Forest Administration In ancient times the entire island of Karafuto was nothing but thick forest and the natives seem to have no rules to prevent them from felling trees whenever or wherever they chose; but they apparently felt no need to fell any large amount of standing trees. The land was almost as primeval as could be imagined when it was ceded by Russia to Japan in 1905. Moreover, during the earlier period of the new régime, devastation by fire was not infrequent. On the other hand, the increased number of population in the island had the effect of increasing the demand for timber in various ways. The first task which confronted the Karafuto government in their forest administration was therefore how to protect the forests from devastation, how best to fell and how to re-stock. As a tentative re-stocking measure large amounts of seeds of todo-matsu, Ezo-matsu, Kara-matsu and silver birch were sown on a wide burnt

patch of mountain-side in the neighbourhood of Oehiai in June, 1920. As the experiment was satisfactory, seedings were carried on a tract of 15.47 hectares and 50.01 hectares in 1921 and 1922 respectively. Then in 1923, the seeding work was carried on over a total tract of 4,285,09 hectares, then it was carried in the same way in 1926 and 1927 until in the latter year seedings were carried on over a tract of 10,460.74 hectares and the supplementary sowings made on a tract of 2,569.68 hectares. Below more detailed figures are given :

Year	New Seeding (Hectares)	Supplementary Seeding (Hectares)
1921	15.47	—
1922	50.01	—
1923	4,285.09	—
1924	4,754.39	—
1925	7,259.07	—
1926	11,272.60	7,740.26
1927	10,460.74	2,569.68
1928	7,571.17	—
1929	3,442.45	—
1930	445.00	—
1931	—	—
1932	407.03	—
1933	35.10	—
1934	181.66	—
Total	50,188,21	10,309.94

Seedling Work With the increased need of re-foresting with saplings, the seeding work has become quite important. Since the first sapling plantation was established at Toyohara in 1912 its number began to increase, and now there are 17 sapling-plantations established throughout Karafuto producing annually about 6 million saplings. Details follow :

Location	Acreage (Hectares)	Date of Establishment
Toyoharp	15.2110	5/1912
Shimizu	4.9500	5/1920
Tokobo	13.0485	5/1920
Tominaigishi	7.9467	,,
Tomarioru	4.6761	,,
Takarazawa	4.9839	,,
Kawakami	6.7287	,,
Otomari	4.9893	5/1926
Tamagawa	69.4040	5/1927
Yamashitagawa	6.1684	5/1927
Minaminazuki	5.3328	5/1929
Obara	6.8878	5/1929
Kitakotami	13.8217	5/1929
Towada	0.1530	5/1920
Contoro	1.2500	5/1930
Nayori	7.4250	4/1931
Kamishisuka	14.9100	4/1931
Total	137.8869	—

Felling Work The present Government's felling work was started in May, 1927, on the estimated basis of an annual production of 535,743 cubic metres of timber. But, in view of the difficulty felt in marketing, the annual aggregate felling was reduced to the basis of 196,-370 cubic metres. The business result in the year 1935 was as follows :

	¥
Receipts	2,449,705
Expenses	778,631

TIMBER PRODUCTION DURING 1924-1933

Year	Felling (Koku)	Shipment (Koku)	Delivery (Koku)
1924	2,366,545.98	2,502,820.31	2,547,288.54
1925	1,100,388.91	2,130,118.02	2,169,525.38
1926	744,982.00	1,274,693.17	1,319,501.38
		(cubic metres)	
1927	541,630.473	25,429.015	7,137.030
1928	459,340.777	494,156.669	509,218.133
1929	492,061.608	497,863.054	504,930.773
1930	198,742.706	455,250.462	455,250.462
1931	205,587.861	202,115.850	202,115.850
1932	201,020.000	196,532.000	196,532.000
1933	199,555.000	200,371.000	200,371.000
1935	202,413.000	169,751.000	173,367.000

Forests for University Field Work It was in April, 1914, that a forest tract of 20,000 hectares along the basins of the Ai-kawa (Ai River) and Odasamu-kawa (Odasamu River) was given to the Tokyo Imperial University for the field work of forestry students of its College of Agriculture.

Before or after that year the forests for the field work of the Hokkaido, Kyushu and Kyoto Imperial Universities were established. The amount of stand-

ing timbers of these forests at the end of March of 1934 were 11,459,715 koku for the coniferous trees and 772,767 koku for the broad leaved trees.

Fire Prevention Work The work of fire prevention was initiated in 1922 over a stretch of 13,495 metres of forest area, mostly of the area artificially re-planted. But in recent years the prevention work was extended over natural forests, it consisting in making openings or glades, so that in 1934 the total length of these openings for protection from fire reached 1,015,945.

FIRE-PREVENTION OPENINGS

Year	Extension (metres)
1922	13,495
1923	78,297
1924	87,973
1925	15,173
1926	237,973
1927	157,530
1928	119,129
1929	95.729
1930	22,062
1931	27,962
1932	82,840
1933	55,444
1934	28,568
Total	1,015,945

Re-foresting Work The forest-re-stocking work is now attained by encouraging the natural recruiting process and in 1929 over an area of 173.36 hectares and then in 1930 over an area of 47.90 hectares have been recruited. In 1931 the same work was carried on over an area of 92.60 hectares, bringing the total area accorded this treatment to 313.86 hectares.

Development of Various Kinds of Industries

With the growth of railway facilities the population began to increase, and, with it, various trade and industrial opportunities became more promising. Ohtomari and Maoka are the two ports with the best future outlook, being connected by railways at Toyohara, the seat of government of the island. Paper-pulp manufacturing, canning, brewing, starch manufacturing and butter-making are the leading industries in Karafuto. In 1934 products of various industries amounted to ¥126,538,366 of which products of manufacturing industries aggregated ¥75,466,270 which as compared with ¥37,569,366 of the products of all kinds and ¥17,987,842 of manufacturing industries in 1920, they show tremendous improvements. Various experiments for industrial purposes were conducted and are being continued at the Industrial Experimental Laboratory at Toyohara.

Pulp In 1913 the first pulp factory was opened at Ohtomari by the Oji Paper Manufacturing Company; then another was opened at Tomarioru by the Karafuto Kogyo Kabushiki Kaisha, both starting operations in 1915. Soon the World War gave an opportune stimulus to the speedy development of the industry and at present there are nine pulp factories in the island turning out an aggregate of 200,000 metric tons of pulp valued at ¥32,460,000 and 160,000 metric tons of paper valued at ¥38,900,000 in 1935. This means that at present about one-half of the total pulp supplies are from Karafuto. Below is given further information in this respect:

PULP FACTORIES IN KARAFUTO

Company	Location
Oji Paper Manufacturing Company[1]	Ohtomari
" " " "	Toyohara
" " " "	Noda
" " " "	Tomarioru
" " " "	Maoka
" " " "	Esutoru
" " " "	Ochiai
" " " "	Shirutoru

1 The Oji, Karafuto Kogyo anb Fuji were amalgamated in May, 1933, into one concern which retains the name of Oji Paper Manufacturing Co., with a capitalization of ¥ 150,000,000.

PRODUCTION AT EACH PULP FACTORY (AT THE END OF 1932)

Company	Factory	Manufactures	Productive Capacity (French ton)	Quantity Produced	Amount (¥)
Oji	Otomari	Pulp	13,000	—	—
„	Toyohara	Pulp	71,000	21,925	2,042,141
		Paper		2,197	284,800
„	Noda	Pulp	15,000	8,947	1,036,626
		Paper		7,749	1,652,093
„	Maoka	Pulp	24,000	21,022	3,874,423
		Paper			
„	Tomarioru	Pulp	22,500	36,822	3,725,700
		Paper		3,141	485,200
„	Esutoru	Pulp	169,700	7,620	673,600
		Paper		25,825	6,570,589
„	Ochiai	Pulp	54,000	70,270	8,061,925
		Paper		31,439	6,570,589
„	Shirutoru	Pulp	72,500	16,507	1,855,971
		Paper		38,335	6,792,697
Total		Pulp		162,091	17,395,963
		Paper		129,710	24,537,313

Brewing Early attempts to brew saké on the island were unsuccessful. The local demand for saké was so pressing, that it led enterprisers to improve all defects in equipment and to procure water of better quality. The result proved promising, and today the island-brewed saké is as good as any produced in Japan proper. There are at present about 45 breweries. The productive value for 1935 amounted to ¥3,257,000.

PRODUCTION AND SUPPLIES OF SAKÉ

	Production		Import from Japan Proper	
	Quantity (thousand deci-litre)	Value (¥)	Quantity (litre)	Value (¥)
1926	72,613	3,842,245	197,710	1,240,445
1927	69,467	3,636,155	195,670	1,222,755
1928	66,603	3,862,093	254,670	1,490,544
1929	65,181	3,043,598	221,470	1,367,567
1930	45,614	1,926,964	183,310	956,698
1931	41,316	1,839,171	190,530	953,183
1932	42,748	1,800,285	172,870	921,881
1933	58,876	2,662,936	393,400	—
1934	70,423	3,205,850	502,900	—
1935	72,382	3,257,035	—	—

Canning Industry The canning industry in this island goes back to 1909, and in 1917 the canneries numbered 111, with a total production of ¥3,370,558. Crab-canning heads the list; but the reckless catching following that year caused a falling-off in the production, which was reduced to ¥1,458,000 in 1920. The canneries were also reduced in number to 14 and amalgamated. As a result both the number of mills and products decreased. But the industry has been for a while consolidated and is developing steadily. The number of canneries and their products during the years 1932–35 follow :

Year	No. of canneries	Qty. prod'd	Value (¥)
1932	25	32,041	915,335
1933	29	38,979	1,660,643
1934	38	54,985	2,268,286
1935	28	—	3,380,000

Legal System and Status

Karafuto is different from other dependencies of the country in that more laws of the home land are applied there than in any of the other dependencies. But in the sense that the legal administration is different from that of Japan proper it resembles

Taiwan, Chosen, Kwantung Province and the South Sea Islands. The chief point of difference is that all the laws concerning the judicial system, such as the civil law, criminal law, the laws of civil and criminal procedures, and the law of the constitution of the courts of justice are equally enforced in Karafuto and Japan proper. At present there are 169 laws of the land applied or made applicable in Karafuto, of which 13 laws are operative only partially.

There are one local court, 2 district courts, and 7 detached offices of the two district courts in Karafuto.

Education

In 1905 Japan found the island a vast, primitive desert with practically nothing done towards bringing the inhabitants to a civilized way of life. But as the immigrants settled down there arose the necessity for schooling their children. It was in August, 1906, that the first elementary school was opened at Toyohara, and in October of the same year 2 other elementary schools were opened, one at Ohtomari and the other at Maoka. At the same time, private educationists started simpler elementary schools. In 190 all elementary schools were brought under the Karafuto government. A middle school was opened at Ohtomari in 1912, a girls' high school at Toyohara in 1916, a middle school at Toyohara in 1925 and another middle school at Maoka in 1927. Meantime, girls' high schools were opened at Ohtomari, Maoka and Tomarigishi. The following tables give the main educational statistics of Karafuto :

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS, TEACHERS AND PUPILS

(March, 1936)

District	No. of Schools	Teachers	Pupils
Toyohara	42	260	10,793
Ohtomari	58	270	10,718
Honto	23	96	4,047
Maoka	32	189	8,300
Tomarioru	46	212	8,999
Motodomari	19	102	4,308
Shisuka	20	104	4,648
Total	240	1,236	51,813

Education of the Natives There are some 2,000 natives in Karafuto including Ainus, Gilyaks, Orochones and Tunguses. The Karafuto government is undertaking to educate the children of these backward natives. At the educational institution established at Shisuka-machi, where about 30 children of the natives are taught along the line of the primary school.

Religion

The three principal religions, i. e., Shinto, Buddhism and Christianity, are competing with one another in this promising field of labour. Tere are 42 propagating centres for Shintoism representing five sects, viz., Shinto proper, Kurosumi, Tenri, Konko and Taisha. There are three governmental shrines and these are (1) Karafuto Shrine, (2) Toyohara Shrine and (3) Ani Shrine, all of which are dedicated to Imperial ancestors. August 23 is the day set for annual festival of the Karafuto Shrine, which is also the Inauguration Day of Japanese administration in Karafuto. The shrine is located at Asahiga-oka in a quiet western hilly suburb of Toyohara, and strikes the chance visitor with a sense of admiration for its grave beauty. The anniversary of the Toyohara Shrine falls on July 11. Buddhism is represented by the Shin, Nichiren, Soto, Shingon, Jodo and other sects. There are 72 temples and 126 preaching houses. Christianity is being preached by missionaries of six denominations, i. e., Episcopal, Methodist, Presbyterian, Roman Catholic, the Salvation Army, and the Holiness Church. The number of Christian churches in Karafuto is 12.

CHAPTER XLIII

SOUTH SEA ISLANDS

(UNDER JAPAN'S MANDATE)

Geographical Features

The South Sea Islands mandated to Japan, numbering 2,550, are the Mariana, Marshall and Garoline groups, between 131° 10′ and 172° 10′ of east longitude and between 1° 15′ and 20° 32′ of north latitude. They have a total area of 2,148.80 square kilometres. The Hawaiian Islands are to the east; the Philippines and Celebes to the west; the Bonin Islands to the north, and New Guinea to the south. Only one island among them, i. e. Guam belongs to the United States.

The Mariana archipelago starts close to the southern end of the Bonin Islands, stretching towards the equator, and the Marshall and Caroline groups extend to the east and west along the equator, forming an inverted letter "T" with the Marianas. About 740 miles south of the Bonin Islands lies Saipan, the largest of the Marianas, and about 180 miles farther south is Truk, one of the largest of the Carolines, which marking the crossing point of the inverted "T," is the centre of the mandated territory. The line of 148° east longitude divides the Carolines into the West Carolines, with Palau and Yap, and the East Carolines, with Truk and Ponape. Because of the distances between the islands and the extensive area covered by them, communications are difficult. The fact that each group of isles uses different words peculiar to itself sufficiently demonstrates the degree to which they are separated.

So small are the individual islands in area that the premier ones, such as Ponape and Babelthuap, cover barely 269 square kilometres. Their topography differs according to geological conditions. The Marshalls, which are made up of coral reefs, rise only 1.5 or 2 metres above sea level, but the Marianas and Carolines, which are composed largely of volcanic rocks, have peaks rising as high as 758 metres and little level land. There are no navigable rivers, and in several places good roads are still lacking.

With the exception of Yap, practically all of the islands are composed of volcanic rocks and coral reefs. There are three kinds of coral reefs, though no clear demarcation can be drawn; and the volcanic rocks are of two kinds, basalt and andesite, the former being found in Truk, Ponape and Kusaie, of the Carolines, and the latter in Palau and Saipan. Everywhere in the islands, sea-birds nest and deposit phosphate, but principally on Angaur, Peleliu, Togobei and Fais. The soil also contains some amount of phosphoric acid, which helps vegetables and trees to grow. The narrowness of each islet, the volcanic topography and the dearth of rainfall, however, are handicaps to agriculture.

Groups of Islands

The Marianas The Marianas, the northernmost part of the territory, consist of 14 islands covering 632 square kilometres. At the southern extremity is Saipan, the seat of the Saipan Branch Office, with jurisdiction over the whole of the Mariana archipelago. The Saipan group, 183,89 square kilometres in area, starts 64.36 km. to the northeast of Guam and stretches 104.59 km. to the southwest. Being nearest to Japan proper, the group forms the gateway to the South Sea Islands. It not only enjoys favourable communication with the mainland of Japan, but is endowed with fertile soil adapted to the cultivation of sugar cane, which has drawn no small number of immigrants. Here the South Sea Islands Development Company engages in the refining of sugar.

The Carolines The Carolines, lying along the equator, are divided into the four administrative groups of Palau, Yap, Truk and Ponape. On the island of Corrol in the Palau group are located both the South Sea government and its Palau branch office. The number of isles under the jurisdiction of this branch office is 109, covering an area of 80.29 square kilometres. Babelthuap, commonly called the Main Island of the Palaus, has 370.37 square kilometres. Angaur, about 64.36 km. southwest of Corrol, is called the treasure island of the archipelago, being buried under

phosphate mounds. A regular steamship line connects it with Menado of Celebes and Davao of Mindanao, in the Philippine Islands. The Palaus are not only the administrative pivot, but are important geographically.

The Yap group lies 418.34 km. to the northeast of Palau and consists of 85 islets covering 228.91 square kilometres and extending 804,50 km. from north to east. The four main islands, with an area of 36.26 square kilometres, are widely known as a junction of submarine cables. Here also is located the Yap branch office.

The Truk group lies 1,383.74 km. east of Yap, dotting the surface of the sea like a nebula. The Truk branch office, located on Natsu Island, controls 245 islets, which total in area only 124,16 square kilometres. As Natsu Island was formerly the seat of the German local government and later the headquarters of the Japanese defence corps for the entire mandated territory, it is fairly well known to the outside world.

The Ponape group is located 627.51 km. due east of Truk and consists of 138 islets covering more than 492.10 square kilometres. The island of Ponape, with 380.73 square kilometres in area, ranks first among all the islands of the territory. It is full of hills and is lacking in level land. Textile manufacturing and sugar refining were once started here by the Japanese, but later discontinued. Hope is still retained for some industrial undertaking, and a branch laboratory of the Industrial Experiment Station of the islands was established here in 1925 to make trial plantings of rice and medical herbs.

The Marshalls The Marshalls are located 1,222.84 km. east of Ponape. At the southern tip is Jaluit, on which is located the Jaluit branch office, which has control over the main portion of the archipelago, 32 islets, made up of more than 860 coral reefs comprising an area of 150.94 square kilometres. The soil being quite suited to the growth of cocoanut palms, they flourish everywhere. The copra industry of the islands is chiefly dependent on the material produced in this group.

Atmospheric Conditions

All the islands being within the tropical zone, they have one season instead of the four of the temperate zone. Cool sea breezes sweep over them day and night, contributing much toward balancing the temperature, and the inhabitants are favoured with a mild maritime climate rarely found in tropical countries and free from the danger of attack by venomous snakes, wild animals and miasma peculiar to the tropics.

There is an observatory established by the South Sea Government, where all sorts of atmospheric observations are conducted, and four hyetographical observatories. In addition, each branch office of the government has its own observation station. Thorough study of the insular climate is now being planned.

Atmospheric pressure in the neighbourhood of Truk and Ponape is generally low; in the vicinity of the Carolines and western Marianas, it is high in February and March and low from October till December; in the eastern islets of the Carolines, high from May to September and low in other months. The temperature is about the same all over the islands and shows little change through the year, the highest in the daytime ranging from 29° to 31° C. It seldom rises above 31°, and the difference during 24 hours is only 4 or 5 degrees. Humidity averages 82% and rarely falls lower than 60%.

From November to April, the wind generally comes from between the east and northeast. This is the trade wind. From May to October, the direction differs according to the position of the islands. The velocity averages 5 metres in the Marianas, weak in August and September and strong between October and February; in the western part of the Carolines, it is weak in April, May, June and September and strong in November, December, January, February and March.

The mean annual rainfall is more than 3,000 mm., and at Ponape it reaches even 4,000 mm. The rain comes in sudden torrents and passes away with the same suddenness. By this the unbearable tropic heat is greatly mitigated. The rainfall is greatest during July, August and September and least in January, February and March.

The Islands are, as it were, the hotbed of the typhoons that devastate Formosa and Japan proper, but locally the wind rarely gathers hurricane strength. If a typhoon does strike, it leaves the islands in a miserable condition, and the natives fear typhoons as they do their gods. When Ponape was struck in 1906, nearly all the cocoanut palms fell. Jaluit suffered in 1918 and Yap in 1920 and 1923.

A third tempest at Yap caused tidal waves to sweep over the coast, considerably damaging houses, woods and farms. A typhoon at Palau in May, 1927, swept away practically all dwellings in Peleliu and caused no small damage to other islets far and near.

History

The discovery of the islands dates back to the 16th century, when Spain and Portugal were vying with each other for discovery of untrodden soil in any corner of the world. As they are scattered and insignificant, not all of the groups were found at the same time. The Marianas were found first and the Carolines at about the same time, though exploration of the latter was neglected for a long time until about 1885, when the Marshalls were discovered.

Found by the Portuguese, the Marianas came into the possession of Spain. Toward the close of the 19th century, Germany took possession of the Marshalls and threatened to encroach on the Carolines, then under Spanish control. Spain protested, and arbitration by the Pope in 1886 terminated the dispute amicably, the whole of the Carolines remaining under Spanish rule. Assiduous efforts by the Spanish to exploit and govern the islands continued until 1899, when, financially straitened due to the war with the United States, they sold the Marianas and Carolines to Germany. The whole of the present South Sea Islands mandated by Japan was thus shifted to the possession of Germany. The German reign lasted until 1914, when a Japanese squadron occupied the islands, which were later juridically placed under Japanese mandate, following the conclusion of the Paris Peace Treaty and other relevant agreements.

German Administration It is generally agreed that the establishment of sovereignty over the Marianas and Carolines by Spain in 1886 and the complete domination by Germany of the Marshalls in 1885 should be made the starting point in historical study of the archipelagos. Until purchased by Germany, the Marianas and Carolines had no government worthy of mention, and nothing now remains to recall the Spanish administration except the defence works on Yap and Ponape and a few buildings standing here and there. After the transfer to Germany, a complete change was effected. In the manner of the British East India Company, Germany started the Jaluit Company shortly after acquiring the Marshalls. The Government took over the business in 1906, when the company's contract expired, and tried to put all the island industries under its monopoly. Thus Jaluit has naturally flourished as the business centre of the territory, reinforced by communications with Singapore, Hong-Kong, Australia and the United States.

In looking back upon the German programme in the South Sea Islands, we are struck above everything else with the largeness of its scale. A general government was first established in New Guinea, which sought to implant German authority in the Orient by embracing the numberless islets between New Guinea and Tsingtao. A step to this end was the laying in 1904 of a submarine cable connecting Yap with Shanghai, Guam and Menado, and in 1913 a radio telegraph station of gigantic size was erected on the same island. To make a scientific study of the South Sea Islands, the German Government dispatched a number of experts. One of their discoveries was phosphate, of which a deposit of 3,000,000 tons was found on Angaur. The German Phosphate Company, founded in Bremen in 1908, conducted mining operations until the Japanese occupation. Other deposits, though less valuable, were located at Peleliu, Togobei and Fais.

Germany exercised special efforts in diffusing culture among the natives, and to this end it dispatched no less than 100 missionaries, who opened churches in all the principal villages of the islands. The older natives still keep the German style of Roman letters to this day. Besides paying attention to educational advancement within the territory, the authorities sent men of talent to Tsingtao for further study.

Relations with Japan It is presumed that there must have been some early intercourse between Japan and the archipelagos because of their geographical position, but there is no reliable evidence of it. The Japanese training cruiser Ryujo in 1884 touched at Kusaie, an islet belonging to the Ponape group, where the chief of the natives enthusiastically welcomed the crew, declaring that his people were descendants of the Japanese race. In the same year, the Japanese Government, informed of the massacre of a Japanese on Raye Island, of the Marshalls, dispatched Mr. Taketaro Goto, who succeeded in settling the matter with the local chieftain. Early commercial relations were initiated by the South Island Company (Nanto Shokai), established at Ponape with the capital of ¥44,000, but its business was soon transferred to the Ichiya Shokai, which failed in 1895. In the year following the appearance of the Nanto Shokai, two other trading firms, the Kaitsu Sha and Koshin Sha, came into existence; the former lasted only two years, but

the latter carried on business until the Japanese occupation of the islands. The Hioki South Sea Trading Company was founded in 1893 with branches at Ponape, Truk, Saipan and Guam. Since amalgamation with the Murayama Shokai in 1906, it has been operating as the South Sea Trading Company and doing an extensive business.

Population

According to the census taken on October 1, 1935, the total population of the mandated territory is 102,537, comprising 50,573 natives, 51,861 Japanese and 103 foreigners. Of the natives, there are 46,848 Kanaka and 3,725 Chamorro. The Chamorro enjoy high birth rate, but the Kanaka scarcely maintain the status quo. Those within the jurisdiction of the Yap branch office show yearly decrease.

When Japan took over the archipelagos, there were only a few scores of Japanese dwellers. Gradually increasing, there are now 31,158 males and 20,703 females, most of them dwelling within the jurisdiction of the Saipan branch office and being engaged in agricultural pursuits.

When placed under Japanese control, the territory had a hundred Germans, mostly engaged in missionary work and commerce. After they left, there remained fewer than 20 foreigners, chiefly Americans and British. The census taken on April 1, 1935, gives the number as 97 who are nearly all engaged in missionary service, cocoanut cultivation or the copra trade.

A census is taken every five years. The village officials and policemen also keep in constant touch with every change. As for Japanese settlers and foreigners, complete investigation is made in accordance with regulations. The first general census was taken in October, 1920, when the first national census was taken in Japan proper, attended with great difficulties and at enormous expense. Subsequent censuses came in 1925 and 1930.

DENSITY OF POPULATION,

(April 1, 1935)

District under Branch Office	Population	Area sq. km	Density per 1 sq. km
Saipan	40,875	639	64.0
Yap	6,439	226	28.5
Palau	12,210	478	25.5
Ponape	11,192	504	22.2
Jaluit	10,331	170	60.8
Truk	17,210	478	25.5
Total	98,565	2,149	45.9

NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLDS

(April 1, 1935)

	Saipan	Yap	Palau	Truk	Ponape	Jaluit	Total
Japanese	8,257	179	1,890	1,232	804	177	12,539
Natives	724	1,646	1,202	2,662	1,517	1,792	9,543
Foreign	5	5	11	11	10	7	48
Total	8,986	1,829	3,103	3,905	2,331	1,976	22,130

Chosenese are included in the figures for Japanese.

POPULATION BY GROUPS

(April 1, 1935)

		Saipan	Yap	Palau	Trak	Ponape	Jaluit	Total
Japanese	men	21,305	243	3,980	1,461	1,566	315	28,870
	women	14,638	148	2,118	608	870	160	18,542
	total	35,943	391	6,098	2,069	2,436	475	47,412
Natives	men	2,557	2,970	3,394	7,833	4,607	5,092	26,453
	women	2,360	3,068	2,703	7,592	4,124	4,756	24,603
	total	4,917	6,038	6,097	15,425	8,731	9,848	51,056
Foreign	men	7	6	13	18	12	8	64
	women	8	4	2	6	13	—	33
	total	15	10	15	24	25	8	97
Total	men	23,869	3,219	7,387	9,312	6,185	5,415	55,387
	women	17,006	3,220	4,823	8,206	5,007	4,916	43,178
	total	40,876	6,439	12,210	17,518	11,192	10,331	98,565

Chosenese and Taiwanese are included in the figures for Japanese.

YEARLY INCREASE OF POPULATION

Period	Japanese	Native	Foreign	Total
1920	3,671	48,505	46	52,222
1925	7,430	48,789	66	56,294
1930	19,835	49,695	96	69,626
1932	25,766	50,045	98	75,909
1933	30,670	50,114	100	80,884
1934	35,328	50,174	103	85,605
1935	47,412	51,056	97	98,565

Tribes, Customs and Manners

Tribes Opinions differ as to the tribes residing in the mandated South Sea Islands. Some say that they immigrated from the Malay Peninsula, while others maintain that they are of the Polynesians. Though anthropologically named the Micronesian race, it is evident that they are a hybrid. Separate groups are clearly discernible, each with its own language and customs and manners. Roughly they are divided into the Kanaka and Chamorro. The former belong to the Micronesian race, and the latter are said to be of mixed White and Kanaka extraction, though other explanations are sometimes given.

The Chamorro are supposed to have settled first in Guam, later removing to neighbouring isles, and the fact that they now flourish largely in the Marianas, Yap and Palau seems to endorse the supposition. Though the tribe thrived fairly well under the Spanish régime, it has gradually dwindled, due mainly to massacres, until today it numbers only 3,400. The characteristic features are yellowish brown skin and black hair. The Chamorro, unlike the Kanaka, are industrious and mild in nature. Their mode of living is advanced, and some even reside in foreign-style houses with modern improvements. Their present culture owes much to religious influences in the time of Spanish control.

Kanaka is the general term for the natives of the Pacific islands. Most of those dwelling in the mandated islands belong to this group. They have dark brown or yellowish brown skin, black hair, heavy eyebrows and a big mouth. They are not hairy, and are simple and mild in nature. Though generally of medium stature, some are fairly tall. The Kanaka are cheerful in disposition, but extremely lazy. Their cultural standards are very low, and the mode of living lingers in the primitive stage. Of the total of 50,000 natives in the islands, those belonging to the Kanaka number 46,600.

Customs and Manners Because of the warm climate, it was originally the custom of the natives to wear nothing except a piece of cloth around the waist. Contact with advanced people, however, has brought a change, and some now use foreign clothing. In Saipan and the Marshalls, the natives are clad after the fashion of Europeans, but those in Ponape, Truk, Palau and especially Yap are almost stark naked. The natives are not indifferent to personal adornment. Tattooing is an outstanding example. The more complicated the tattoo marks and the larger the space they cover, the more respected is the owner. There is also the strange ornamentation of scars deliberately cut into the flesh, which has more influence in Ponape than in the other islands. The custom of driving a hole through the ear-lobe for an earring or other dangling ornaments has been becoming less common of late years, due principally to the diffusion of education.

The staple foods of the natives are fruits, fish and meat. Nature bountifully supplies cocoanuts and tubers, which are mainly relied on, and tapioca, bananas, pineapples, mangoes, lemons and oranges, all of which are used as subsidiary food. Under such circumstances, it is but natural that little attention is given to agriculture. Fishing has made but little advance, but the supply of beef and pork is fairly sufficient. Wine and tobacco are greatly sought after, though the use of the former is almost completely prohibited. The habit of chewing areca still prevails.

The structure and appearance of dwellings vary in accordance with the cultural standard of each group of isles. In Saipan there is a street that looks like one in Europe, but in Yap one is reminded of how people lived in prehistoric ages. The dwellings in Truk and Jaluit are far inferior to those in Palau and Ponape, having not even floors. A general lack of windows leaves the interiors sombre and damp. "All men houses" are found everywhere in the archipelagos, which serve as a sort of rendezvous for the male villagers or inn for travellers. On Yap there are one or two houses to every village where women live when ailing.

Social Conditions

As the natives are not yet far removed from the primitive stage, their knowledge is very limited. They adhere to the traditions handed down from their forefathers and seem incapable of assimilating with any rapidity the cultural attainments of the outside world with which they come in contact. Only a few can count correctly. Yet they

have been progressing in education since primary education has been introduced. Whatever their intellectual deficiencies, they are fit for manual work.

There are two main social classes, superior and common, and between them there are several transition levels. Every village has its own chief, at whose mercy formerly were the life and property of the villagers. Among the chiefs there used to be ceaseless fighting. Under the German administration, their powers were greatly diminished, and at present they collect taxes and transfer government orders besides attending to the welfare of the people.

As has already been said, their mode of living is very simple, requiring little clothing and no farming for food. They are content to live in any miserable structure which affords shelter from wind and rain. Save for a handful of the Chamorro and a very small number of wealthy people, they live from hand to mouth in perfect contentment and have no thought of providing for posterity. They see no need of taxing their otherwise simple existence by using money. Such as they obtain is invariably spent for such luxuries as soap, perfume, tobacco and canned food, for their daily necessaries are freely provided by nature. Of late years, however, a desire to own cocoanut trees and land has become discernible. They have aversion to anything that requires systematic labour. This is because they are little accustomed to it, there being no need for hard work where food is plentiful without it. In former times they were absorbed in subduing neighbouring villages, but in recent years their barbaric temperament has greatly abated in consequence of appropriate measures taken toward this end by the Japanese Government.

Each group uses its own language or dialect, and there are many instances of different languages in a single group of islets. Between the main island of Yap and the islets within its orbit, there is no common language. Since Japan took charge of the educational work, Japanese has been taught, increasingly meeting the daily needs of the natives.

Administration

Following severance of diplomatic relations with Germany, the Japanese navy occupied in October, 1914, the German territory of the South Sea Islands and established a military government. In December, 1915, when military headquarters were instituted at Truk, the islands were divided into six administrative districts, each governed by a resident garrison commander. In June, 1918, subsequent to the issuance of an Imperial ordinance, a civil administration was created under the commander of the Provisional South Sea Defence Corps, and civil officials took over the functions formerly entrusted to the commanders.

By conclusion of the peace treaty in January, 1920, the islands were placed under Japanese mandate. Realizing the need of effecting fundamental renovation in the administration, the Japanese Government, upon withdrawing the troops, established the present South Sea Government in April, 1922. This was in accordance with an Imperial Ordinance of March, 1922, parts of which were later revised in 1924, 1927, 1930 and 1935. The Governor, who presides over the entire administration, is under the control and supervision of the Overseas Minister. Communications affairs are supervised by the Communications Minister, and currency, banking and customs matters by the Finance Minister. In emergencies, however, the Governor is authorized to act upon his own discretion and if necessary to request the commander of the naval station or the nearest responsible naval commander to take military action. The Government Office is composed of nine sections: Governor's Secretariat, Archives, Local, Finance, Police, Colonial, Aquatic, Civil Engineering and Communications. The Provisional Saipan Harbour Repair Office, a products museum and an experimental fishery station also belong to it. Under the government there are branch offices at Saipan, Yap, Palau, Truk, Ponape and Jaluit. All such general administrative business as census-taking, alms-giving, salvation, policing, hygiene, tax collection, education, religion, industry, engineering and harbour works are conducted by these local branches.

Besides the afore-mentioned, there are, under the control of the Governor, 15 elementary schools, 23 public schools, a woodwork training institute, a high court of justice with a public procurator's office, 3 local courts of justice, each with a public procurator's office, 1 industrial experimentation station with its two sub-stations, 7 hospitals, 1 mine, 9 post offices, 1 meteorological observatory and its 3 branches and 1 industrial school.

The branch offices are assisted by sosoncho, kucho, son-cho and joyaku, who are mostly native chiefs. Those in charge of the Kanaka are called sosoncho and son-cho, and those among the Chamorro are named kucho and

joyaku. The so-soncho and kucho act under the control and instructions of the branch office to which they belong, and the son-cho and joyaku assist them. The duties entrusted to these officials are (1) thorough diffusion of knowledge of the law and regulations, (2) the making of applications and reports to the branch office, and (3) the conveyance of official instructions and their fulfilment.

OFFICIAL PERSONNEL, June 30, 1935

Office	Chokunin rank	Sonin rank	Hannin rank	Treated as Hannin rank	Non-regular	Employees	Total
South Sea Government	1	10	66	7	17	115	216
Branch office	—	3	53	93	2	82	233
Elementary schools	—	—	84	—	—	—	84
Public schools	—	—	60	—	—	24	84
Courts of Justice	—	5	4	—	—	5	14
Industrial experimental stations	—	4	7	—	—	15	26
Mine	—	1	7	—	1	7	16
Hospitals	—	9	25	—	1	47	82
Post offices	—	—	59	—	—	80	139
Meteorogical observatories	—	1	5	—	—	13	19
Industrial schools	—	—	3	—	—	—	3
Total	1	33	373	100	21	388	916

LOCAL ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICIALS, September 1, 1935

Branch office	So-soncho	Kucho	Soncho	Joyaku	Total
Palau	2	—	13	—	15
Saipan	—	2	—	6	8
Yap	10	1	—	—	11
Truk	6	—	23	—	29
Ponape	13	—	14	—	27
Jaluit	1	—	16	—	17
Total	32	3	66	6	107

Police Administration Under the Police Affairs Section of the government there is a branch section at each of the six branch offices of the government. In addition, there are a police officer's detached station at Tinian, another at Rota, assistant police inspector's detached stations at Kusaie and Angaur and policemen's offices at 23 less important villages. The distribution of these stations was determined more by special local conditions than by the density of population, for each branch office of the government has its own peculiar geographical and cultural conditions. On August 1, 1935, the number of police officials at each branch office ranged from 18 to 65.

The regulations for control of the islanders established in 1916 to guard against immigration of persons without property and criminals were amplified and revised in 1917 and 1925. Special consideration is given to firearms and gunpowder, the possession and use of which are strictly prohibited to the insular inhabitants. Beverages of more than 3 per cent alcoholic content are forbidden except for medical use and religious rites. The possession and consumption of dangerous narcotics, save for medical purposes, are prohibited. Other regulations cover game hunting, publications, social gatherings and the formation of associations, collection of donations, fisheries and the employment of geisha and waitresses.

Finance

The expenditure for insular administration had been met by the military special account until an independent account of the South Sea Government was established in March, 1922. Since then the South Sea Government Special Account has been arranged and expenditures of the Government have been met by taxes, other revenues and the sum advanced from General Account. But its own revenue has increased so much that since 1932 the Islands have been receiving no budgetary assistance

from Japan proper and have thus virtually become independent financially. The budget receipts and expenditure for the past several years follow :

ANNUAL REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE

Fiscal Year	Revenue Ordinary Revenue	Revenue Extraordinary Revenue	Revenue Total	Expenditure Ordinary expenditure	Expenditure Extraordinary expenditure	Expenditure Total
1926	¥2,399,369	4,608,958	7,008,327	2,310,110	1,638,464	3,948,574
1931	4,699,058	2,999,531	7,698,589	2,432,547	2,143,889	4,576,436
1932	4,819,299	3,134,687	7,953,986	2,500,544	2,233,198	4,733,743
1933	5,011,281	3,237,487	8,284,769	2,755,171	2,527,324	5,282,495
1934	5,118,466	2,979,828	8,098,295	2,914,837	2,478,924	5,393,761
1935	6,555,000	2,720,000	9,276,000	3,082,000	2,742,000	5,825,000
1936*	—	—	7,388,000	—	—	7,388,000

* The figures for 1936 are estimates.

The poll tax, customs duties and clearance charges on shipments constitute the premier taxes. A poll tax not exceeding ¥10 is levied on every male native aged 16 or more and from ¥2 to ¥50 on Japanese and foreigners, although there are quite a number of exceptions. All imports from foreign countries are subject to customs duty in accordance with regulations established in May, 1922. These regulations also provide that all shipments to Japan and dutiable at the destination are subject to a clearance duty at the same rate as levied at the destination.

The details of revenues are given below :

Import Duty, Clearance Dues, and Mine-Lot Tax in 1934

(In yen)

Branch office	Import duties	Clearance dues	Mine-lot tax
Saipan	20,129	2,691,296	—
Yap	—	—	—
Palau	3,188	240	1,005
Truk	2,744	—	—
Ponape	4,670	—	—
Juluit	4,456	—	—
Total	35,187	2,691,536	1,006

Revenue from Taxes 1930-1935

(In yen)

Description of revenue	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36 (Estimate)
Poll tax	87,874	95,509	81,722	78,705	72,005	86,151
Clearance dues	1,761,691	3,074,433	3,099,000	3,037,227	2,691,536	3,647,390
Import duties	24,288	18,918	40,428	36,178	35,189	31,842
Mine-lot tax	—	143	143	143	1,005	574
Total	1,873,843	3,189,004	3,212,294	3,152,253	2,799,736	3,765,957

Revenue from Other Sources than Taxes, 1934-35

(In yen)

Items	Amount assessed	Amount received	Loss	Amount not rec'd yet
From Government properties and enterprises	2,272,631	2,272,538	17	75
Stamp receipts	22,891	22,891	—	—
Miscellaneous receipts	25,436	23,300	2,134	—
Sales of Government properties	13,554	13,554	—	—
Balance carried over from the previous year	2,966,274	2,966,274	—	—
Total	5,300,786	5,398,557	2,151	75

Revenue from Government Enterprises and Properties, 1934-35.

(In yen)

Branch Offices	Postal, cable and telephone receipts	Hospital	Forestry	Phosphate rocks	Gover't prop'tys	Elec. light	Total
Saipan Bronch	109,172	27,767	779	—	46,104	33,650	217,475
Yap „	10,173	2,964	324	—	3,198	2,962	19,623
Palau „	76,341	26,941	1,739	1,778,750	4,899	32,492	1,921,165
Truk „	14,944	13,415	1,005	—	1,240	7,277	37,883
Ponape „	16,262	10,482	948	—	6,311	8,803	42,808
Jaluit „	7,214	10,696	20	—	9,914	5,736	33,582
Total	234,108	92,268	4,818	1,778,750	71,668	90,923	2,272,538

Land and Agriculture

All transactions in real estate owned by natives are subject to approval by the government, a practice initiated by the German administration to safeguard the interests of those whose concepts of property are rudimentary. Total acreage is put at 213,000 hectares, of which about 71,000 hectares are thought fit for cocoanut plantation and general farming. The land already cultivated is calculated at 51,300 hectares for paddy field and dry land, and for cocoanut plantation, leaving more than 20,000 hectares for future development. Engaged in agriculture are 40 per cent of the entire native population, viz., 20,252 natives and 8,730 Japanese. There being little need of depending for their daily necessaries upon farming, the agricultural technique of the natives is still in a primitive stage, but the rapid increase in the number of Japanese, who are setting good examples, will sooner or later bring about some improvement. Livestock farming is also undeveloped, though the natives raise cattle, hogs, goats, hens and ducks, the cattle for transportation and farming purposes and the hogs and hens for food.

Sugar-cane cultivation dates as far back as the beginning of the 16th century, but until the arrival of the Japanese there was no sugar refinery and the inhabitants ate the cane raw. The island of Saipan being found fully qualified in both climate and soil, there was established there by the Japanese a sugar industry, which has made a healthy development. From 20 hectares in 1916 cultivation increased to 455 hectares in 1919 and to 6,140 hectares in 1933. There were two companies, with eight factories, in 1919, but in view of the inadvisability of continuing business on so small a scale, the South Sea Development Company, Ltd., capitalized at ¥20,000,000, was established, taking over the Nishimura Colonial Company, Ltd., and purchasing the South Sea Industrial Company, Ltd. Factories of this company are now located on the islands of Saipan and Tinian, the two principal sources of the raw material. Each has a pressing efficiency of 1,200 English tons, but completion of the factory now under construction at Tinian will increase the capacity there to 2,200 tons. Statistics taken in 1932–33 showed 6,140 hectares under cultivation, yielding 43,150 tons of sugar.

Industry

The lack of communication facilities greatly handicaps commercial and industrial advancement, and inadequate supplies of coal, water and iron disqualify manufacturing. The natives have little purchasing power, and the Japanese settlers, numbering 47,000 and possessing superior purchasing power, are scattered all over the isles.

Daily wages for both Japanese and natives at the end of 1934 were roughly as follows :

Japanese:	
Carpenter	¥2.50—¥4.00
Shipwright	2.50— 4.50
Plasterer	2.50— 3.50
Blacksmith	2.00— 3.00
Sugar refinery worker	1.50— —
Mine worker (mechanic)	2.50 —
Mine labourer	1.20— 2.00
Natives:	
Carpenter	¥1.00—¥1.50
Shipwright	1.00— 1.50
Day labourer	.70— 1.20
Mine labourer	.70— —

The value of the annual production of the principal industries for 1935 amounted to ¥17,163,552, of which the followings are principal products :

Sugar	¥ 15,526,770
Alcoholic drinks	332,408
Spirits for industrial use	515,521

Forestry All of the islands may appear to casual travellers to have good forests, but inspection would disclose

that most of the trees are of no practical use. The natives have been careless in removing timber and have disregarded the necessity of reforestation. The only trees receiving attention are the cocoanut palms growing on the island coasts. But this does not mean that forestry enterprises are hopeless. Various kinds of useful trees are seen thriving among the bushes, and the natural benefits here are the very conditions required for the growth of plants,

The cocoanut trees have long been depended on by the islanders for food, and practically every island is shaded by their long trunks and broad fronds of pinnate leaves. According to statistics for 1934, all the cocoanut plantations total 33,572 hectares in area, and the copra yearly produced therefrom amounts to 12,276 tons.

Fisheries There are no records available of fisheries in the islands before the Japanese occupation. A few Japanese made a start shortly after 1914, but unfortunately they all failed, due principally to unpreparedness to cope with the peculiar geographical and climatic conditions of the region. Only recently have profitable undertakings been established. The lack of transportation facilities, the unique conditions and the limited island market make it imperative that the industry be remodelled.

Bonito, tunny, mackerel, sardine, horse-mackerel and shark are found in abundance in neighbouring waters. In shallow waters near the coasts there are seen everywhere shoals of poly-coloured small fish and all sorts of shell-fish. The crocodile, hawk's-bill turtle and sponge of good quality are also plentiful.

The manufacturing side of the fishing industry is still in its infancy and is still limited to the drying of horse-mackerel, bonito and mackerel.

Bonito fishing has, however, advanced to a considerable extent. At present Saipan has 26 motor boats, Palau 30, Truk 17, Ponape 13 and Jaluit 2, which, totalling 88 boats, are all engaged in bonito fishery. Catches in 1934 amounted to ¥22,000,000 or more in value. If fishing districts near the islands other than mentioned above were developed, further advance in the industry would be possible. In addition, some pearls and sponges are cultivated, chiefly at Palau.

Mining The only mining is for phosphate on the Island of Angaur, south of the main island of the Palau group in the Carolines. The island is 15.54 square kilometres in area. The thickness of the phosphate deposit varies from about 3 metres to 7 metres, and the amount available was estimated in 1935 at 1,600,000 tons. For some time after the Japanese occupation of the territory, the mining was carried on by the Navy, but it is now an enterprise of the government. Yearly production is put at 60,000–70,000 tons. In addition to the superintendent, who is an expert, there were in 1935 five assistant experts, 16 clerks, 440 mine workers, 13 labourers and 5 other employees.

The production of phosphate rocks and the value since 1930 follow :

year	Quantity in tons	Value in yen
1930	55,455	1,153,463
1931	59,251	1,125,769
1932	64,573	1,205,172
1933	65,442	1,308,840
1934	71,008	1,778,750
1935	69,355	1,762,310

Encouragement of Enterprises Encouragement and financial assistance are given to a number of undertakings, including vegetable farms ; coffee plantations, which have been receiving subsidies since 1927 ; the breeding of cows, pigs and oxen ; the growing of sugarcane and the manufacture of sugar, which were subsidized to the extent of ¥481,856 in 1934 ; laundries, barber shops, shoe-repair shops and hotels ; the cultivation of pearls ; and the preparation of dried bonito. As the raising of cocoanut trees is recognized as one of the most promising industries in the islands, regulations were issued in 1922 stipulating that to those who seriously undertake the planting of cocoanut palms a subsidy is to be given at a rate not exceeding ¥20 per 2½ acres of newly planted land and not exceeding ¥10 per 2½ acres of old cocoanut groves put in order. Furthermore, the regulations were revised in 1931 to provide a subsidy of one-fourth of the cost of constructing factories for drying copra.

Since 1924, Saipan and Palau have held competitive shows of the local agricultural produce and handmade articles, supported by the government. In addition, representative products of the islands are exhibited at various shows and exhibitions in Japan proper through the good offices of the government. The South Sea Government Products Museum was established and opened at the beginning of 1930 for the exhibition of all sorts of insular products and geographical and historic studies.

An official investigation is being made in places sparsely inhabited by the na-

tives to see whether there is land for additional immigrants, and wherever land is found and designated suitable for colonization every care is taken to assure comforts for settlers. A survey made in October, 1932, showed the existence of land for 393 families. Another investigation is seeking to distinguish lands owned by the government from those possessed by private citizens. Although no accurate figures are yet available, government-owned cocoanut groves are estimated at about 6,600 acres, with 298,000 trees. From these figures, however, it is difficult to calculate the approximate amount of copra obtainable, for some of the groves are unproductive. A comprehensive survey is in progress.

Experimental Stations The Industrial Experimental Station in the islands, where all kinds of experiments and investigations connected with agriculture and stock-breeding are conducted, utilizes farms totalling 145 acres. The Aquatic Products Experimental Station, initiated in 1931 under the control of the Colonial Section of the government, experiments, among other things, with the preservation of bonito and mackerel and the breeding of sponges, turtles and shell-fish. Since the islands, though small in area, extend over vast expanse of sea, it was considered that the natural resources hidden therein deserved a careful investigation. Having found that small experiment boats would not serve for the purpose the Government has built a ship having a displacement of 183 tons with 360 h.p. This vessel is now engaged in investigation of the resources of the sea.

Trade The staple exports are phosphate, copra, sugar, dried bonito and alcohol, which account for 96 per cent of all exports. As to imports, 61 per cent of the total consists of cereals and other provisions and drinks, cotton textile and manufactures, clothing and fittings, metal goods, lumber and various wooden articles.

The open ports are Saipan, Palau, Angaur, Truk and Jaluit. Almost the entire overseas trade of the archipelagos is done with the Japanese mainland save for sundry goods exchanged between Saipan and Guam, and between Jalut and the Gilbert Islands, and for a nominal amount of sugar from Hawaii and copra and sundry goods from Guam, the Gilbert Islands and Manila.

The total exports in 1935 were ¥26,374,195, of which export to the Japanese mainland was ¥23,741,761. Among exports to Japan, sugar represented ¥15,583,934, phosphate, ¥2,166,236, and copra, ¥1,745,573. The total imports in the same period were valued at ¥15,221,411 of which ¥14,620,044 were from Japan. With countries other than Japan, exports amounted to ¥2,632,434 and imports ¥601,367.

Trade with Japan in 1935

(In yen)

Exports to Japan	
Sugar	15,583,934
Dried bonito	2,215,804
Hides, bones, etc. and their manufactures	177,075
Compounds of chemicals, explosives, etc.	650,756
Minerals and their manufactures	2,167,058
Totals including others	23,741,761

Imports from Japan	
Cereals, flour, seeds etc.	2,095,219
Comestibles	2,860,775
Oils, tallow, wax, etc.	1,246,670

Imports from Japan	
Explosives, etc.	409,563
Piece-goods and manufactures thereof	1,343,302
Clothing, etc.	415,415
Pulp, paper, books, drawings, etc.	203,312
Minerals and manufactures thereof	489,596
Chinaware, glass, etc.	176,325
Minerals, metal, etc.	736,045
Metal wares	530,545
Vehicles, vessels, machinery, etc.	2,027,961
Total including others	14,620,044

Trade with Foreign Countries, 1935

(In yen)

Exports to Foreign Countries	
Sugar	2,549,937
Oils, tallow, wax, etc.	5,035
Piece-goods	9,248
Metal wares	5,206
Total including others	2,632,434

Imports from Foreign Countries	
Cereals, flour, seeds, etc.	294,496
Comestibles	1,788
Hides, bones, etc. and manufactures thereof	119,200
Chemicals, drugs, explosives, etc.	[8,865
Total including others	601,367

Transportation and Communications

There are no roads worthy of the name on the islands, though the Government realizes that they are the first requisite for industrial development. As large appropriations will be needed, their construction will have to wait for some years to come. Nor are there railways for public use. The short one at Angaur extending for 12 miles to the phosphate mine, and that at Saipan and Tinian which extends for 93 miles are exclusively for the hauling of freight belonging to the South Sea Development Company.

Land transportation is now principally carried through the help of motor cars and other vehicles imported from Japan. The character of the roads, length of each and the number of vehicles are illustrated in the following tables :

Extension of Roads, Dec. 31, 1934

Branch office	Width of Road: Less than 4 m	Less than 7 m	Over 7 m	Tota
Saipan	58	33	14	105
Yap	85	—	—	85
Palau	66	22	3	91
Truk	52	2	—	54
Ponape	85	6	4	95
Jaluit	43	—	—	43
Total	389	63	21	473

Number of Various Vehicles, Dec. 31, 1934.

Branch office	Motor car	Motor-cycle	Bicycle	Cart	Wagons	Others	Total
Saipan	126	13	6,305	44	2,610	6	9,104
Yap	—	—	49	18	6	—	73
Palau	20	7	835	22	14	4	902
Truk	—	1	203	7	1	—	212
Ponape	3	1	272	14	20	—	310
Jaluit	—	—	116	29	—	—	145
Total	149	22	7,780	134	2,651	10	10,746

Improvement of transportation facilities is now being concentrated on harbours. Generally speaking, the ports are favourable for mooring of steamers with a displacement of 3,000 tons, but the long distance between vessels lying at anchor and the landing places, as well as coral rocks extending far into the sea, handicaps their healthful growth as modern commercial ports. The construction of modern harbours depends upon magnanimous appropriations and years of labour. The first real harbour, started in 1926 and completed in 1931 at a cost of more than ¥1,000,000, was at Saipan. A second project was launched in 1927 at Corrol, where, between the vessels at anchor and the landing place, lies a coral-reef. The work came to the completion after the expenditure of ¥106,992 in 1930, as the result of which the route has been reduced to one-third of what it used to be. A new wharf was constructed then with an expenditure of ¥84,00, and since 1934 a work to enlarge the wharf to three times its present size is being pushed on.

Shipping Routes Upon the creation of the South Sea Government, all government-controlled shipping routes were placed under the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, Ltd. The schedule for these lines in 1935 follows :

(1) West Round Line : Plying between Japan and the Philippines, the ships touch at Yokohama, Osaka, Kobé, Moji, the insular ports, Menado and Davao, covering both ways in 44 days. 20 voyages are made in a year.

(2) East Round Line : Plying between Kobé and Jaluit, the ships of the line call at Saipan, Truk, Ponape and Kusaie, covering both ways in 50 days. 10 voyages are made yearly.

(3) East and West Connecting Line : Between Kobé and Jaluit, this line includes calls at various insular ports. Both ways are covered in 53 days, and 6 voyages are made in a year.

(4) Saipan Line : The ports of call are Yokohama, Osaka, Kobé, Moji, Futami, Hachijo Islands, Saipan and Tinian. 28 round-trips, each made in 28 days, are scheduled for the year.

The number of vessels on these lines is 8, ranging from 2,444 to 6,143 tons.

Among the islands themselves, shipping has been entrusted to the South Sea Trading Company, Ltd., which is subsidized by the Government. The services now available are : the Mariana line, connecting scattered islets within the Mariana Archipelago, available 12 times a year ; the Yap, Palau, Truk and Ponape lines, each with 4 trips a year, and the Marshall line, which makes 7 trips a year. In addition there are Ponape, Truk and Palau lines. Five vessels are used, ranging from 196 to 545 tons.

During 1933, vessels that entered and cleared the nine ports of the territory numbered 507 and 520 respectively—381 steamships, 126 sailing vessels clearing and 381 steamships, 131 sailing vessels entering. The number of passengers landing and embarking were 65,083 and 29,697 respectively.

Other Means of Communication All means of communication were placed under the control of the local government when it was established. The Communication Section thus takes care of (1) post, telegraph, telephone, exchange and deposit services, (2) postal insurance, and (3) sea-routes, vessels and nautical markings. There are nine post offices. situated at Saipan, Jaluit, Tinian, Rota, Palau, Yap, Ponape, and Anguar. Each handles wireless messages. The cable and wireless lines now operated are as follow :

(1) Between Yap and Bonin Islands : dispatched by the Chichi-jima Wireless, relayed at Saipan.

(2) Between Yap and all except the Bonin Islands : despatched on the submarine cable through Naha, Ryukyu (Loochoo).

(3) Between the South Sea Islands, except Yap, and Loochoo and Taiwan : sent by submarine cable.

(4) Between the South Sea Islands, except Yap, and the Bonin Islands : sent by the Chichi-jima Wireless, relayed at Saipan.

(5) Between the South Sea Islands and all outside points except the Bonin Islands, Taiwan and Loochoo : despatched by the Tokyo Wireless, relayed at Palao.

Telephone facilities are still limited, switch-boards being installed at only Palau and Saipan.

Judicial System

The judicial branch of the South Sea Government employs the double trial system, the court for the first trial being one of the Local Courts of Justice and for the second trial the High Court of Justice. To each court is attached a public procurator's office. In remote places, minor irregularities, both civil and criminal, are disposed of by the judgment of the branch office heads.

The South Sea Government High Court of Justice is located in Palau. The Palau Local Court of Justice has jurisdiction in the Palau and Yap groups ; the Saipan Local Court of Justice, in the Saipan group, and the Ponape Local Court of Justice, in the Ponape, Truk and Jaluit groups. In 1935 there were three judges, two procurators and four secretaries in the judicial system.

Most legal regulations are the same as in Japan, but due consideration is given to the customs and conditions peculiar to the natives. Their civil affairs are handled quite independently of those settlers from outside ; hereditary practices in land ownership are preserved, none but government officials being permitted to sell, purchase or mortgage their land ; legal proceedings are made as simple as possible, and natives sentenced to less than one year of penal servitude may be subjected to labour instead of being sent to a prison.

Education

Besides elementary schools for the Japanese, there are 24 for natives throughout the insular territory. Though education is not compulsory, schools are provided, clothing and food supplied in particular cases and pupils from remote places received into dormitories. At the schools for native children, natives are employed as assistant instructors. The Japanese instructors must have the full qualifications of elementary school teachers in Japan proper.

There are schools for Japanese children in Saipan, Palau, Truk, Tinian, Yap and Ponape, and where there is no near-by Japanese school a Japanese class is attached to the native elementary school. The course of instruction, requiring six years, and the textbooks are the same as in Japan proper. The natives' elementary education takes three years, and after that they are free to enter continuation courses of two years. The lessons are about the same as those taught in the Japanese schools, save for the stress placed on ethics, calculation and the Japanese language. To teach carpentry, a special institute is attached to the Corrol Public School for natives.

Christian schools number 3 in Saipan, 2 in Palau, 6 in Truk, 2 in Ponape and 1 in Jaluit. All of them are attached to churches and naturally concentrate on diffusing knowledge of Christianity. They are not worthy of being called educational institutions in the strict sense.

With the object of popularizing education, a scholarship society was formed on the foundation of an Imperial donation, ¥2,000, in February, 1924. The society is headed by the Governor, who, with the interest accruing to the original and yearly scholarship grants by the government, does everything possible to encourage deserving students. There is also the South Sea Islands Educational Society, headed by the Governor and with branches at the seats of branch

offices of the government. Its sole object is elevation of the educational standard of the islanders.

The elementary schools for the Japanese, according to statistics taken at the end of April, 1936, have 101 instructors and 5,706 pupils. The instructors number 83 and pupils in the continuation course 3,050. The schools for natives have 58 Japanese teachers and 24 native assistant teachers, 1,310 boys and 1,024 girls attending elementary school course, and 420 boys and 200 girls in the continuation course.

There are some private institutions, mostly kindergartens, for Japanese children. Kindergartens are found in Saipan, Yap, Palau, and Ponape, having in all 14 Japanese teachers and 328 children. A private elementary school for natives in Jaluit has 42 children under 2 instructors, 1 of whom is Japanese.

As there were not very many Japanese children, no middle school was in existence in the archipelago prior to 1933. But owing to the industrial development and the increase of Japanese residents, it became necessary to establish one, and in accordance with the prefectural ordinance of March, 1933, an industrial school was established in the island of Saipan.

Religion

Among the native inhabitants there is no religion worthy of the name, but they have a sort of religious belief. Christianity was first introduced and propagated by Spaniards in 1666. A Jesuit missionary worked enthusiastically in Guam until banished in 1766 by Charles III and is said to have initiated the islanders into the methods of cultivating corn, tobacco, cocoa and potatoes. In more recent times, an American missionary group gained influence, though it finally abandoned work in Ponape and Truk, as did a Protestant mission group from Germany in the former island. Catholicism went on evangelizing side by side with Protestantism and is said to have had more funds. Priests of the Otani branch of the Shinshu Sect of Buddhism established themselves in Saipan for religious propaganda in 1919, and in 1926 a Tenrikyo church was opened in Palau.

Soon after the evacuation of the German Protestant missionaries, the Japanese Congregational Church despatched four missionaries to Ponape and Truk. American missionaries in Kusaie and Jaluit are engaged in educational as well as religious work, and Catholic missionaries, who came in 1921 from Spain, are also active. It is generally accepted that the natives' mild temperament is the result of the long and untiring efforts of the missionaries. Generally speaking, Christianity seems to have placed the entire population under its influence, but very few of the churchgoers understand its tenets.

CHURCHES, MISSIONARIES AND BELIEVERS, April, 1935

Religion	Catholic	Protestant	Buddhist	Tenrikyo	Total
Churches	12	13	6	2	33
Mission halls	39	77	—	—	116
Preachers	15	14	11	3	43
Inmates of Monastery	18	—	—	—	18
Native Preachers	24	85	—	—	109
Japanese	91	22	25,650	19	25,782
Believers { Foreign	14	5	—	—	19
Believers { Native	17,914	22,703	500	110	41,227
Total	18,019	22,730	26,150	129	67,028

The Charitable Society, founded on an Imperial donation of ¥1,000, was organized in May, 1927, in commemoration of the demise of the late Emperor Taisho. It is financed by the interest accruing to the foundation and contributions, and its principal mission is salvation of the poor and afflicted. So far its main accomplishment has been caring for lepers, 54 of whom were accommodated in 1935 in 4 sanatoria.

Medical and Hygienic Services

In general, there is less malignant disease in the islands than in other tropical lands. But the fact that most of them are coral reefs and small in area makes it difficult to obtain water supply. Rain-water tanks are the usual source, and they often prove an agency for spreading sickness. When the trade wind begins and ends, bringing changes in the climate, influenza occasionally rages. The natives are most unsanitary and even when taken ill hesitate to consult a doctor. Despite untiring efforts by the authorities to better hygienic coditions, long-establish-

ed customs have impeded progress.

The principal endemic diseases peculiar to the islands are amœboid dysentery, farmbœsia and dengue. Dysentery breaks out at places all the year round, but the symptoms are generally slight. Frambœsia, rampant among the natives, afflicts but few Japanese. In recent years, in consequence of injecting salvarsan as a remedy, the number of those contracting it has decreased.

Dengue is at times so prevalent that nearly every inhabitant has it, but few fall victims to it. Fortunately, the islanders have never been attacked by malaria fever, cholera, pest, yellow fever or sleeping sickness. Typhus, paratyphus, dysentery and a few other infectious diseases, however, are common. One suspected case of small-pox was reported in 1926, but it was agreed that the patient had contracted it while travelling in China and Japan.

CASES OF INFECTIOUS DISEASES

year	Amœboid Dysentery		Typhus		Paratyphus		Diphtheria	
	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths
1922	51	—	30	9	—	—	—	—
1925	83	10	4	1	2	—	—	—
1926	64	11	10	2	17	1	—	—
1927	146	14	15	4	4	—	—	—
1928	105	14	6	1	2	—	—	—
1929	197	27	40	3	202	1	—	—
1930	70	7	149	11	59	2	1	—
1931	254	35	24	3	11	1	1	1
1932	57	1	17	4	39	2	—	—
1933	64	6	21	1	11	1	1	—
1934	26	2	32	2	15	2	6	1
1935	31	3	13	2	31	3	3	1

year	Spinal Meningitis		Dysentery		Infantile Cholera		Total	
	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths
1922	—	—	—	—	—	—	81	9
1925	—	—	—	—	—	—	89	11
1926	—	—	—	—	—	—	91	4
1927	—	—	—	—	—	—	165	18
1928	—	—	2	—	—	—	115	15
1929	—	—	—	—	2	1	441	32
1930	1	1	—	—	—	—	280	21
1931	—	—	—	—	11	3	300	42
1932	3	1	17	—	4	1	137	29
1933	—	—	10	2	—	—	107	10
1934	—	—	1	1	4	4	84	12
1935	—	—	2	—	1	—	82	9

Medical Facilities Medical practitioner's offices are maintained by the government, and for the benefit of those living in remote places visiting doctors are despatched several times a year. The entire territory is divided into three classes, A, B and C, according to the standard of living, and medical charges are fixed differently; class A, for instance, paying from a third to half as much as the resident Japanese. The task of health protection lies heavily upon the shoulders of the government, for the number of private medical practitioners within the territory is still far from sufficient. According to statistics taken in June, 1935, officials in the government medical service throughout the insular territory include 24 doctors, 7 pharmacists, 3 secretaries, 8 employees, 9 assistants, 8 midwives and 22 nurses.

Number of Out-Patients of Hospitals, 1934

	No. of patients			Aggregate no. of patients		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Japanese	9,613	7,085	16,698	45,284	36,950	82,234
Foreign	54	25	79	310	95	405
Natives	9,986	7,976	17,962	40,621	34,382	75,003
Total	19,653	15,086	34,739	86,215	71,427	157,642

No. of In-Patients of Hospitals, 1934

Japanese	307	153	460	4,733	2,087	6,820
Foreign	—	1	1	—	17	17
Natives	138	68	206	2,159	1,175	3,334
Total	445	222	667	6,892	3,279	10,171

Special precautions are exercised against the outbreak of epidemics, and all arriving vessels are subjected to strict quarantine inspection. Compulsory vaccination is being practised, as in Japan proper. Geisha and waitresses undergo examination at least once a month. Lepers are found in several places, though the exact number is not yet available. The government opened a sanatorium in Saipan in 1926 and added others in Jaluit and Palau.

The health inspection is conducted in the schools once a year. The results indicate that though the physical growth of the native children generally surpasses that of the Japanese, cases of malnutrition and disease are much more numerous among the former. Inspection of water, and investigation of the causes of deaths are practised to aid health and hygienic improvement.

South Sea Development Company

The South Sea Development Company was founded, as a result of necessary appropriations approved by the Imperial Diet in May, 1936. Following this an Imperial ordinance No. 229 proclaiming its establishment was issued. An establishment committee of 28 were organized and on November 27 the company was formally founded. It is capitalized at ¥20,000,000 of which the Government invested ¥10,546,000 in the shape of its property mostly connected with the mining right of phosphate rocks on Angaur and Fuais Islands in the mandated South Seas and appended property. The remaining amount was invested by those interested in enterprises of these islands.

Its head office is on Kokor Island in Palau group and a branch in Tokyo. The Company's president is appointed by the Cabinet on recommendation of the Overseas Minister. It is vested with right to issue South Sea debentures three times its paid-up capitalization. The Government has power to supervise the company by virtue of the Imperial ordinance. The Company's business scopes include agricultural, aquatic, mining and shipping enterprises, phosphatic rock mining and others, all connected with economic development of South Sea Islands. Baron Ryutaro Fukao is its president. The Company also has established a South Sea Aluminum Mining Company with a capitalization of ¥2,000,000. The Mitsui Mining Company is heavily interested in the new concern, because the former has made an elaborate investigation of bauxite deposits on several mandated islands. As a result of investigation on Palau, Yap and Ponape, the Company has found these three islands have about 5,000,000 tons of bauxite. Annual mining production of bauxite is estimated at about 50,000 or 60,000 tons. Mining of bauxite, ore dressing and loading into ships will be undertaken by the Company. The first consignment is expected to be brought to Japan late in 1937. The proposed enterprise is very significant in that, through this, Japan is expected to be self-sufficient in its annual demand for about 20,000 tons of aluminium, for which 80,000 tons of ore is needed. The discovery of ores on these islands means a guaranteed supply of ores, for which Japan is dependent upon foreign countries, for the next 40 years at least. The South Sea Development Company this year will also establish a South Sea Electricity Company.

MANCHOUKUO

MANCHOUKUO

Geography

Position Extending between 38°43′ and 53°30′ North latitude and 117°50′ and 135°20′ East longitude Manchoukuo is bordered on the north by Siberia and on the east by Korea and the Maritime Province of Siberia.

On the west its borders touch Outer Mongolia, Eastern Inner Mongolia and China proper, while on the south its shores are washed by the waters of the Yellow Sea and the Gulf of Pechili, the coast line extending over 855 nautical miles.

Topography Topographically, Manchoukuo is vast expanse of plains, traversed from north to south by the Great and Little Hsingan (Khinyan or Khingan) mountain ranges in the northwestern section, and by the Changpai mountains near the south-eastern boundary.

Several great rivers with many tributaries run through Manchoukuo, irrigating the plains which they pass. The most notable of these rivers are the Heilungkiang (Amur), Sungari, Ussuri, Yalu, Tumen and Liao rivers.

Climate The climate of Manchoukuo is typically continental, despite the fact that this country lies within about the same latitudes as Japan, Korea, France and England.

Almost unaffected by ocean currents, Manchoukuo has a dry, cold climate with long severe winters and short hot summers. The spring season is windy, strong winds often carrying yellow dusts from the west.

The temperature falls as low as 49° C. below zero in winter and goes up as high as 40.0° C in some localities in summer.

Area, Population, Language, etc.

Area and Population The area of Manchoukuo is put at 1,300,000 sq. km. and is about twice as large as the combined areas of Japan proper, Korea, Formosa and Karafuto. Prior to 1932 little effort was made to obtain reliable census. In that year the population of Manchoukuo was estimated at 30,000,000 souls. Rapid increase immediately followed with the great influx chiefly of Chinese, Chosenese and Japanese. The total population reaches 33,836,898, exclusive of S.M.R. Zone and Kwantung Leased Territory, according to the latest Government figures, showing an increase of about 830,000 in round numbers per year.

POPULATION AND AREA

(June 30, 1936)

Province	Area in sq. km.	Population
Kirin	89,910	5,059,547
Lungkiang	125,537	2,291,293
Heiho	109,813	60,490
Sankiang	107,545	1,043,546
Pinkiang	143,425	4,272,000
Chientao	29,395	615,484
Antung	43,226	2,753,147
Fengtien	85,546	9,623,296
Chinchou	39,462	3,614,534
Jehol	96,585	2,782,809
Hsinking Special Municipality	191	303,301
Harbin Special Municipality	929	500,526
North Manchuria Special District	(1,147)	218,779
Hsingan, Western Division	80,411	1,417,451
,, Southern ,,	79,021	
,, Eastern ,,	106,751	
,, Northern ,,	160,396	
Total	1,303,143	33,836,898
Kwantung Leased Territory	3,462	—
S.M.R. Zone	295	—
Total	3,757	1,556,827
Grand total	1,306,900	35,393,725

POPULATION OF MANCHOUKUO CLASSIFIED BY NATIONALITY

Dec. 31, 1933

Province (Old division)	No. of Household	Population				
		Manchurian	Japanese	Korean	Others	Total
Fengtien	2,428,942	15,898,686	8,525	123,182	1,391	15,531,784
Kirin	1,164,616	6,948,087	11,956	409,578	2,272	7,371,893
Heilungkiang Prov.	624,078	3,810,104	3,017	5,599	563	3,819,286
Jehol	677,158	2,646,330	670	184	33	2,647,217
North Manchuria Special District	38,612	151,191	1,863	3,997	23,963	181,019
Hsinking Special Municipality	25,728	136,215	3,090	1,596	44	140,945
Harbin Special Municipality	87,458	334,663	9,095	5,207	64,420	413,386
Hsingan Prov.						
Eastern Div.	12,511	74,600	138	59	242	75,139
Southern Div.	57,024	337,800	297	2,241	—	340,338
Western Div.	52,690	315,350	—	460	—	315,810
Northern Div.	7,140	37,400	—	—	4,500	42,900
Total	5,185,967	30,190,526	38,657	552,103	98,431	30,879,717
S.M.R. Zone	74,944	235,234	139,973	27,781	1,328	404,316
Kwantung Leased Territory	161,838	862,307	139,016	2,295	857	1,004,439

FOREIGN RESIDENTS IN MANCHOUKUO

Japanese	90,025	British	434
Chosenese	701,161	Germans	459
Soviets	21,272	Americans	226
Emigrant Russians	49,413	Others	1,098
Poles	1,519	Total	865,633

Language Chinese is the official language of Manchoukuo, although native Manchus and Mongols living in the interior districts speak their own dialects and Japanese is now being taught at many native schools in Hsinking and other important centres of the country.

The original Manchus now living in the country are estimated to number between six and seven millions, but most of them speak Chinese, only those who live in some districts of Kirin province keeping to their own native dialect.

As the official, social and commercial language, the Peking mandarin language is most widely used in Manchoukuo, but the Shantung, Nanking, Shanghai, Canton and other dialects are spoken among the immigrants from these different parts of China.

Among other foreign languages Japanese and Russian are the best known in the country.

Banditry Manchoukuo has long been noted for its mounted bandits who ravaged the country. Under the old militarist régime even regular soldiers turned to banditry and quite often they were enlisted among the regular troops when in need, so that the troops and bandits were not clearly distinguishable from each other.

Bandits in Manchuria once numbered as many as 200,000 after the Manchurian Incident owing to the fact that the regular troops in the army of Chang Hsueh-liang resorted to banditry. But the strenuous efforts of the Japanese and Manchoukuo troops have reduced the number to about 20,000 by the end of 1935.

As a result of the pacification of Jehol early in March, 1933, the base of operation of the major bandit groups was completely wiped out. With a view to furthering the work of restoring peace and order, a central peace preservation committee was organized in Hsinking. Between the autumn of 1933 and the early spring of 1934, an intensive campaign was directed against the remnant outlaws in Kirin province. Efforts are being made to confiscate the weapons illegally possessed by the people, to reduce the number of the so-called vigilance corps of the professional type, and to give work to the roaming outlaws who surrender to the authorities.

History

Before Ching Dynasty Nearly twenty different dynasties have ruled successively in the territory now under the sovereignty of Manchoukuo, which includes Manchuria and part of Mon-

golia, from the Sushen dynasty to about the second and third centuries down to the Ching dynasty, which lasted from 1636 until 1911, when its rule was replaced by the new régime of the Republic of China.

The Ching dynasty was known as the Nuchen tribe before it gained hegemony in China proper. In 1636, the chief of the Nuchen tribe declared independence at Mukden against the Ming dynasty which was then in power in China proper, naming his country, which extended over the area now forming the territory of Manchoukuo, "Taching."

After rising to independence in Manchuria, Taching gradually expanded its territory until 1664, when conquering the Ming forces it occupied Peking and made that city its capital, after which Manchuria seemed deserted, except for the Han immigrants who came from China proper and settled in Manchuria, though only sparsely.

Thus Manchuria was left neglected by the Manchus, who were almost entirely occupied in colonizing China proper, and when Russians penetrated into Manchuria they could do as much as they liked in this region.

It was not until after the Russo-Japanese War that the Chinese authorities came to see the need of attending to the administration of Manchuria with any degree of seriousness. With this object in view, Hsu Shin-chang was appointed Viceroy of the Three Eastern Provinces in 1907, and notable improvements were effected in the systems of administration, communications and transport during the following few years.

The late Marshal Chang Tso-lin came into power in Manchuria after the Revolution of 1911, when Chao Erh-hsuan, then Viceroy of the Three Eastern Provinces, asked him to render military assistance to resist the advance of the revolutionary forces on Manchuria.

Rise of Chang Tso-lin The rapid ascendancy of Chang Tso-lin then followed and in 1916 he was appointed Inspectator-General of the Three Eastern Provinces, thus virtually placing the entire territory of Manchuria under his autocratic rule.

After a series of three civil wars with the Chihli army, in the course of which General Kuo Sun-lin, one of his lieutenants, made an unsuccessful attempt to overthrow him, Chang Tso-lin started hostilities with the Kuomin army of Feng Yu-hsiang, the so-called "Christian General", in January, 1926, and occupying Peking in December that year, installed himself as Generalissimo at Peking in June, 1927, thus attempting to reign over the entire territory of China.

This marked the peak of the ascendancy of the Mukden war-lord, for, in June, 1928, he had to leave Peking for Mukden ostensibly with the intention of spending the rest of his life in retirement. It was on this trip back to Mukden that the Marshal was killed in a train wreck near Mukden.

Under Chang Hsueh-liang Chang Hsueh-liang, known as the young warlord of Mukden, then stepped into his father's shoes, but finding himself unable to keep effective control over the lieutenants of his late father, he declared allegiance to the National Government in December, 1928, and was appointed commander-in-chief of the North-Eastern Frontier Army. This was followed by the renaming of Fentien province as Liaoning in March, 1929. During the civil war of 1930, Chang Hsueh-liang maintained an attitude of sympathetic neutrality, thereby making it possible for the National Army to defeat the rebels under Yen Hsi-shan and Feng Yu-hsiang. Apparently in appreciation of this, the National Government appointed Chang Hsueh-liang Vice-Commander-in-Chief of the National Army, Navy and Air Forces.

In 1931, Chang Hsueh-liang moved his headquarters to Peking and during his absence, all his influence in Manchuria was overthrown following the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident on September 18, 1931.

Founding of Manchoukuo The effort directed at restoring peace and order as the Chang Hsueh-liang government was driven out of Mukden by the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident first materialized in the Committee for Preservation of Local Peace and Order organized at Mukden. This soon led to the organization of the independent government of Fengtien province, the example of which was followed by Kirin and Heilungkiang provinces. Later, an Administrative Committee composed of members coming from various provinces was organized and preparations for establishment of the new state were made.

On February 18, 1932 the Committee fulfilled its first duty by announcing the declaration of the establishment of an independent state and appointing a standing committee of seven members for discussing various detailed problems. The fundamental principles of the new state as announced by the com-

mittee on February 25 are as follows: the new state to be called Manchoukuo; the ruler to be called Chief Executive; the flag to be a five-coloured one; the new era to be called Tatung; and the capital to be Changchun, which later came to be called Hsinking.

Mr. Pu Yi, who was formally elected Chief Executive by the Administrative Committee, took office on March 9. The law regulating the organization of the government and the law guaranteeing personal rights were promulgated on the same day. On the following day, Cheng Hsiao-hsu, Prime Minister, and other high officials were appointed.

At the request of the people of Manchoukuo, who appreciated and enjoyed the benevolent administration of the new régime under His Excellency Pu Yi, many of their leaders in Mukden and other principal cities and towns petitioned for his enthronement as Emperor of Manchoukuo in the beginning of 1934. This was accepted, and the Chief Executive was formally enthroned on March 1, 1934, the second anniversary of the founding of Manchoukuo. The state was thereafter called Manchoutikuo, which means the the Empire of Manchuria, the Chief Executive the Emperor Kangtê, and the new era Kangtê.

Japan in Manchuria Japan's close relation with Manchuria began with the Sino-Japanese War of 1894–95. The actual invasion of Manchuria by Russia, which was active in that region since 1858, came after the Three Powers' intervention in 1895, which wrested from Japan Liaotung Peninsula, a territory acquired by Japan as a fruit of the War. This was but the beginning of unrestrained activities of Russia in Manchuria. She established the Russo-Chinese Bank with a capital of 15,000,000 roubles, which was followed by acquisition of right from China to build the Chinese Eastern Railway through Kirin and Heilungkiang provinces, together with the right to operate mines in these two provinces.

In March, 1898 Russia acquired a twenty-five years' lease of Liaotung Peninsula, which included the right to construct a railway from a point on the Chinese Eastern Railway down to Port Arthur. This railway line was completed in 1902.

Moreover, Russia took advantage of the Boxer Uprising in 1900 and despatched troops to many important places in Manchuria. These troops Russia refused to withdraw, in spite of her promise to do so after the suppression of the uprising, and concentrated her forces on the Korean border, thus obviously menacing the safety of Japan through Korea.

All these were sufficient to lead to the Russo-Japanese War of 1904–05, in which Japan was victorious. By the Treaty of Portsmouth, Russia transferred to Japan the lease of Kwantung province and all rights, privileges and concessions connected with or forming part of this lease. The Treaty also provided for Russia's transfer to Japan of the railway between Changchun and Port Arthur and all its branch lines, together with all rights, privileges and properties appertaining thereto.

What are known as the special rights and interests of Japan in Manchuria are mainly based on the Treaty of Portsmouth and also on the terms of loans advanced to China for the construction of railways, as well as several other agreements.

Government

Manchoukuo abrogated, with the accession to the throne of the Emperor on March 1, 1934, the Organic Law, which was in force since 1932, and promulgated on the same day the new "Organic Law of Government", which may be taken as provisional constitution. According to the new Law, the Emperor exercises all the executive powers with the assistance of the Privy Council, which may advise him on important state affairs.

The governmental power of the state is divided into four and vested in Executive, Legislative, Judicial and Supervisory Yuans.

The Executive Yuan, which corresponds to the cabinets of other countries, is headed by the Premier and comprises the various Ministers of State respectively heading the Home Affairs, the Foreign Affairs, the Defence, the Finance, the Industry, the Communications, the Justice, the Education, the Imperial Household and the Mongolian Affairs departments.

The legislative power is vested in the Legislative Yuan, whose approval is necessary for all laws and revenue enactments, while the Supervisory Yuan supervises the conduct of officials and audits their accounts. The members of the Council may not be dismissed except for criminal offence or as disciplinary punishment, and may not be subjected to suspension or transfer of office, or reduction of salary, against their will.

The personnel of the Manchoukuo Government, in 1936, includes the following:

Privy Councillors:
Tsung Shih-yi (president).
Kuei Fu, T. Tsukushi,
H. Tanabe, H. Yada.
Hu Ssu-yen, Shen Jui-lin, Chi-mo-te-sai-mu-pei-lo
State Affairs Yuan (Executive Yuan):
Prime Minister—General Chang Ching-hui
Home Minister—Sun Chi-chang
Finance Minister—Han Yun-kai
Foreign Minister—General Chang Ching-hui
Defence Minister—General Yu Chih-shan
Industry Minister—Lu Jun-huan
Communications Minister—Li-Shao-keng
Education Minister—Yuan Chen-tse
Justice Minister—Chang Kuan-hsiang
Imperial Household Minister—Hsi chia
Mongolian Affairs Minister—General Chang Ching-hui
Legislative Yuan
President, vacant

Preparations had been made to effect fundamental revisions in the system of local administration and the four provinces of Fengtien, Kirin, Heilungkiang, and Jehol were reorganized into ten new administrative provinces, and the new system became effective on December 1, 1934. At the same time a new Department known as the Mongolian Affairs Department was formally inaugurated, and the four sub-provincial governments of Hsingan Province were left unchanged. The names of provinces and their governors in March, 1936, follow :

Provinces	Governors
Fengtien	Pao Kang
Kirin	Li Ming-shu
Pinkiang	Yen Chunang-fu
Lungkiang	Chin Pi-tung
Chinchou	Hsu Shao-ching
Antung	Wang Tsu-tung
Jehol	Liu Meng-keng
Sankiang	Chin Ming-shih
Chientao	Tsai Yun-sheng
Heiho	Chung Yu
Hsingan, Eastern Division	E-lei-chun
„ Southern „	Chang Cheuh
„ Western „	Cha-ko-erh
„ Northern „	Ling Sheng

Changes of Government System

Thorough reform of the administrative machinery of the Manchoukuo Government was announced on May 8, 1937, and went into force on July 1 of the same year. It was designed to increase the efficiency of administration and to prepare for further national development. Under the new plan, the Legislative and Supervisory Councils and the six Ministries—of Foreign Affairs, Defence, Civil Affairs, Finance, Industry and Mongol Affairs—were abolished. The Premier became the only State Minister. The remaining Ministries are placed under his direct control.

In place of the six Ministries abolished, four new Ministries, namely, Public Peace, Civil Life, General Industry and Economic Affairs, were established, while two new bureaux were established to deal with foreign affairs and matters relating to Khingan Province respectively. An auditing bureau also was established to replace the Supervisory council. The director of the new office, which came under the direct control of the Premier, is to report to the Premier on the result of auditing every fiscal year.

As the focal points of the administrative reform, the General Affairs Board of the State Council is strengthened and the president is entrusted with the task of assisting the Premier in State affairs. The present system of advisers of State affairs was abolished.

Under the reform plan, the Premier is held directly responsible for the administration of foreign affairs, direction of general affairs relating to local administrative organization and the supervision of local administrators, including governors of the sub-provinces of Hsingan. The heads of the Ministries are to supervise local administrators in regard to matters which come under their respective jurisdictions.

To deal with foreign affairs, the new foreign affairs bureau was created, while the home affairs bureau, also created, is entrusted with the general instruction of local administrative bodies and the supervision of local administrators.

The home affairs bureau consists of a secretariat, control section and supervision section.

Directors of the foreign affairs bureau and the home affairs bureau came under direct control of the Premier, while the president of the General Affairs Board, in the capacity of chief aide to the Minister of State, is practically in a position to exercise control over the affairs of these bureaux.

Under the presidency of the Premier, is created a Planning Council, which is divided into three committees to deal with economic affairs, educa-

tion and the promotion of people's welfare respectively. In these committees, fundamental questions relating to these subjects will be discussed by experts to help the Premier establish national policies.

Into the new Public Peace Ministry was incorporated the War Ministry and the police section of the Civil Affairs Ministry. Its head office is divided into a secretariat and staff, military affairs and police sections. The staff section is to deal with the command and training of the army as well as co-operation between the army and police.

The offices of War Minister and chiefs of the staff and military affairs sections are taken up exclusively by military officers, while civil officials are appointed vice-chiefs of these two sections and director of the police section. All sectional vice-chiefs are prohibited from taking part in matters relating to the command of the army.

The Manchoukuo army is reorganized and divided into two classes, namely, one held responsible for national defence, and the other is called "police army," which is entrusted with the maintenance of peace and order in various parts of the country. The former is requested to assist the latter in the maintenance of peace and order at home.

All local administrators are empowered to call out units of the army whenever they find it necessary to do so in order to maintain order in their respective administrative districts.

All the advisers to the War Office are to carry on as advisers to the Manchoukuo army for the time being. The existing route police forces are reorganized into the special railway police forces, which come under direct supervision of the Minister of Public Peace.

The new Hsingan bureau is to deal with all Mongolian affairs, and its director is requested to assist the Premier in connection with the administration of Mongolian tribes and also in co-ordinating Mongolian affairs. The director is automatically entitled to participate in a meeting of the State Council.

The Civil Welfare Ministry is to take charge of education, social welfare, insurance and other fields involving the stabilization of national livelihood, while the new General Industry Ministry is entrusted with the task of preserving and developing national strength as well as the exploitation, utilization and conservation of natural resources for the purpose of replenishment of national defence.

All economic administration necessary for or incidental to the exploitation and utilization as well as conservation of natural resources is undertaken by the Economic Affairs Ministry, which is to consist of the commercial, taxation and financial sections, in addition to a secretariat.

While all the existing focal administrative organizations are reorganized so as to best adapt themselves to prevailing conditions in the respective localities, efforts will be made by the Government to strengthen local autonomous administration.

The main object of the present reform programme is to harmonize all the races living in the country, to disseminate the common spirit and virtue underlying the rapprochement between Japan and Manchoukuo, and to effect the healthy development of the rising State. The salient features of the present administrative reform plans may be summed up as follows :

1. A substantial simplification of the whole administrative machinery will be effected, with strengthening of the system of unified control over the planning and operation of all the departments in the Government in order to promote the efficiency of the State administration.

2. To establish stricter peace and order promptly, all the organizations in this regard will be co-ordinated and unified under a single authority, while consideration will also be given to the regulation of local military and police forces and the general administration.

3. Specific attention will be paid to facilitating the execution of the five-year industrial development programme with the formula of controlling staple industries in the country be consolidated.

4. For the purpose of elevating the public spirit, cultivating national power and developing agrarian communities, all the organs relating to the respective administrations will be unified and strengthened rationally.

5. Steps will be taken to effect a closer co-ordination of the Central and local governments, while the local administrative organs will be replenished and strengthened so as to break the tendencies of standardization.

6. Efforts will be made to replete the substance of the local administrations as organic and combined organizations in the lines of politics, culture and economics, as well as to encourage the

development of local autonomy.

General Chang Ching-hui remains as Premier. Important appointments in the central and district governments include the following :

Mr. Han Yun-chieh, Minister of the Department of Finance, is Minister of the Department of Economy.

Mr. Lu Jung-huan, Minister of the Department of Industry, is the Minister of Industries.

Mr. Sun Chi-chang, Minister of the Department of Civil Affairs, is the Minister of Civil Life.

General Yu Chieh-shan, Minister of the Department of Defense, is the Minister of Peace Preservation.

Mr. Chang Huan-siang retains the post of Minister of Justice.

Mr. Li Shao-keng retains the post of the Minister of Communications.

Mr. Naoki Hoshino, chief of the General Affairs Board of the State Council, became director of general affairs.

Simultaneously with the renovation of the central government, two new provinces were formed. Tunghwa Province includes parts of Antung and Fengtien Provinces, while Mutanchiang Province is formed from part of Pinchiang Province.

Provincial officials under the reorganization include the following :

General Yen Chuan-fa, Governor of Pinchiang Province, became the Governor of Kirin Province.

General Chin Ming-shih, Governor of Sanchiang Province, became Governor of Jehol Province.

Mr. Shih Li-pen, mayor of the Special Municipality of Harbin, became the Governor of Pinchiang Province.

Mr. Wang Tzu-tung, Governor of Antung Province, became the Governor of Chinchow Province.

Mr. Huang Fu-shun, chief of the board of district affairs of the Department of Civil Affairs, became Governor of Antung Province.

General Yu Shen-chang, commander of the 1st Army District, became the Governor of Sanchiang Province.

Mr. Hsu Kuei-heng, chief of the civil affairs bureau of Antung Province, became the Governor of Heiho Province.

Mr. Lu Yi-wen, secretary of the Premier, became the Governor of Tunghua Province.

Mr. Rikutaro Oshima, chief of the police board of the Department of Civil Affairs, became the Governor of Mutanchiang Province.

General Elochun, Governor of Hsingan East Province, remains in office.

General Jumeiah, Governor of Hsingan South Province, retains his office.

General Nolakachapu, chief of the civil bureau of Hsingan West Province, became Governor of Hsingan West Province.

General Erkinpato, Governor of Hsingan North Province, remains in office.

Mr. Hsu Shao-ching, Governor of Chinchow Province, became mayor of Hsinking Special Municipality.

Mr. Wei Huan-tsang, chief of the educational bureau of Fengtien Province, became the mayor of Harbin Special Municipality.

Mr. Amiichi Ebara, chief of the general affairs bureau of Harbin Special Municipality, became mayor of Harbin.

The Manchoukuo Condordia Society

This is one of the national organizations of Manchoukuo Empire and also organization for Manchurians for achievement of ideals of the foundation of Manchoukuo by the hands of Manchurians. It is known by Manchoukuo name Hieh Hu Hui. Since its establishment on July 25, 1932, it has spread its influence to various parts of the Empire. Its members consist of people of all walks of life, Government officials, the military, tradesmen, farmers, labourers and others. Its headquarters are in Hsinking with 74 main branches and 1,987 sub-branches. The number of members at the end of September, 1936, was 439,728. The president is Premier of Manchoukuo, its vice-president is Minister of Industry, honorary adviser is Commander of the Kwantung Army and its adviser is Chief of Staff of the same army.

Manchoukuo Five-Year Plan

Approximately ¥2,353,000,000 is estimated to be necessary to carry out Manchoukuo's five-year industrial plan. The plan was filed with the Manchurian Affairs Bureau of the Cabinet, the Finance Ministry and other Japanese Government institutions. The South Manchuria Railway Company is charged with raising ¥900,000,000, the Manchoukuo Government ¥700,000, special companies in Manchoukuo ¥260,000,000, private companies ¥340,000,000 and the Industrial Bank of Manchou ¥100,000,000. Details follow :

IRON AND STEEL

	Goal of increased production (1,000 met. tons)	Present production	Money needed for the Plan (¥1,000)
Steel	2,250	580	88,500
Pig iron	2,400	850	108,500
Ore	6,600	2,700	31,440
Total	11,250	4,130	228,440

FUEL OIL

Fushun liquefaction	100	—	73,000
Fuhsin „	200	—	100,000
Hsulan „	150	—	50,000
Ssupingkai „	50	14	18,000
Shale oil, Fushun	500	140	36,900
Shale oil, Sanshin	300	—	81,900
Alcohol	56	6	13,000
Total	1,356	159	317,300

COAL

Black coal	24,600	11,700	140,110
Brown coal	900	—	9,900
Total	25,500	11,700	150,010

POWER

	(k.w.)	(k.w.)	
Water power	350,000	—	—
Steam	850,000	420,000	—
Total	1,200,000	420,000	214,500

ROLLING STOCK

Locomotives, pasenger cars and freight cars	—	—	27,813

MISCELLANEOUS

	(m. tons)		
Aluminium	20,000	—	38,000
Magnesium	200	—	560
Pulp	120	60	15,000
Salt	875	275	15,750
	(Yen)		
Gold mining	20,000,000	—	50,000
Soda ash	72	36	4,000
Asbestos	5	—	500
Lead	124	22	4,800
Meat	50	—	7,000
Automobiles	4,000	—	20,000

Armaments Manufacture of war supplies, including tanks, will be increased to five times the present amount with an estimated expenditure of ¥100,000,000.

Aviation Manufacture of 240 planes a year is the goal. For this, ¥30,000,000 is appropriated.

Expenditures for the above enterprises total ¥1,223,673,000.

Agricultural Production A total expenditure of ¥122,194,000 is required to increase agricultural production.

Stock Breeding Expenditure of ¥7,500,000 needed for the five-year stock-

breeding plan.

The cost of all the above enterprises totals ¥1,353,367,000, plus ¥1,000,000,000 for transportation expenditures.

National Defence

History The Manchurian army has its origin in the Liian army which rendered great services in founding the Ching dynasty. They were since then hereditary and were garrisoned in various important points. After the Chinese Revolution of 1911 the army was modernized, and in Manchuria, there were stationed two divisions of the 27th and 28th numbering from 30,000 to 40,000. When Chang Tso-lin came into power, he increased it to 200,000, which was again increased by his son to 260,000 regulars with an additional 100,000 held as provisional forces. There was kept also a small fleet of 7 gunboats to protect trade carried on the rivers. These were the military forces in service under Chang Hsueh-liang at the time of the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident.

Present Status The army and navy of the empire is under the supreme command of the Emperor, and is garrisoned in defence of particular districts prescribed by the Emperor.

The Defence Department of Manchoukuo combines both services of army and navy having the following bureaux and sections :

(1) Staff Bureau, (2) Supplies Bureau, (3) General Affairs Section, (4) Justice Section, (5) Personnel Section, (6) Survey Section, (7) Accounting Section, (8) Auditing, (9) Naval Administration, and (10) Armaments Section.

Besides there are the Military Advisory Board, where a number of Japanese officers are engaged who direct the military administration and the Investigation Board which engage in the investigations into the subjects of military affairs and also in propaganda.

The military forces at various points are :

1. The Imperial Guards
2. The Seian Force
3. The Flying Corps
4. The Gendarmerie Corps
5. 1st Brigade in command of 1st military district
   2nd „ „ „ „ 2nd „ „
   3rd „ „ „ „ 3rd „ „
   4th „ „ „ „ 4th „ „
   5th „ „ „ „ 5th „ „
6. Kirin army
7. Heilungkiang army

The army numbers 80,000. As to the coastal and river defence, the country maintains 11 gunboats and 4 other vessels.

Foreign Relations

With Japan (1) Recognition by Japan. Japan is the only country with which Manchoukuo is exchanging envoys. Her relation with Japan is defined in the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol signed on September 15, 1932, between the two countries at Hsinking, providing for their mutual defence. (See p. 205) The document is also notable for the fact that by virtue of it, Japan accorded recognition de jure to the new state far ahead of other nations.

(2) Emperor Kangtê's visit to Japan. In June, 1934, Prince Chichibu was sent to the Empire to convey the Imperial Message of Congratulation to the Emperor and Empress of the new state. In return for this, the Emperor Kangtê paid a visit to Japan, arriving in Tokyo on April 6, 1935, and made a formal call on the Emperor of Japan on the same day. He stayed till April 24.

(3) Abolition of Extraterritorial Privileges. Manchoukuo has confirmed, by the Japan-Manchoukuo protocol, the extraterritorial privileges which Japan had been enjoying under treaties with China. But the development and progress of the country, since its founding, in all branches of administrative system, which are connected with extraterritoriality, for instance, in judicial, police and taxation systems have been noteworthy. In fact more than ¥8,000,000 was set up for the reform of these systems in the budget for 1934. Accordingly Japan decided to give up the rights of extraterritoriality and obtained the Imperial sanction for doing so on August 9, 1935. It was decided in principle, but the actual abolition is to be effected in gradual stages and in accord with the reform of the governmental systems and organs of Manchoukuo.

The Government is exerting full efforts, according to the report published on January 19, 1936, to draw up laws in connection with Japanese industrial activities in Manchoukuo, to make improvements in the tax system and tax offices, to readjust and complete the police system, to institute modern judicial procedure in the country and to effect improvements in special local and supreme courts in city districts, and to make preparations for having communications business transferred to the Manchoukuo Government which hitherto has been carried out by Japanese post and telegraph offices in Kwantung

province and the South Manchuria Railway Zone. A joint committee of the representatives of both Governments had been making studies as to the scope and adequate date for the abolition of the extraterritoriality and the treaty between Japan and Manchoukuo concerning the residence of Japanese subjects, taxation, etc. was signed at Hsinking, June 10, 1936, which is to come into force on July 1, 1936. (The treaty is given in full in the Appendix.)

(4) Japan-Manchoukuo Economic Agreement. The agreement regarding the establishment of a joint Japanese-Manchoukuo economic commission was signed on July 15, 1935, at Hsinking by General Jirō Minami, Ambassador to Manchoukuo and commander of the Kwantung Army, and Mr. Chang Yen-ching, Foreign Minister of Manchoukuo. The object of the agreement is to extend to the economic field the inseparable relations between Japan and Manchoukuo that already exist in the defence and diplomatic fields and to accelerate the formation of the economic bloc between the two countries.

(5) Establishment of Custom-houses at Korean frontier. The Japanese- Manchoukuo agreement for the establishment of the Manchoukuo custom-houses at the three northern Korean ports and on the frontier bordered by the Tumen River along the Hsingking-Tumen River was signed on May 22, 1935 at the Foreign Office of Manchoukuo by General Jirō Minami, Ambassador to Manchoukuo and Mr. Chang Yen-ching, Foreign Minister of Manchoukuo.

(6) Conclusion of Postal Treaty. With the formalities as to the conclusion of the postal treaty between the two countries completed the Postal Treaty was signed on December 26, 1935, and was put in force as from January 26, 1936.

(7) Lease of Land. Though there was a provision as to the right of the Japanese to lease land in southern Manchuria, nothing of the kind existed as regards northern Manchuria, and the subject of extending the right of the Japanese to the north had been discussed ever since the establishment of Manchoukuo. The matter had been carefully studied between the two countries and the result of the study was published on December 30, 1934 as a preliminary arrangement. According to this arrangement, the right of the Japanese to lease land in southern Manchuria would be extended to the north, which will be soon invalidated by a treaty between the two countries in due course.

With the League of Nations In regard to the issue of the Sino-Japanese dispute at the League of Nations, Manchoukuo was concerned only indirectly as it is not a member of the Geneva organization. During the Council and the Assembly meetings of the League at which the problem was discussed, late in 1932 and early in 1933, General Ting Shih-yuan, who was later appointed Manchoukuo Minister to Japan, stayed in Geneva as a personal representative of the then Chief Executive, now the Emperor Kangtê. With the assistance of a few advisers he presented the case of his country on several occasions to the League of Nations through the Japanese delegation, and otherwise made efforts, though without avail, to influence those attending the League meetings in favour of his country.

With Soviet Russia (1) Purchase of N.M.R. In view of ceaseless troubles concerning the North Manchuria Railway, Soviet Russia proposed to Manchoukuo to dispose of the railway. The first conference was opened at Tokyo in June, 1933, between the representatives of Manchoukuo and Soviet Russia with a few Japanese officials attending the parley. On account of the great disparity of opinions as to the value of the railway the conference had not proceeded smoothly until, at last through the mediation of Mr. Hirota, then Foreign Minister of Japan, Soviet Russia finally came to agree on March 23, 1935 to transfer the railway to Manchoukuo at ¥140,000,000. (See Appendix.)

With Great Britain and the U. S. A. The Manchoukuo Government decided to make the Petroleum Monopoly Law effective as from April 10, 1935. The governments of Great Britian and America protested against Japan stating that the above law infringes the principles of the Open Door and Equal Opportunity established by the Nine-Power Treaty. The Japanese Government replied that it was an independent action of the state of Manchoukuo, and that Japan could do nothing with it. The reason of the protest of the British and American Governments was that the capital invested in petroleum in Manchoukuo by their nationals would be practically expelled from the country by the coming into force of this law. But the Manchoukuo Government had to issue this law to effectuate the control of its principal industries which were absolutely necessary for her development, with no aim to expel foreign capital.

With China (1) Postal and Railway Business. Manchoukuo, when she proclaimed her independence on March 1,

1932, notified China that her relation with the latter would be the same as with any other power, and declared that she would take over the business of postal service on the 20th of the same month. The country made new stamps and post cards, and had actually taken over the postal business on July 25, 1932. Matters in connexion with the revival of the postal business which had been pending between Manchoukuo and China were satisfactorily settled and ordinary mail service was opened between the countries as from January 10, 1935, and that on money order and parcels as from February 1. As regards cables the negotiation came to a satisfactory conclusion on October 17, 1935. As to the collection of customs duties, the business was also taken over by the Manchoukuo Government on September 25.

The question of railway, which was another important problem, came to a satisfactory solution on June 28, 1934, and the railway connection which had been severed for 2 years and 9 months since the occurrence of the Manchurian Incident was restored. Since July 1, 1934, one train each from Peiping and Mukden is being despatched every day.

(2) Exchange of Amity Commissions. The East Hopei régime decided to enter into formal relation with Manchoukuo. A goodwill commission was sent by the East Hopei Anti-Communist and Autonomous Government headed by Chih Tsung-mo which formally presented to Foreign Minister Chang Yen-ching of Manchoukuo a personal letter from Mr. Yin Ju-keng, chairman of the Tungchow Council, voicing a desire for friendship and amity with Manchoukuo. The commission was received in audience by the Emperor Kangtê on the 17th. In return the Manchoukuo Government despatched an amity mission of six headed by Mr. Kao Chung-lu which delivered a letter of amity signed by Foreign Minister Chung Yen-ching to chief Executive Yin Ju-keng on May 18.

According to the statement of the chairman of the East Hopei régime, the Government expects to conclude a treaty of friendship with Manchoukuo and the negotiation with the latter country would then be made direct by the new régime.

With Germany The German economic mission to East Asia headed by Dr. Otto Carl Kiep arrived at Hsingking on February 32, 1935. Since then the commission made a study of economic conditions in Manchoukuo, and later proceeded to Tokyo to take up the subject of concluding a treaty with Manchoukuo through the intermediation of Japan. As the result an announcement of the conclusion of a German-Manchoukuo trade agreement was made by the Manchoukuo Embassy on May 1, which was signed on April 30.

Diplomatic Relations with Dominica On August 16, 1934, the President of Dominica presented his autograph letter to the Emperor of Manchoukuo through the Foreign Office of that country, in return for which the Emperor sent his dated January 21, 1935, to the President. The Foreign Minister of the Republic therefore sent a letter of appreciation to the Emperor through the Foreign Office of Manchoukuo, and in this manner diplomatic relations between the two countries have been established.

Recognition by Salvador On March 3, 1934, the Republic of Salvador declared that she would recognize Manchoukuo as an independent state.

With the Holy See Under date of April 18, 1934, the Holy See notified the Manchoukuo Government of its decision to form a separate mission field in Manchoukuo, independent from that of China, and appointed the Rt. Rev. Bishop A. Gaspais as Acting Apostolic Delegate in Manchoukuo with the intention to contribute to the moral and intellectual development of the country according to the disposition of the Manchoukuo authorities. This notice was confirmed on August of the same year by His Eminence Pierre Cardinal Fumasoni-Biondi, prefet de la S. Congregation de la Propagande.

Passport Visé Meanwhile, the Department of Foreign Affairs of Manchoukuo assiduously endeavoured to pave the way for the opening of diplomatic relations with European and American countries, and promulgated new regulations governing the granting of passports and their visés effective June 1, 1933, and otherwise took steps to provide travelling facilities for foreigners.

Simultaneously with the enforcement of the new regulations, the Manchoukuo Foreign Office opened four passport offices in Antung, Dairen, Yingkow and Suifeng on June 1 to which Shanhaikwan, Manchuli, Tumen, Heiho and Kupeikou were added later, pursuant to the stipulations of the said regulation. Between June 1, 1933 and September 30, 1934, a total of 11,395 passports of foreigners entering or passing through the country were examined and viséd, an average of 950 a month.

Manchoukuo Consulates Another event worth mentioning in connection with Manchoukuo's foreign relations

was the opening of the Manchoukuo consulate at Blagoveschensk, the first consulate to be established in a foreign country by the new nation, late in September, 1932. Mr. Kuei Heng-chin was appointed in charge of this consulate.

The number of Manchoukuo residents in Blagoveschensk, which is a Soviet city located near the Siberian border on the bank of the Amur River on the opposite side to Heiho, a Manchoukuo town, is approximately 7,000, most of them being engaged in the retail business.

Manchoukuo's second consulate in Soviet Russia was opened at Chita in January, 1933, the staff being headed by Mr. Li Yuan as consul.

Also the consulate at Shingishu, Korea, the first of the kind to be established in the Japanese Empire, was opened on November 9, 1934.

Exchange of Ambassadors The recognition of Manchoukuo by Japan on September 15, 1932, was acknowledged by the despatch of Pao Kuan-cheng to Japan by the Manchoukuo Government, to stay in Tokyo as Manchoukuo's representative, towards the end of the same month, and later by the visit to Tokyo by the Foreign Minister of Manchoukuo, Hsieh Chieh-shih, in November, 1932.

Meanwhile General Nobuyoshi Muto, commander of the Kwantung army, ambassador to Manchoukuo and governor of the Kwantung Leased Territory, who signed the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol on September 15, 1932, presented his credentials as ambassador to the Chief Executive of the country.

This was followed by the arrival of General Ting Shih-yuan on May 10 in Tokyo as the first Manchoukuo Minister to Japan. Meanwhile Manchoukuo desired to elevate the legation at Tokyo to the status of an embassy in view of the increasing importance of her relation with Japan, which was endorsed by Japan on May 21, 1935. The first ambassador of Manchoukuo to Japan was Mr. Hsieh Chieh-shih, the former minister of Foreign Affairs.

Shortly after the conclusion of the Jehol expedition, Marshal Muto, to which rank he was promoted, fell ill in Hsinking and died on July 27. He was succeeded at his post by General Takashi Hishikari, and then by General Jirō Minami. The latter resigned and the post has been taken by General Kenkichi Uyeda in March, 1936.

Diplomatic Representations Japan is the only nation which has an embassy in Manchoukuo. Consulates established by Japan and other powers in that country and their locations follow:

Japanese Embassy at Hsinking.
Japanese Consulates-General at Hsinking, Mukden, Harbin, Kirin and Lungchingtsun.
Japanese Consulates at Antung, Yingkow, Tsitsihar, Paitsokuo, Chihfeng, Tunghua, Hailung, Taolu, Hunchun, Manchouli, Chengchiatun, Toutaokou, Chinchow, Hsinminfu, Hailar, Suifenho, Yenki, Tumen, Tunhua and Chengtê.
British Consulates-General at Mukden and Harbin.
British Consulate at Yingkow.
American Consulates-General at Mukden and Harbin.
French Consulates at Mukden and Harbin.
U.S.S.R. Consulates-General at Mukden and Harbin.
U.S.S.R. Consulates at Tsitsihar, Heiho, Suifenho and Manchouli.
German Consulates at Mukden and Harbin.
Italian Consulate at Harbin.
Dutch Consulates at Harbin and Yingkow.
Belgian Consulate at Harbin.
Danish Consulate at Harbin.
Norwegian Consulate at Yingkow.
Polish Consulate at Harbin.
Czechoslovak Consulate at Harbin.
Portuguese Consulate at Harbin

At Dairen, Kwantung Leased Territory

American Consulate
British Consulate
U.S.S.R. Consulate
German Consulate
French Consulate
Dutch Consulate
Swedish Consulate
Finnish Consulate
Belgian Consulate
Estonian Consulate
Norwegian Consulate

Finance

While the finance under Chang Tso-ling was comparatively sound in his earlier administration, the expenditure commenced to increase steadily due to his army being enlarged in latter days. Thus in 1926, the total expenditure was ¥120,000,000 and showed a budgetary deficit of ¥12,000,000. When he was succeeded by his son, Chang Hsueh-liang, the deficit was further increased. The recklessness of his finance was evidenced by the fact that, of the total expenditure of ¥142,500,000, the sum defrayed for the military purpose amounted to ¥114,720,000. The deficit thus creatd was

met by increased taxes and inflation of currency, thereby causing the people great misery.

In view of the deplorable state of affairs, as above stated, the leaders of Manchoukuo directed their efforts for the stabilization of the financial conditions of the country without increasing tax economic pressure on the people. It is much to the credit of the new state that such a rapid and sound development has been made in finance and currency in so short a time.

Manchoukuo's national budgets since its foundation follow :

MANCHOUKUO'S NATIONAL BUDGET

(In M¥1,000)

Fiscal Years	Revenue			Expenditure		
	Ordinary	Extra-ordinary	Total	Ordinary	Extra-ordinary	Total
1932-33	97,386	15,922	113,308	104,482	8,826	113,308
1933-34	132,134	17,035	149,169	107,449	41,720	149,169
1934-35	163,321	25,404	188,725	131,662	57,063	188,725
1935-36	88,605	16,392	104,993	62,917	42,081	104,993
1936-37	193,234	26,170	219,405	134,322	85,082	219,405

Manchoukuo Budget for 1937 The Manchoukuo Government's budget for the fourth fiscal year of Kangtê covering the period from January 1 to December 31, 1937, which had been approved by the Privy Council on December 24 last, was published in the Official Gazette of the 26th of the same month.

The new budget, exclusive of the Special Accounts, shows, as compared with that of previous fiscal year, an increase of M¥28,693,760 in both revenues and expenditures (an increase of M¥18,-397,748 in ordinary revenues and M¥ 10,-296,012 in extraordinary revenues ; a decrease of M¥15,210,367 in ordinary expenditures and an increase of M¥43,-904,127 in extraordinary expenditures).

Increases in revenue estimates are attributable mainly to increases in tax revenue estimates amounting to M¥15,-100,000 (it may be noted that the previous fiscal year's tax revenue estimates contained M¥23,848,000 from the salt gabelle, whose estimated revenue for the current fiscal year has been included in the monopoly profits owing to the inauguration of the Salt Monopoly), in the monopoly profits amounting to M¥4,-600,000 (revenues formerly classified as Salt gabelle and the Salt Transportation Office profits have been included in the monopoly profits for the reason stated above), and in the amount brought from the Special Accounts, amounting to M¥8,000,000 including an increase of M¥ 5,000,000 in receipts from bond issue.

New special accounts have been created, namely, the Hydro-Electric Power Enterprise Construction Account for financing the construction work of the projected hydro-electric power plant on the Second Sungari, the Horse Race Account, the Prison Account for effecting improvement in the system of criminal administration, and the State Loans Account, while on the other hand the former Opium Monopoly, Oil Monopoly and Salt Transportation Office Accounts have been unified into the Monopoly Enterprises Account and the Sinking Fund Account and the Adjustment Fund for Old Loans secured on Customs Duties and Salt Gabelle Account have been merged into the Loan Adjustment Fund Account.

Loans to be raised during the current fiscal year total M¥151,398,000, of which the sums M¥15,000,000, M¥83,500,-000, M¥40,663,000 M¥3,150,000 and M¥9,-085,000 are to be alloted, respectively, to the General Accounts, the Investments Special Account, the Railway Loans Special Account, the Hydro-Electric Power Enterprise Construction Special Account and other working funds.

A characteristic feature of the new budget is that, though the traditional policy of conservative and sound finance has been adhered to in financing the general governmental outlays, the floatation of a domestic loan amounting to M¥15,000,000 is projected to finance undertakings for the promotion of the people's welfare such as building of state highways or other public works. Furthermore, in regard to various development works to be financed in the Investments Special Account, the outlays for which are to be met by floating loans in Japan, not only has a source of revenue been secured for the redemption of such loans, but care has also been taken not to allow any hitch to occur in their financing, by restricting

disbursement from that Account to enterprises which offer ample possibilities of immediate gains only, making those outlays which promise no interest, such as the investments in the Manchuria Air Transport Company and the Manchuria Colonization Company or loans to be advanced to the credit associations without interest, fall on the General Accounts.

Of the amount of loans to be raised during the current fiscal year, M¥83,500,000 for the Investments Special Account and M¥3,150,000 for the Hydro-Electric Power Enterprise Construction Special Account may be considered the sums to be invested by the Government in enterprises under the so-called Industrial Five-Year Plan, but as part of the Sinking Fund amounting to M¥52,000,000 may be utilized to this end, the final amount of loans to be floated in Japan for the Five-Year Plan will be something between M¥60,000,000 and 70,000,000 this year. The sum of M¥3,150,000 appropriated for the hydro-electric power enterprise construction is the first yearly instalment of the total outlay of M¥47,300,000 for the undertaking, which is to be spread over five years.

It is noteworthy that in the new budget reductions in taxes and duties have been set down to the amount of M¥8,000,000 with a view to lightening the people's burdens. This comprises roughly M¥4,100,000 reduced by the inauguration of the salt monopoly, M¥2,210,000 and M¥300,000 by the restoration of the live-stock tax and the slaughtering tax to the revenues of the provincial governments, M¥700,000 by the revision of the stamp duty and M¥750,000 by the abolition of Shui-Kiang Chuan (river conservancy tax).

The figures of the new budget are as follows :

GENERAL ACCOUNTS BUDGET FOR 1937

Revenue Estimates

Jurisdiction	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total
General Affairs Board	30,330	25,933,904	25,964,324
Dept. of Civil Affairs	11,141,911	477,919	1,619,830
Dept. of Defence	67,929	1,434,836	1,502,765
Dept. of Finance	208,201,633	6,242,631	214,444,264
Dept. of Industry	93,346	2,330,076	2,423,422
Dept. of Communications	1,564,670	2,000	1,566,670
Dept. of Justice	202,746	27,100	229,846
Dept. of Education	95,415	8,400	103,815
Dept. of Mongolia Administration	233,824	10,000	243,824
Total	211,631,804	36,466,956	248,098,760

REVENUE ESTIMATES BY PRINCIPAL ITEMS

Items		Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total
Taxes and duties		153,029,000	—	153,029,000
Customs duties	89,658,000			
Internal taxes	63,371,000			
Stamp duty		9,097,032	—	9,097,032
Monopoly profits		44,367,752	—	44,367,752
Brought from Special Accounts		—	21,003,860	21,003,860
State Loans Acct.	15,000,000			
Horse Race Acct.	1,381,836			
State Properties Adjustment Fund Acct.	866,631			
Investments Acct.	1,525,000			
State Forestry Enterprise Acct.	2,230,393			
Surplus from previous year		—	10,415,944	10,415,944
Revenues from State industries and Other sources		5,138,020	5,047,152	10,185,172
Total		211,631,804	36,466,956	248,098,760

EXPENDITURES

Jurisdiction	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total
Imperial Household	2,100,000	—	2,100,000
General Affairs Board	10,210,659	28,655,170	38,865,829
Dept. of Civil Affairs	28,201,547	35,764,406	63,965,953
Dept. of Foreign Affairs	1,262,690	353,321	1,616,011
Dept. of Defence	43,210,197	36,959,944	80,170,141
Dept. of Finance	13,379,341	14,314,495	27,693,800
Dept. of Industry	3,427,544	5,080,955	8,508,499
Dept. of Communications	855,258	4,290,967	5,146,225
Dept. of Justice	8,890,882	1,105,989	9,996,871
Dept. of Education	4,807,553	890,372	5,697,925
Dept. of Mongolia Administration	2,766,772	1,570,734	4,337,506
Total	119,112,443	128,986,317	248,098,760

SPECIAL ACCOUNTS BUDGET FOR FOURTH FISCAL YEAR OF KANGTE (1937)

Revenues and Expenditures

Jurisdiction	Names of Accounts	Revenues	Expenditures
General Affairs Board	State Loans	110,735,000	110,735,000
	Loan Adjustment Fund	120,628,873	120,628,873
	Supplies	7,272,867	7,155,402
	Capital Const. Bureau	5,231,847	5,231,847
	Hydro-Electric Power Enterprise Construction	3,151,000	3,148,977
Dept. of Defence	Army Clothing Factory	4,622,600	4,757,930
	Arsenal	3,300,000	3,300,000
	Horse Race	2,673,823	1,310,933
Dept. of Finance	State Properties Adjustment Fund	5,010,995	4,144,364
	Investments	91,448,316	91,448,316
	Monopoly Enterprises	113,248,504	78,889,518
	Railway Loans	48,709,462	48,709,462
Dept. of Industry	State Forestry Enterprise	14,112,871	14,112,871
	Gold Refining Enterprise	1,500,000	1,500,000
Dept. of Communications	Postal Administration	5,898,249	5,898,249
Dept. of Justice	Prison	5,414,622	5,114,622
	Total	542,959,029	506,086,364

Government Monopolies As a means of lightening the tax burdens of the people and to suppress the smuggling of salt in the Korean border districts, the Government, since September, 1933, has reduced the price of salt in the Chientao district by sums ranging from M¥2.20 to M¥3.55 per picul. For the relief of the inhabitants of Kirin and Heilungkiang provinces who suffered greatly during the old régime, the authorities have cut down the salt tax and salt price by M¥1.00 per picul since March, 1934, although this has resulted in the decrease of the monopoly profits by M¥1,100,000.

The opium monopoly system has been instituted for the purpose of eliminating the evil practice of opium-smoking and controlling the smuggling of opium and the cultivation of poppy. The profits from the monopoly are set aside to cover the expenditures for the control, relief and education of the opium addicts.

National Loans and Sinking Fund Although the Government makes it a point not to float loans to cover any revenue deficit, the following national loans have been raised since the founding of the new régime :

	Domestic	Foreign
Loans	M¥61,825,250.00	G¥100,000,000.00
Cash Debts	39,246,452.46	18,290,000.00
Total	101,071,702.46	118,290,000.00

(A) Loans

1. Old Foreign Claims Liquidation Fund Loan M¥5,147,950.00
2. Shen-Hai, Hu-Hai, Tsi-Ko Railway expropriation Fund loan 11,928,000.00

3.	Loan for paying bonus to Customs staff	3,599,300.00
4.	Central Bank of Manchou loss compensation loan	33,000,000.00
5.	State founding bonus loan	8,150,000.00
	Total	61,825,250.00
1.	State founding loan	G¥30,000,000.00
2.	First enterprises loan	10,000,000.00
3.	First N.M.R. loan	30,000,000.00
4.	Second N.M.R. loan	30,000,000.00
	Total	100,000,000.00

(B) Cash Debts

1.	National Highways Construction Fund	M¥7,000,000.00
2.	Forestry Recovery Fund	1,689,526.70
3.	Capital Construction Fund	5,500,000.00
4.	State Founding Fund (Central Bank shares)	7,500,000.00
5.	Opium Monopoly Fund	2,600,000.00
6.	Cities Construction Fund	2,500,000.00
7.	Manchou Development Co. Investment Fund	3,000,000.00
8.	Harbin Electric Co. Investment Fund	9,456,925.76
	Total	39,246,452.46
1.	Debts from Bank of Chosen	G¥18,000,000.00
2.	State Highways Repairs Fund	290,000.00
	Total	18,290,000.00

In addition to the above, cash debts to the amount of M¥18,952,081.42 have been contracted by the provincial governments.

In conformity with the practice of preserving international good faith the Government has put aside a special sinking fund to meet its due share of foreign loans secured on the Chinese Maritime Customs and Salt Gabelle as follows :

1932	M¥13,386,192
1933	11,848,655
1934	6,420,000
Total	M¥31,654,847

Furthermore, the Government has since the 1933 fiscal year put aside a sum equivalent to ten per cent of the surplus of annual revenues as a sinking fund to cover the national loans in general. This fund at present totals M¥1,758,600.

Banking

General Prior to the founding of Manchoukuo and under the régime of the Chang family each of the Three Eastern Provinces had its central bank. Each of them took advantage of its note issuing power conferred on it. Especially the central bank in Fengtien province was almost reckless in the issue of paper money, the amount it issued in 1929 for providing funds for military purpose reaching M¥1,500,000,000 with the resultant slump of the value of the paper money to one-seventieth of its worth. The new government, therefore, aimed at the effective control and stabilization of the currency. It enacted laws for this purpose, adopted the silver standard, as this system better suits the character of the country, and established the Central Bank of Manchou.

Central Bank of Manchou This bank was established on July 1, 1932, and it opened business on the same day. In it were included four old banks of issue, the Three Eastern Provinces and the Frontier Bank. It has its head office at Hsinking, and branch offices at Mukden, Kirin, Tsitsihar and Harbin. It is capitalized at M¥30,000,000, and the Manchoukuo government hold more than 50,000 shares of M¥100 each. It is authorized to mint coins and issue notes.

The balance statement of the Central Bank of Manchou as at the close of business, June 30, 1936, follows :

ASSETS

Capital unpaid	M¥15,000,000
Advances to the Government	51,256,925
Time loans	55,870,108
Overdrafts	48,180,099
Bills discounted, etc.	1,633,493
Deposits with other banks	95,249,562
Liabilities of customers for acceptances and guarantees	136,388
Suspenses (short-term advances)	1,937,570
Various securities	53,441,586
Bullion	44,261,222
Foreign money	33,067
Bank premises	19,230,037
Cash on hand	10,422,841
Total	396,652,905

LIABILITIES

Capital subscribed	M¥30,000,000
Legal reserve	1,730,000
Notes issued	133,864,993
Government deposits	99,864,993
Fixed deposits	18,989,108
Current deposits	33,806,472
Special current deposits	11,392,228
Deposits at notice	16,299,912
Other deposits	7,613,630
Loans from other banks	212,785
Bills payable	1,747,774

Acceptances and guarantees	212,785
Sum payable	136,388
Suspenses (short-term deposits)	23,544,305
Balance carried over	507,658
Net profits for the half year	943,093
Total	396,652,905

Currency Problem The currency in Manchoukuo has been in an extremely complicated condition, native and Japanese and other notes and coins being in circulation. But in the newly regulated system of Manchoukuo currency 23.91 grammes of pure silver is taken as the unit called the yuan, there being 100 fen or 1,000 li in one yuan. The new paper notes are issued in five different denominations of 100 yuan, 10 yuan, 5 yuan, one yuan and chian, or 50 fen, circulated together with 1-chiao and 5 fen nickels and 1-fen and 5-li coppers.

Note Issue Before opening for business on July 1, 1932, the Central Bank of Manchou took over old notes of 15 different kinds and 136 denominations amounting to M¥142,234,881 calculated in the new currency at the exchange rate fixed officially. This figure was gradually reduced and by the end of June, 1935 a total of M¥138,200,000 or 97.2% had been redeemed by the Bank. The amount of the notes in circulation at the end of December, 1936, reached M¥254,243,000.

Industrial Bank of Manchou This bank was founded in accordance with the Industrial Bank of Manchou Law issued by the Manchoukuo Government on December 3, 1936. Its capitalization is ¥30,000,000, a half invested by that Government. Its object is to supply capital necessary for industrial development of Manchoukuo, and the domain of its business is not only limited to supply of capital to commerce, but to large and small industries on a basis of long-term and low interest rate. The bank is vested with authority to issue industrial debentures 15 times its paid-up capitalization. The Manchoukuo Government will guarantee for payment of principal and interest of loans for the bank, when the latter intends to raise necessary loans by floatation of its debentures abroad. Its president is Mr. Yutaro Tomita. Its head office is in Hsinking and branches in various cities of Manchoukuo.

Other Banking Institutions Though the Central Bank of Manchou occupies the controlling position in the monetary market as the note issuing bank, there are other banks which do substantial banking business. The names and capitalizations of the principal banks follow:

Name	Authorized Capital
(1) Manchoukuo Banks	
Fentien Commercial and Industrial Bank	M¥2,200,000
Fentien Commercial Bank	1,000,000
Yingkow	1,000,000
Kung Cheng "Yu Bank"	500,000
Tungpien Industrial Bank	1,500,000
I Fa Bank	1,000,000
I Tung Commercial Bank	1,000,000
Hui Hua Bank	250,000
(2) Japanese Banks	
Yokohama Specie Bank	¥100,000,000
Bank of Chosen	400,000,000
Shoryu Bank	12,000,000
Manshu Bank	10,000,000
(3) Chinese Banks	
Central Bank of China	25,000,000
Bank of Communications	10,000,000
Chin Cheng Bank	10,000,000
Ta Chung Bank	4,000,000
(4) Other Foreign Banks	
Russo-Asiatic Bank	R65,000,000
The Far Eastern Bank	$5,000,000
Hongkong Shanghai Banking Corporation	$5,000,000
National City Bank of New York	$150,000,000
The Chartered Bank of India, Australia & China	£3,000,000

To aid the sound development and proper control of banking, the Government promulgated a new Banking Law in November, 1933.

Encouraged by the favourable results of the two credit associations which were created in 1932 in Fengtien province the Finance authorities in 1933 inaugurated eight similar associations in Fengtien, two in Kirin and one in Heilungkiang province. In 1934, 39 more such associations were established and preparations have been made for the establishment of 30 others during 1935.

Coupled with the credit associations referred to above, the Government is planning to grant special licences to chartered banking firms for the issue of premium bonds whereby they may be able to advance long-term low-interest loans to farmers and small industrialists.

The Government also is planning to create and subsidize a larger number of credit associations for the specific purpose of improving the finances of small and middle class farmers, merchants and minor industrialists. Such association would be subject to appropriate regulations and supervision by the Government. At the same time the Government is planning to assist and exercise necessary control over pawn-

shops.

Japan's Investments in Manchoukuo Japan's investments in Manchoukuo were estimated to have amounted to about ¥2,928,716,000 at the end of August, 1936. The figure does not include those before the Manchurian Incident, such as those in limited and unlimited partnership companies, private companies and others. If the pre-Incident figure is added, the actual investments in Manchuria are believed to have totalled at least ¥3,400,000,000 or so. The fact also must not be overlooked that, in addition, the Manchurian Incident expenditures paid by the Japanese Goernment for six years, 1931–1936, amounted to ¥1,067,528,000. The combined total of Japan's "investments" thus makes the aggregate ¥4,467,528,000. This enormous amount of money is penetrating into that State and is forming sources of economic boom of Manchoukuo.

Of Japan's total investments, about ¥1,700,000,000 was invested before the outbreak of the Incident. According to the South Manchuria Railway Company, the pre-Incident investments were distributed as follows : 30 per cent in transportation ; 11.6 per cent in finance ; 6.7 per cent in commerce ; 16.2 per cent in agriculture, forestry and mining ; 9.2 per cent in industry ; and 26.3 per cent in other enterprises. It is further classified that out of the ¥1,700,000,000 investments, ¥837,000,000 took the form of investments in securities and the remaining ¥863,000,000 in limited and unlimited partnership companies and private companies.

Investments in securities before the Incident consisted of those in debentures and stocks and loans, which may be partially regarded as investments in securities. At the end of 1931, the total investments of Japan in securities related to Manchuria amounted to ¥837,536,000, of which ¥710,906,000 was those connected with the S.M.R.Co. The fact shows Japan's investments in Manchuria before the Incident was almost exclusively limited to those in the railway company. Details are :

1. Debentures. The S. M. R. Company first floated £100,000 sterling debentures in 1907. Its first debenture floatation in Japan took place in 1917 and since then all debentures, except its 19th £4,000,000 sterling debentures in 1923, have been issued in Japan. All debentures floated up to the end of 1931 totalled £18,000,000 (¥175,734,000) and ¥545,000,000. Out of these, £14,000,000 (¥136,682,000 and ¥268,000,000 were redeemed. The outstanding loans at the end of 1931 amounted to £4,000,000 (¥39,052,000) and ¥277,000,000. The total was ¥316,052,000.

Other companies' debentures were ¥2,000,000 raised by the Chinfu Railway Company, ¥2,000,000 by the Penchihu Coal and Iron Company, and ¥1,850,000 by the Tosho Development Company. The total ¥5,850,000.

2. Stocks. At the end of 1931, the paid-up capitalization of the S.M.R. Co. totalled ¥387,156,000 out of the authorized capitalization of ¥440,000,000. Investments in the capitalization of other Japanese companies totalled ¥120,728,000.

3. Loans. The S.M.R. Co. borrowed loans totalling ¥77,500,000.

As regards the figures concerning Japan's investments in Manchoukuo since the Incident, they differ according to investigations of the Manchurian Affairs Bureau of the Cabinet and the S.M.R. Co. Economic Research Department. The amount based on the former's investigation totalled ¥905,000,000, while that based on the latter's totalled ¥788,000,000, with a difference of about ¥117,000,000. This comes from the fact that the former investigated Japan's investments in Manchoukuo from Japan's own position, while the latter investigated a net amount of Japanese capital imported into Manchoukuo. The figures below are taken from the investigation of the Manchurian Affairs Bureau. The investments are divided into four items, those in national bonds, debentures, stocks and loans. The list of Japan's investments in Manchoukuo after the Manchurian Incident up to the end of March, 1936, follows :

	(In ¥1,000)
(1) Calling in of unpaid shares by S.M.R. Co.	158,000
(2) Net increase of S.M.R. debentures	325,200
(3) Loans by S.M.R. Co.	75,000
(4) Net increase of debentures and loans by companies allied to S.M.R. Co.	71,025
(a) South Manchuria Electricity Co. debentures	10,000
(b) Manchuria Chemical Company's loans	12,000
(c) Electricity and Telephone Co.'s debentures	15,000
(d) Manchuria Coal Mining Co.'s debentures	10,000
(e) Manchuria Electricity Co.'s debentures	10,000
(f) Showa Steel Work's debentures	10,000
(g) Others	4,250

		(In ¥1,000)
(5)	Investments in stocks of newly-established corporations	141,090
(6)	Investments in Manchoukuo Government bonds	20,000
(7)	Investments in Manchoukuo Foundation Bonds	30,000
(8)	Investments in North Manchuria Railway bonds	60,000
(9)	Loans from Japan by Manchoukuo for North Manchuria Railway	15,400
(10)	Investments in Manchoukuo Special Enterprise Bonds	10,000
	Total	905,715

Foreign Investments The foreign investments in Manchoukuo in 1933 amounted to ¥2,063,850,000 distributed among the various countries as follows, according to the statistics compiled by the South Manchuria Railway Company :

Country	Amount of Investments	%
Japan	¥1,510,755,000	73.201
Russia	465,051,000	22.531
Great Britain	39,590,000	1.918
United States	26,400,000	1.279
France	21,086,000	1.022
Sweden	850,000	0.041
Denmark	157,000	0.008
Total	2,063,880,000	100.000

According to the most statistics, foreign investments in Manchoukuo before the Incident are roughly estimated at ¥2,400,000,000, of which those by Japan are approximately ¥1,700,000,000 ; those by the Soviet Union ¥590,000,000 ; those by Great Britain ¥40,000,000 ; those by the United States ¥30,000,000 ; and those by France ¥25,000,000.

Foreign Trade

Manchuria was first opened to foreign trade in 1862, when Yingkow was opened as a commercial port. This port lost its former prosperity when Russia made Dalny (Dairen) a free port and built a railway between Harbin and Dalny.

Dairen became the greatest port of export for Manchurian products after completion of its harbour facilities. The rebuilding of the Antung-Mukden Railway and the construction of the bridge spanning the Yalu River have made possible the recent development of Antung as a commercial port.

A noteworthy feature of Manchoukuo's foreign trade during the 20 years or so up to 1930 was the annual excess of exports, ranging from several tens of million hk. tls. to 100,000,000 hk. tls. or more. These features have completely changed since the world depression which started in 1930 and the establishment of Manchoukuo which followed the Manchurian Incident. Imports began to increase at an unprecedented rate due to the huge demand for building materials required for the construction projects throughout the country. Imports continued to surpass exports at such a rapid pace that in 1933 Manchoukuo's foreign trade finally registered an import excess of M¥90,000,000, which further increased to M¥145,000,000 in 1934, and thus completely reversed the former tendency. It is believed that this new trend will continue for quite a long time, as imports will in all probability continue to grow with the development of industry and commerce.

As staple exports of Manchoukuo soy beans, bean oil, kaoliang, wheat, wild silk, coal and lumber are the best known. Among the imports are cotton fabric, cotton yarn, sugar, tobacco, petroleum, iron, steel machinery and paper. The growth of the foreign trade of Manchoukuo is illustrated in the following table :

Year		Imports	Exports	Total
		(In 1,000 Haikwan Tls.)		
1907		35,516	24,421	59,929
(Average of 5 years 1907-1912)		73,528	74,590	148,119
1917		158,562	161,120	319,682
1926		421,992	566,770	988,762
1927		268,913	408,036	678,949
1928		302,956	434,035	736,991
1929		329,603	425,651	755,255
1930		306,999	396,714	703,713
1931	(In M¥1,000)	323,975	693,903	1,017,878
1932	,,	301,068	616,152	917,220
1933	,,	514,540	423,325	937,867
1934	,,	593,562	448,426	1,041,988
1935	,,	604,149	421,077	1,025,227
1936	,,	690,693	598,675	1,289,368

The decrease in the amount of exports and imports in 1932 is due to the Manchurian Incident.

Among the countries trading with Manchoukuo, Japan by far occupies the most conspicuous position as may be seen from the following table which shows Manchoukuo's foreign trade since 1931 with various countries :

MANCHOUKUO FOREIGN TRADE RETURNS FOR 1936

(Released by the Dept. of Finance)

TOTAL VALUES OF EXPORTS AND IMPORTS

(Unit: Manchoukuo Yuan)

EXPORTS	1936	1935
Native goods	528,616,536	391,554,649
Foreign goods	74,142,453	29,553,104
Total	602,758,989	421,107,753
IMPORTS		
Foreign goods	691,889,273	604,056,134
Native goods	—	92,946
Total	691,889,273	604,149,080
Grand Total	1,294,648,262	1,025,256,833
Excess of Imports	89,130,284	183,041,327

VALUES OF EXPORTS BY COUNTRIES

Country	1936	1935
Japan	237,546,009	183,522,717
Chosen	48,442,992	33,769,419
China	128,516,452	65,352,588
U.S.S.R.	1,585,837	4,661,837
Hong-Kong	8,727,639	7,538,136
British India	1,691,469	2,701,172
Netherlands Indies	1,477,642	701,032
Great Britain	27,520,818	24,221,125
France	4,837,346	3,569,770
Germany	50,277,944	32,798,720
Belgium	953,180	1,148,098
Netherlands	7,071,648	10,075,070
Italy	382,792	3,863,633
U.S.A.	16,355,537	15,596,059
Other Countries	67,371,688	31,568,377
Total	602,758,989	421,107,753

VALUES OF IMPORTS BY COUNTRIES

Country	1936	1935
Japan	507,216,093	434,228,749
Chosen	27,413,968	22,446,106
China	47,743,801	31,992,899
U.S.S.R.	260,927	1,168,227
Hong-Kong	4,947,335	2,758,630
British India	28,223,884	23,820,895
Netherlands Indies	6,864,680	5,062,353
Great Britain	7,419,214	9,482,007
France	788,710	462,784
Germany	13,024,510	14,741,785
Belgium	1,017,719	1,511,487
Netherlands	621,282	815,477
Italy	1,624,287	1,356,745
U.S.A.	23,735,307	24,935,671
Other Countries	20,977,556	29,365,544
Total	691,889,273	604,149,080

TOTALS OF EXPORTS AND IMPORTS BY COUNTRIES

Country	1936	1935
Japan	744,762,102	617,751,466
Chosen	75,856,960	56,215,525
China	176,260,253	97,345,487
U.S.S.R.	1,846,764	5,830,064
Hong-Kong	13,674,974	10,286,766
British India	29,915,349	26,522,067
Netherlands Indies	8,342,322	5,763,385
Great Britain	34,940,032	33,703,132
France	5,626,016	4,032,554
Germany	63,302,454	47,540,505
Belgium	1,970,899	2,659,585
Netherlands	7,701,920	10,890,547
Italy	2,007,079	5,220,378
U.S.A.	40,090,844	40,531,730
Other Countries	88,349,244	60,933,921
Total	1,294,648,262	1,025,256,833

VALUES OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES EXPORTED ABROAD

(Unit: Manchoukuo Yuan)

Articles	1936	1935
Bristles	4,404,163	2,796,595
Hides and leather	653,530	899,599
Skins (furs)	5,131,812	3,234,194
Soy beans	216,474,556	130,053,055
Other beans	14,838,428	13,055,930
Bran, wheat	3,393,649	835,457
Buckwheat	2,373,263	2,494,433
Kaoliang	11,726,465	3,993,135
Maize	6,995,450	1,470,218
Millet	18,318,478	9,049,721
Rye	1,555,380	2,082,945
Beancake	53,126,934	51,370,086
Ginseng	939,863	938,893
Bean oil	21,382,719	20,132,208
Perilla seed oil	6,764,310	2,839,822
Paraffin wax	2,066,344	1,206,375
Groundnuts	16,109,759	15,140,649
Castor seed	3,035,863	2,795,011
Cotton seed	792,259	1,463,602
Hemp seed	3,597,399	5,648,588
Perilla seed	13,818,145	7,533,082
Sesamum seed	831,751	3,122,001
Mixed fodder	1,961,233	3,220,047
Coal	35,181,459	40,473,980
Shale oil	2,435,134	1,278,885
Timber and wood	2,979,587	3,846,843
Wood pulp	75,160	631,795
Raw silk, wild	6,118,319	7,278,999
Silk, waste	1,154,982	1,106,335
Wool, sheep's	1,924,761	1,447,097
Cotton yarn	6,189,066	5,623,860
Gunny bags	650,776	1,225,454
Pig iron	7,650,247	10,329,457
Iron & steel, & other manufactures	9,238,424	1,594,812
Glass, window, common, unsilvered	1,689,303	1,670,888
Magnesite and powder	1,294,832	859,053

Articles	1936	1935
Soapstone and tale, powder	749,784	643,392
Sulphate of ammonium	11,423,631	6,051,084
Salt	5,072,710	4,663,349
Others	24,496,608	17,443,720
Total	528,616,536	391,544,649

QUANTITIES OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES EXPORTED ABROAD

Articles	1936	1935
Bristles	16,423 piculs	13,333 piculs
Hides and leather	—	—
Skins (furs)	—	—
Soy beans	32,539,781 „	9,203,888 „
Other beans	2,369,259 „	2,647,852 „
Bran, wheat	1,436,438 „	376,588 „
Buckwheat	473,773 „	444,760 „
Kaoliang	3,075,941 „	1,186,274 „
Maize	1,964,241 „	549,901 „
Millet	2,660,836 „	1,742,303 „
Rye	253,867 „	347,588 „
Beancake	14,026,666 „	16,925,382 „
Ginseng	451,717 catties	444,194 catties
Bean oil	1,109,670 piculs	1,479,085 piculs
Perilla seed oil	324,120 „	193,232 „
Paraffin wax	352,230 „	301,339 „
Groundnuts	1,605,414 „	1,717,097 „
Castor seed	331,572 „	492,555 „
Cotton seed	250,548 „	628,202 „
Hemp seed	769,672 „	1,512,237 „
Perilla seed	1,913,805 „	1,056,827 „
Sesamum seed	64,336 „	282,194 „
Mixed fodder	884,162 „	1,552,410 „
Coal	3,737,705 tons	4,182,276 tons
Shale oil	94,285 „	52,916 „
Timber and wood	—	—
Wood pulp	8,132 piculs	75,514 piculs
Raw silk, wild	1,654,241 catties	2,271,014 catties
Silk, waste	1,660,307 „	2,482,530 „
Wool, sheep's	5,374,742 „	5,104,280 „
Cotton yarn	78,241 piculs	71,541 piculs
Gunny bags	29,280 „	49,938 „
Pig iron	5,104,287 „	7,152,822 „
Iron & steel & other manufactures	—	—
Glass, window, common, unsilvered	308,622 (100 sq. ft.)	278,481 (100 sq. ft.)
Magnesite and powder	1,823,384 piculs	1,264,077 piculs
Soapstone and talc, powder	1,373,996 „	1,237,578 „
Sulphate of ammonium	2,927,960 „	1,642,336 „
Salt	6,745,107 „	4,610,006 „
Others	—	— „

VALUES OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES IMPORTED FROM ABROAD

(Unit: Manchoukuo Yuan)

Articles	1936	1935
Cotton piece goods, grey	32,048,120	24,227,824
Cotton piece goods, white or dyed	40,769,121	25,649,271
Cotton piece goods, printed	11,788,930	7,483,328
Cotton piece goods, miscellaneous	2,894,756	2,979,484
Raw cotton	18,601,313	9,406,593
Cotton yarn	7,698,579	7,937,554
Cotton thread	1,978,779	1,247,896

Articles	1936	1935
Clothing	13,598,434	11,207,223
Raw jute	2,596,056	2,062,519
Gunny bags	14,024,752	14,640,550
Yarn and cord	3,366,688	2,030,366
Woolen piece goods	14,314,721	11,342,804
Artificial silk floss and yarn	15,801,090	8,051,145
Silk piece goods	35,682,703	19,709,051
Copper	2,660,666	4,463,883
Iron and steel	39,506,313	51,539,998
Lead	1,125,484	1,031,242
Machinery and tools	38,917,667	33,150,014
Vehicles	39,550,331	39,844,471
Electrical appliances	16,357,982	15,280,977
Telephonic and telegraphic instruments and materials	5,325,105	3,497,359
Fishery and sea products	12,004,674	8,552,935
Canned goods	2,953,996	2,717,957
Tea	3,727,063	3,136,013
Rice and paddy	12,591,814	11,567,240
Wheat flour	27,115,884	53,988,584
Fruits, fresh, dried, or preserved	8,371,184	7,852,186
Vegetables, fresh, dried prepared and salted	3,937,656	3,157,629
Sugar	29,421,248	12,973,926
Wines, beer, spirits, table waters, etc.	8,368,084	7,965,124
Cigarettes	1,202,298	1,933,940
Leaf tobacco	8,848,348	6,067,286
Soda ash	1,632,918	1,600,522
Chemicals and pharmaceuticals	13,525,675	11,574,656
Dyes, pigments, paints, and varnishes	7,257,403	6,744,902
Gasoline	1,769,993	5,375,045
Kerosene	1,740,417	2,227,900
Lubricating oil	3,210,367	2,849,803
Mineral crude oil	6,601,260	—
Soap	2,985,903	2,205,915
Paper	16,792,945	12,959,294
Paperware	8,240,175	5,862,782
Hides and leathers	4,296,529	2,696,947
Skins (furs)	1,154,495	1,421,425
Timber and wood	11,745,637	14,310,189
Chinaware	2,445,860	2,107,477
Cement	3,436,728	3,543,465
Rubber boots and shoes	8,607,397	8,437,757
Musical instruments	2,185,914	2,037,027
Perfumery and cosmetics	3,024,916	2,344,826
Photographic materials	2,629,864	1,784,895
Toys and games	1,136,519	1,130,050
Others	110,218,519	95,785,164
Total	691,889,273	604,056,134

QUANTITIES OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES IMPORTED FROM ABROAD

Articles	1936	1935
Cotton piece goods, grey	—	—
Cotton piece goods, white or dyed	—	—
Cotton piece goods, printed	--	—
Cotton piece goods, miscellaneous	—	—
Raw cotton	383,761 piculs	203,813 piculs
Cotton yarn	8,893,503 catties	9,374,716 catties

Articles	1936	1935
Cotton thread	—	—
Clothing	—	—
Raw jute	19,774,157 ,,	16,760,573 ,,
Gunny bags	814,793 piculs	901,342 piculs
Yarn and cord	1,256,456 catties	889,859 catties
Woolen piece goods	—	—
Artificial silk floss and yarn	11,905,976 ,,	5,546,233 ,,
Silk piece goods	—	—
Copper	4,907,219 ,,	9,352,943 ,,
Iron and steel	—	—
Lead	70,231 piculs	67,278 piculs
Machinery and tools	—	—
Vehicles	—	—
Electrical appliances	—	—
Telephonic and telegraphic instruments and materials	—	—
Fishing and sea products	—	—
Canned goods	—	—
Tea	8,091,265 catties	7,155,077 catties
Rice and paddy	1,770,126 piculs	1,326,908 piculs
Wheat flour	3,480,897 ,,	7,695,656 ,,
Fruits, fresh, dried, or preserved	—	—
Vegetables, fresh, dried, prepared and salted	—	—
Sugar	3,696,968 ,,	1,776,721 ,,
Wines, beer, spirits, table waters, etc.	—	—
Cigarettes	3,609,853 hundreds	5,984,725 hundreds
Leaf tabacco	25,143,997 catties	16,071,611 catties
Soda ash	328,249 piculs	274,004 piculs
Chemicals and pharmaceuticals	—	—
Dyes, pigments, paints, and varnishes	—	—
Gasoline	3,890,572 U.S. gallons	9,013,606 U.S. gallons
Kerosene	3,746,475 ,,	4,047,013 ,,
Lubricating oil	5,326,311 ,,	5,519,758 ,,
Mineral crude oil	118,349 tons	—
Soap	—	—
Paper	—	—
Paperware	—	—
Hides and leathers	—	—
Skins (furs)	—	—
Timber and wood	—	—
Chinaware	—	—
Cement	2,783,199 piculs	2,473,960 piculs
Rubber boots and shoes	—	—
Musical instruments	—	—
Perfumery and cosmetics	—	—
Photographic materials	—	—
Toys and games	—	—

ENTRANCE AND CLEARANCE OF STEAMERS OF THE THREE PORTS IN SOUTH MANCHOURIA BY COUNTRIES AND BY FLAGS

Flags Entered	1936 No.	1936 Tons	1935 No.	1935 Tons
Manchoukuo	337	200,976	384	227,159
Kwantung L.T.	1,126	1,633,102	1,184	1,703,616
Japanese	2,047	3,647,639	2,041	3,903,364
Chinese	1,236	1,079,820	1,236	937,332
U.S.S.R.	2	4,407	—	—
British	311	837,245	382	992,425
French	1	2,384	2	4,768

Flags Entered	1936 No.	Tons	1935 No.	Tons
German	81	34,365	87	381,144
Dutch	29	132,056	26	117,117
Danish	14	64,711	21	92,894
Swedish	12	42,410	14	53,561
Norwegian	51	169,319	75	236,497
Italian	9	33,059	11	38,276
Greek	14	41,052	14	43,716
U.S.A.	21	84,769	45	188,844
Yugoslavian	1	3,543	1	3,853
Total	5,292	8,322,857	5,523	8,924,566

Flags Cleared	1936 No.	Tons	1935 No.	Tons
Manchoukuo	349	212,870	363	207,259
Kwantung L.T.	1,117	1,671,061	1,249	1,838,988
Japanese	2,082	3,646,508	2,004	3,922,346
Chinese	1,234	1,107,570	1,240	976,655
U.S.S.R.	2	4,407	—	—
British	314	835,891	376	990,669
French	1	2,348	2	4,768
German	84	363,286	88	384,534
Dutch	28	130,922	27	121,166
Danish	15	69,739	24	105,846
Swedish	12	42,410	14	54,357
Norwegian	50	168,658	73	228,411
Italian	10	36,768	11	38,276
Greek	14	42,096	16	50,687
U.S.A.	20	78,751	46	191,165
Yugoslavian	1	3,543	1	3,853
Total	5,333	8,416,864	5,534	9,118,980

Agriculture

General The vast plains of Manchuria consist for the most part of agricultural land, covered with fertile soil or humus, and agriculture has always been the main occupation of the people of Manchuria. The recent development of transport facilities has encouraged the coming of immigrants in large numbers from China, especially from Shantung province. Undeveloped land is being thus brought under cultivation, and every year sees some increase in the total amount of farming products. Unfortunately, these immigrants possess neither scientific knowledge nor capital, and, as they still follow primitive methods of cultivation, the productiveness of the land is not yet fully exploited. The wide plains that characterize the country invite the use of machinery for large-scale cultivation and if capital and technical skill were applied, their agricultural products could certainly be multiplied manifold. One novel feature of the agriculture in Manchoukuo is that Korean farmers who migrated there are doing a large share of work.

Cultivated Area The plains along the lower Liao River, the upper and middle Sungari River, and the Hurka River are most fertile and constitute the main agricultural territory of Manchoukuo. Next come the lands in the centre or Lungkiang province and along the lower reaches of the Sungari. These districts have been developed with an astonishing rapidity by the Chinese immigrants from Shantung and Hopei.

At the end of 1931 the area under cultivation totalled 13,733,000 hectares, an increase of 876,000 ha. since 1929. In 1932, however, due to the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident and by a devastating flood in North Manchuria, the area decreased by 300,000 hectares. A further decrease of 170,000 hectares was withnessed in 1933, partly due to floods in North Manchuria but more to a great decrease of the exports of soy beans to European countries and consequent fall in the prices of agricultural products in general.

A decline in 1934 in agricultural prices, together with the plight of farmers in the North somewhat contracted the area under cultivation. Possibilities, however, for the future extension of farm areas are abundant inasmuch as more than 50 per cent of

Manchoukuo's arable land is yet uncultivated.

The area of arable land in Manchoukuo in 1935 follows :

AREA OF CULTIVATED LAND IN MANCHURIA

(Unit in hectare)

Provinces	Total Area	Arable Land
Kirin	11,276,777	4,618,860
Lungkiang	16,042,130	8,223,280
Heiho	2,858,260	873,180
Sankiang	9,685,380	4,090,750
Pinkiang	16,882,840	6,347,340
Chientao	4,629,220	1,853,780
Antung	8,160,250	425,000
Fentien	7,068,350	3,252,560
Chinchow	2,290,330	795,090
Jehol	13,606,060	1,217,930
Total	92,499,590	31,697,870

Principal Crops The total tonnage of the agricultural products of Manchoukuo for the year 1935 was 15,346,000 metric tons. Production of principal agricultural crops since 1929 follows :

CULTIVATED AREAS AND PRODUCTION OF CEREALS

CULTIVATED AREAS

(In hectares)

	Soy Beans	Other Legumes	Kaoliang	Millet	Maize	Wheat	Paddy-field Rice	Upland Rice	Other Cereals
1929	3,989,920	347,350	2,965,150	2,131,780	876,220	1,297,150	88,280	111,890	1,043,520
1930	4,118,450	350,220	3,031,420	2,209,670	865,520	1,381,200	98,140	108,380	1,086,320
1931	4,200,590	313,490	2,980,490	2,232,320	987,710	1,586,160	81,800	118,500	1,232,190
1932	3,878,610	300,580	2,661,360	2,156,690	979,990	1,395,150	62,980	105,270	1,124,250
1933	4,000,670	323,350	2,658,430	2,380,850	1,101,950	1,373,950	79,360	104,760	1,218,020
1934	3,050,000	429,000	2,969,000	2,516,000	1,076,000	748,000	113,000	107,000	1,033,000
1935	3,249,000	329,000	2,764,000	2,394,000	1,235,000	979,000	120,000	114,000	955,000

PRODUCTION

(In metric tons)

	Soy Beans	Other Legumes	Kaoliang	Millet	Maize	Wheat	Raddy-field Rice	Upland Rice	Other Cereals
1929	4,849,460	377,490	4,681,560	3,351,960	1,613,290	1,302,230	136,820	156,270	1,593,690
1930	5,297,820	369,270	4,779,690	3,276,480	1,585,680	1,356,660	154,350	157,840	1,722,760
1931	5,227,010	312,820	4,497,490	2,960,020	1,701,110	1,580,310	158,640	162,800	1,852,670
1932	4,267,890	277,670	3,729,360	2,615,370	1,541,850	1,133,090	109,790	137,310	1,550,390
1933	5,205,170	325,320	4,229,440	3,273,020	1,868,290	1,429,810	164,880	148,160	1,832,950
1934	3,841,000	265,000	3,784,000	2,280,000	1,516,000	645,000	190,000	129,000	1,513,000
1935	3,822,000	272,000	3,842,000	2,970,000	1,801,000	934,000	284,000	137,000	1,074,000

ESTIMATED PRODUCTION FOR 1936

Figures for Entire Country

Description of Principal Products	Index Number (the year 1935=100)		Area under Cultivation (hectares)	Crop Forecast (metric tons)	Increase or decrease compared with 1935 yield Metric tons	Indices (1935 yield 100)
Soy beans	107	98	3,415,958	4,175,453	390,052	110
Other beans	105	92	336,140	329,963	14,974	105
Kaoliang	99	90	2,905,796	3,980,665	(−) 5,699	100
Millet	101	94	2,502,810	3,037,575	118,090	104
Maize	110	101	1,294,434	2,099,134	219,855	112
Wheat	80	93	1,085,284	882,675	(−)122,967	88
Rice (paddy field)	117	102	173,951	437,960	143,073	149
Upland rice	101	88	114,229	136,463	(−) 10,808	93

Description of Principal Products	Index Number (the year 1935=100)		Area under Clutivation (hectares)	Crop Forecast (Metric tons)	Increase or decrease compared with 1935 yield Metric Indices (1935 tons	yield 100)
Other cereals	99	91	962,673	1,020,973	(−) 70,137	94
Hemp seed	81	74	56,927	33,507	(−) 11,707	74
Perilla seed	95	92	180,690	140,530	(−) 40,851	77
Total	101	94	13,058,892	16,274,898	623,875	104

Crop Forecast by Provinces

(Metric tons)

Products	Kirin	Lungkiang	Heiho	Sankiang	Pinkiang
Soy beans	980,789	464,940	2,729	260,592	1,083,886
Other beans	75,281	29,734	133	7,823	37,894
Kaoliang	686,199	259,770	—	94,798	588,945
Millet	668,043	462,379	1,775	164,737	911,766
Maize	286,311	219,400	1,169	117,846	429,064
Wheat	46,130	173,985	4,864	165,703	448,407
Rice (paddy field)	79,655	7,568	221	12,332	67,908
Upland rice	40,429	254	—	288	12,132
Other cereals	215,057	175,988	5,911	38,180	253,811
Hemp seed	2,589	9,056	—	1,046	18,259
Perilla seed	9,600	84,576	—	357	38,031
Total	3,090,083	1,887,650	16,802	863,702	3,900,103

Products	Chientao	Antung	Fengtien	Chinchow	Total
Soy beans	91,383	154,664	985,362	151,108	4,175,453
Other beans	8,623	35,965	97,817	26,690	329,963
Kaoliang	7,408	135,184	1,559,209	649,152	3,980,665
Millet	62,628	56,928	513,310	196,009	3,037,575
Maize	33,379	480,323	426,608	105,034	2,099,134
Wheat	2,896	3,006	32,326	5,358	882,675
Rice (paddy field)	56,589	77,726	133,049	2,912	437,960
Upland rice	81	8,844	69,270	5,165	136,463
Other cereals	33,912	54,910	183,063	60,141	1,020,973
Hemp seed	26	179	2,058	294	33,507
Perilla seed	259	528	6,666	513	140,530
Total	297,187	1,008,257	4,008,738	1,202,376	16,274,898

Thus the country has an abundant supply of food to feed the people, which now roughly numbers 34,000,000. The surplus of crops is exported every year, the total amount of which in 1932 was M¥211,562,000, and in 1934 M¥244,282,000. The quantity and value of agricultural products which were exported during 1931–1935 follow :

EXPORTS OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS, 1933–1935

Commodities	1933 Qty in 1,000 pcls	1933 Value in M¥1,000	1934 Qty in 1,000 pcls	1934 Value in M¥1,000	1935 Qty in 1,000 pcls	1935 Value in M¥1,000
Soy beans	39,111	169,095	41,308	160,348	29,230	130,053
Other legumes	1,530	9,180	2,161	9,993	2,647	13,053
Millets	2,803	14,745	4,006	19,940	1,742	9,049
Kaoliang	2,565	7,215	3,333	7,310	1,186	2,993
Maize	1,180	3,319	2,056	5,216	549	1,470
Ground-nuts	917	8,826	1,562	14,129	1,717	15,140
Buckwheat	539	3,222	835	4,251	444	2,494

Commodities	1933 Qty in 1,000 pcls	1933 Value in M¥1,000	1934 Qty in 1,000 pcls	1934 Value in M¥1,000	1935 Qty in 1,000 pcls	1935 Value in M¥1,000
Hempseeds	542	3,052	1,078	4,410	1,512	5,648
Perilla	439	3,051	533	4,152	1,056	7,533
Sesame seeds	343	4,664	582	5,865	285	3,122
Mixed cattle food	2,311	6,381	4,275	8,668	1,552	3,220
Total	52,280	232,750	61,729	244,282	41,890	194,777

Soy Beans Manchoukuo produces about 60 per cent of the total production of soy beans in the world. The beans contain about 10 per cent of oil, and the cake which is obtained in pressing the beans is exported as fertilizer. The latest figure for production of soy beans in Manchoukuo was 3,820,000 metric tons and its total plantation area 3,249,000 hectares. The average crop per hectare was 1,180 kg.

Kaoliang Kaoliang comes next in importance to soy beans. It serves as the diet of the people. Its production in 1935 was 3,842,000 metric tons, and the area planted reached 2,764,000 hectares. The average crop per hectare is 1,390 kg. It grows more in the southern districts than in the northern part of Manchoukuo, and its export to Japan and China is increasing in recent years.

Millet The yield of this crop reached 2,970,000 metric tons in 1935 and its area of plantation 2,380,000 hectares. The average yield per hectare is 1,250 kilogrammes.

Wheat The northern districts of Manchoukuo are better suited than the southern part for wheat. The production reached 934,000 metric tons in 1935, more than one-half of which was consumed in the country as raw material for flour.

Paddy-field Rice Rice grown in paddy-fields is of comparatively recent origin in Manchoukuo. But the climate and soil of Manchoukuo are well adapted for this method of growing rice. Though the area of paddy-fields in 1935 was but 120,000 hectares and the yield 284,000 metric tons, it is not difficult to make it ten times as large both in area and yield.

Maize The product reaches 1,801,000 metric tons, its area of plantation about 1,235,000 hectares. It is mostly consumed within the country.

Special Crops In addition to the above-mentioned crops, the soil of Manchoukuo is well adapted to cotton, tobacco, hemp, ground-nuts, fruits, etc. The plantation area of cotton totalled in 1934, 48,270 chobu, while its production is estimated to be about 67,490,000 kin. The Government inaugurated in 1933 the Raw Cotton Association with branches at various cotton producing districts with the object of studying ways and means to raise 150,000,000 kin of raw cotton by bringing some 750,000 acres of land under cultivation within the next 20 years. It also formed in 1934 the Manchurian Raw Cotton Co., whose purpose is twofold : to aid farmers to sell their cotton without losses and to improve the quality of cotton. Tobacco is produced in Kirin and Fengtien provinces, and its production is estimated at 7,800,000 kwan a year. The production of tusser silk in Manchoukuo is a hundred years old, and it has now become one of the principal staple products in the country. Its production in Fengtien province alone reaches about ¥11,000,000 in value.

Live Stock Raising of domestic animals is indispensable to Manchoukuo's agricultural system, as they serve well for the daily life of the farmer as well as for transport purpose. They are widely spread and almost every family raises some kind of them. Farm wastes are utilized for feeding them, while their excrements are used as fertilizer, and ploughing, stamping, harrowing, manuring, transporting and threshing, etc. are carried out with their help. The number and principal kinds of live stock follow :

NUMBER OF LIVE STOCK IN 1933

(Unit in 1,000 head)

Provinces	Cattle	Horses	Mules	Donkeys	Sheep	Hogs
Kirin	31	404	185	60	56	811
Lungkiang	118	309	44	36	61	314
Heiho	2	6	—	—	—	2
Sankiang	46	92	18	—	3	218
Pinkiang	239	578	90	40	141	820

Provinces	Cattle	Horses	Mules	Donkeys	Sheep	Hogs
Chientao	91	26	4	7	5	207
Antung	180	61	64	85	40	437
Fengtien	179	238	206	72	92	1,525
Chinchow	99	40	77	50	180	384
Jehol	134	50	61	24	437	577
East Hsingan	9	9	—	1	11	7
West „	143	40	1	13	308	32
South „	81	22	2	5	125	11
North „	121	122	—	—	780	—
Total	1,570	1,998	753	394	2,208	5,350

Wools and Hides Sheep are raised for the purpose of getting meat, but not for wools. Wools obtained from them are very coarse. They are not good for woollen cloth making, and are therefore used only as carpet wools. The amount of wools produced is estimated at 9,000,000 lbs. a year.

As meat is of universal demand in Manchoukuo, the number of live stock slaughtered every year is very large. Owing to the lack of accurate statistics, the number actually slaughtered is not known, but the production of hides is estimated at 450,000 from cattle, 2,000,000 from sheep, and 380,000 from mules and donkeys. But there is no tannery which is equipped with modern machinery to put a good finish to the hides, though a large number of hides is exported every year.

Forestry

General The total forest area in Manchoukuo is estimated at 358,684 sq. km. which is equal to about 36 per cent of the entire area of the country. Some 350 species of timber are found in the forest regions located in the Yalu Valley, Tumen Valley, Mutan Valley, Lalin Valley, Sanhsing District, Great Hsingan Range and Small Hsingan Range. The volume of standing timber is estimated at 15,000,000,000 koku. Investigation conducted by the Manchoukuo Government, however, shows that the deforestation seems to have been done in a reckless manner in the past and the real volume of the standing timber may perhaps be about 9,000,000,000 koku.

STANDING TIMBER IN MANCHOUKUO

Districts	Estimated Standing Timber in 1,000 koku	Principal Species of Timber
Right bank of the Yalu and the Hunho valley	276,635	Korean pine, Korean fir, Korean larch, silver-fir, maple, birch, oak, ash, doronoki.
Sungari valley	874,036	
Tumen valley	420,401	Korean pine, fir, spruce, larch, lime,
Hurka valley	420,951	oak, elm, ash, birch.
Lalin valley	300,490	
North Manchuria Railway eastern line district	898,296	Korean pine, fir, spruce, maple, birch, doronoki, Siberian cork-tree, Manchurian walnut.
Sansing district	2,615,302	Korean pine, fir, spruce, Siberian cork-tree, ash, birch, oak, lime.
Great Khingan range	5,600,000	Larch, Japanese birch, Siberian red
Little Khingan „	3,500,000	pine, willow, alder.
Total	14,906,111	

For the purpose of preserving forests and securing their rational management, the authorities of the new régime have stopped granting fresh forest concessions and have commenced to classify forests into three categories, viz., State, public, and private, under a three-year programme. At the outset the authorities took over the various forests of the Central Bank in Kirin province as State forests, for which purpose a sum of M¥2,000,000 was appropriated in the 1933 supplementary budget. The forestry offices established in 1933 at Chia-

cho, Tunhua, Yenki, Wuchang and Peianchen and the branch office at Hailar, have been entrusted with the rational management of State forests and the improvment of forestry. Some 15 other forestry offices were also established in various other districts during 1934-35. A five-year programme for the investigation of forests by means of aerial photography is also being worked out. It is expected that with the progress of the forest investigations and the enactment of new forest laws and regulations, the most scientific and up-to-date management of forests will become possible in the near future. A pulp manufacturing plant will probably be put up as soon as conditions warrant it.

Species of Timber In Manchuria there are as many as 350 species of timber, but the more common species are the following :

Evergreen : Korean pine, silver fir, Korean fir, spruce, larch.

Deciduous : Korean oaks, birch, Amur lime tree, ash, elm, willow.

The proportion of evergreen to deciduous is 4 to 6, and in the evergreen the Korean pine constitutes more than half of the total.

Lumber Industry Lumber industry is carried on in the districts of Antung, Kirin and Harbin, but that in Antung districts is best known. Production of lumber in Manchoukuo runs from 2,000,000 to 4,000,000 koku a year. Owing to activities in buildings and public works in Manchoukuo, the domestic product is not enough to meet the demand, and large quantities of lumber are being imported. The production of lumber in 1934 follows :

LUMBER PRODUCTION IN MANCHOUKUO

Unit in koku

Districts Where Produced	For Ordinary Purpose	Sleeper	Others	Total
Along Eastern route of N.M.R.	450,000	66,000	350,000	866,000
„ Western „ „ „	350,000	33,000	30,000	413,000
Near along the Sungari	320,000	—	50,000	370,000
Districts along the Ning-Tumen R'y	200,000	50,000	20,000	270,000
Manchoukuo lumber produced along the Tumen	220,000	16,000	25,000	261,000
Districts along the upper course of the Kirin along Hsinking-Tumen Railway	1,150,000	45,000	65,000	1,710,000
Manchoukuo lumber produced along the Yalu	1,200,000	—	50,000	1,250,000
Others	150,000	66,000	100,000	316,000
Total	4,040,000	726,000	690,000	5,456,000

Fisheries

General In spite of the largeness of area, the coast line of Manchoukuo is comparatively short, its total length being only 855 kilometres. Moreover, the coast is made up of shallow bays, which readily get frozen in winter, and is not therefore favourable for fisheries. The amount of catches is valued only at about ¥3,000,000 a year.

Fresh Water Fishery Fresh water fishes are abundantly found in the Sungari, the Nonni, the Mutankiang, the Ussuri, the Amur and the Liao Rivers as well as Lake Hujunti, Peierhih, etc. The amount of catches in 1932 follows :

CATCHES OF FRESH WATER FISHES

River or lake	Catches in kg.
Hulanpeierh	4,500,000
Sungari river	4,200,000
Mutanchiang	500,000
2nd Sungari river	1,500,000
Nunchiang	6,000,000
Ussuri river	2,000,000
Liao river	1,000,000
Yalu river	2,000,000
Heilung kiang river	2,000,000
Total	23,700,000

Salt Industry The coast line of Manchoukuo stretches only for 855 km. which is but one-eleventh of the en-

tire border line of the country. However, the coast on the Yellow Sea and the Po-hai has very little rainfall and as the evaporation is very rapid and the air dry, the district is well adapted for salt manufacturing by evaporation. The total area of salt fields as at the end of 1934 was 15,400 chobu of which 8,300 chobu belong to Manchoukuo and 7,100 chobu to Kwantung Leased Territory. The production in 1934, though much reduced on account of the weather, totalled 700,000,000 kin of which the quantity produced by Manchoukuo amounted to 280,000,000 kin and that by Kwantung Leased Territory to 420,000,000 kin. The salt field extension plan of Kwantung Leased Territory made a great progress and on account of fine weather the quantity produced by the Territory in 1935 amounted by July to 700,000,000 kin, while that in the outside of the Territory was 500,000,000 kin. The annual exports of the product to Japan runs between 150,000,000 to 200,000,000 kin.

Mining Industry

General Numerous kinds of minerals are found in Manchoukuo, of which iron, gold, coal, magnesite, fireclay, and shale oil are most abundant. The production of the principal minerals in Manchoukuo and a brief account of a few of them follow.

PRINCIPAL MINERAL PRODUCTS OF MANCHOUKUO

(In metric tons)

Kind of Minerals	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Iron ore	832,228	922,649	993,143	1,176,643	1,291,790	1,576,178
Pig iron	348,054	342,270	368,181	433,523	—	—
Iron sulphide	3,028	3,919	3,620	1,671	—	—
Lead ore	—	—	—	—	—	—
Manganese ore	609	270	60	750	43	—
Copper ore	840	—	—	—	—	—
Coal	10,048,652	9,048,703	7,108,282	9,062,644	8,827,000	10,944,234
Coke	485,312	418,625	416,306	476,278	—	—
Shale oil	981,004	1,245,094	1,412,554	2,683,440	—	3,436,648
Crude oil	47,815	61,081	70,631	87,076	—	—
Magnesite	29,016	36,034	55,386	71,376	8,300	—
Dolomite	688,489	545,131	477,350	691,040	—	—
Fire-clay	53,664	35,476	51,799	112,070	—	—

Iron Iron and coal constitute the two most important minerals in Manchoukuo. Iron deposits are mostly found in Fengtien province, especially in Anshan and Miaoerhkou, ores coming from these deposits being turned into pig iron in Anshan and Penhsihu iron works. The estimated iron deposit is about 1,080,000,000 metric tons, of which, however, the deposit containing more than 50 per cent iron is less than one-half of one per cent. The ore is mostly hematite and magnetite, and is not of good quality.

Coal Coal is even more important than iron. The estimated coal deposit in Manchoukuo is 4,804,000,000 metric tons, and its production in 1933 was about 9,000,000 metric tons. The production of coal in various provinces follows (in 1,000 metric tons) :

Province	1922	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Fengtien	4,508	8,569	8,794	7,506	6,750	8,353	8,827
Kirin	25	570	523	530	218	271	—
Heilungkiang	—	120	170	300	95	362	—
Jehol	66	445	544	691	45	76	—
Hsingan	—	188	7	20	—	—	—
Total	4,600	9,893	10,040	9,048	7,108	9,063	11,413

Fushun Coal Field The Fushun coal field is the most famous in Manchoukuo. The right of mining this coal was transferred to Japan by Russia as a result of the Russo-Japanese War, and since 1907 the mining has been under the management of the South Manchuria Railway Co. The average thickness of the coal seam is 40 metres, the thickest part of the seam reaching 130 metres. The

estimated deposit of coal is put at 950,000,000 metric tons. The coal is bituminous, and its characteristics are a large content of volatile matter, a small quantity of ash, and generally a large amount of nitrogen. When the mine was transferred to Japan, the daily output was 300 metric tons, which in 1934 was increased to over 7,000,000 metric tons a year. The annual production of the coal field since 1925 follows :

Year	Production in metric tons
1925	5,844,478
1926	6,591,908
1927	7,030,193
1928	6,900,233
1929	6,785,000
1930	6,864,100
1931	6,114,700
1932	5,570,100
1933	6,712,100
1934	7,798,000
1935	8,119,000

Shale Oil This is a layer of brown rock which covers the coal bed at Fushun to the thickness of about 400 feet. The rock contains oil. This rock deposit is estimated at 4,400,000,000 metric tons, and its oil content at about 6 per cent, so that more than 300,000,000 metric tons of crude oil may be obtained from it. The South Manchuria Railway Co. started early to utilize the rock, and established an oil mill at Fushun. The company is now obtaining more than 54,000 metric tons of the crude oil through dry distillation method, and also along with it paraffin, ammonium sulphate and coke.

In addition to the above, there are gold, silver, lead, etc., the gold deposit being estimated at ¥5,000,000,000. Also magnesite produced near Tashihchiao and fireclay produced in Yentai and Penhsihu deserve a serious consideration. Light metal producing companies which use these products as raw materials are being organized.

Manchoukuo has such vast mineral resources as above stated. Since most of these products are very important for national defence, coal, gold and petroleum industries will be managed by special corporation under the Government supervision. With this in view, the Government has established the Manchuria Petroleum Co., Ltd., the Manchuria Coal Mining Co., Ltd., the Manchuria Gold Mining Co., for the investigation, management, and exploitation of these mines. As regards other minerals, permits for mining will be given out with the promulgation of new mining law.

Conforming to the general policy of recognizing the validity of mining concessions obtained under the old régime as well as of the mining applications filled up to the present since the founding of the new State, provided they do not conflict with existing laws and regulations, the Government is examining the old concessions permits and studying the actual conditions of the various mines.

The Government is considering the establishment of a gold refinery, a fuel research institute, a mineral laboratory, and a mineral products museum, all under State management, to assist and encourage private mining enterprises, secure good markets so that their products may be turned into cash promptly, and in general to contribute to the development of the mining industries.

Manufacturing Industries

General In spite of the abundant supplies of various raw materials and cheap labour, the industry in Manchoukuo is not yet in an advanced stage. This was particularly the case before the advent of Japanese into the country, owing to the undeveloped state of transport and the backward condition of most regions. At present industries have developd in the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone. Aside from it the industry of modern type sprang up around Harbin. As a whole the industry in Manchoukuo is based on raw materials produced in the country which use them as material for products intended for exports as well as for the domestic consumption. Spinning industry is at present the only industry which uses raw materials imported from abroad. But except those in Kwantung Leased Territory most of the cotton spinning mills are of a class which are barely able to fulfil domestic demands.

Mills which employ more than 5 operatives in Manchoukuo number about 4,000 the products of which amount to more than ¥300,000,000 a year. Industries which yearly produce more than ¥10,000,000 are as follows :

Articles Produced	Amount Produced in yen
Bean cakes	72,000,000
Bean oil	32,000,000
Tobacco	29,000,000
Cotton yarns & fabrics	23,000,000
Wheat flour	23,000,000
Rolling stock	20,000,000
Cereals	19,000,000
Intoxicants	13,000,000
Pig iron	11,000,000

Oil Industry Making of soy bean oil and bean cake by pressing the soy beans early developed in Manchoukuo. With almost limitless supplies of soy beans, the industry advanced from mere handicraft work into the modern advanced industry as soon as the real worth of bean oil and bean cake was recognized. The bean oil and bean cake produced in this way constitute the most important items for export. The prosperity of Manchoukuo largely depends on this industry. According to the investigation made on oil mills in Manchoukuo by the Dairen Oil Mill Association, the mills number more than 3,000, of which mills equipped with facilities large enough to produce articles for exports are as follows :

PRODUCTION CAPACITY OF BEAN OIL AND BEAN CAKE PER DAY

Place of Production	No. of Mills	Amount of Bean Oil Produced (In 1,000 kin)	Amount of Bean Cake Produced (In 1,000 pieces)	No. of Men Employed in 1933-34
Dairen	50	744	149	4,107
Yingkow	20	166	33	850
Antung	23	185	33	891
Harbin	43	468	94	—
Various places in southern Manchoukuo	238	440	88	1,086
Various places in northern Manchoukuo	28	190	38	—
Total	402	2,193	439	—

EXPORTS OF BEAN OIL AND BEAN CAKE 1933-1935

(In 1,000 piculs)

Destinations	Bean cake 1933	1934	1935	Bean oil 1933	1934	1935
Japan proper	12,181	14,677	11,498	4	21	8
Korea	469	1,628	135	0	8	3
China	3,859	3,010	3,175	759	527	161
U.S.S.R.	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hong-Kong	—	—	—	9	26	151
Great Britain	27	15	32	81	41	264
Germany	138	154	111	403	723	434
Belgium	22	25	6	—	—	—
Holland	85	73	9	41	168	189
Italy	36	10	—	4	817	—
U.S.A.	418	502	648	32	7	99
Others	547	281	307	6	90	166
Total	17,788	20,380	16,925	1,342	1,608	1,479
Total value in ¥1,000	57,614	51,508	51,370	18,472	16,262	20,132

Textile Industry Tusser silk is another export article next only to bean oil in importance. With the increased demand for pongees in Europe and America, the Japanese silk weavers in Fukui, Gifu and Kyoto prefectures began weaving them and the demand for this silk comes from these prefectures in Japan. The reeling is carried on by the Chinese farmers as a side line, and necessarily on the household basis. The production is largest in Antung. In 1932 it was M¥9,775,000, in 1933 M¥9,555,000 and in 1934 M¥7,408,000. About 70 per cent of the total export goes to Japan.

Of the total population of 30,000,000 in Manchoukuo, about 90 per cent wear cotton clothes. Therefore, from ancient times, there existed in Manchoukuo small, primitive plants for cotton weaving, but no large modern factories rose before the Great War. The establishment of the Cotton Spinning and Weaving Plant by Chinese at Mukden was followed by the establishment of three companies by Japanese, viz.: the Manchurian Cotton Spinning Company, the Chinchou Factory of the Naigai Spinning Company, and the Manchuria Fufang Company. The total number of mills in 1932 was 83, the number of labourers 9,621, and the total production ¥17,401,310. The production of course cannot keep pace with the demand, and

cotton cloth constitutes one of the principal imports for Manchoukuo, the amount reaching from ¥40,000,000 to ¥74,000,000.

Flour Milling Flour milling industry is one of the three main industries of Manchoukuo. It is carried on either by the old-fashioned native mills or the modern mills run by machinery. Harbin is the centre of flour milling and has 40 mills, there being only 8 other mills in the southern part of Manchoukuo. The consumption in 1930 was only about 24,000,000 bags a year, which included both domestic and imported products. This increased in 1934 to 23,000,000 bags, exclusive of domestic product. If, therefore, the domestic product amounted in the year to 15,000,000 bags, the amount of consumption totalled 38,000,000 bags. Even this per capita consumption in Manchoukuo was a little over one bag, so that there is still a vast room left for further consumption. Import from Japan in 1934 amounted to 17,000,000 bags and about 6,000,000 bags were imported from Australia and America. The amount of its import is only second to that of cotton cloth in value.

Regarding the status of other industries, mention is omitted here, but their general aspects may be inferred from the figures in the table given at the outset of this subject.

Encouragement of Manufacturing Industries In spite of the existence of such potential factors as motive power, ample fuel and labour resources, the manufacturing industries in Manchuria have lagged behind owing to the lack of industrial knowledge and shortage of capital. The Government is therefore making strenuous efforts for the development of manufacturing industries. For this purpose, rationalization of management and intelligent control are deemed necessary. With the increased cultivation and improvement of wheat, raw cotton, wool and hemp, for which the Government is now working, the flour milling, cotton spinning, hemp manufacturing and woollen textile industries will see greater development. Chemical industries including the light metal industries, and the manufacture of soda, oil shale products, cement, pulp, alcohol and sulphate of ammonia will also be stimulated shortly.

The Government is working for the rational development of industries by instituting necessary measures of control over various industries, instead of leaving them to the indiscriminate exploitation of entrepreneurs due to free competition. With respect to the electric and gas enterprises, the Government is endeavouring to remove the wasteful competition and bring them under a unified management. At the same time it is considering the promulgation of new regulations concerning the electrical industry. To secure a cheap supply of electricity, the Government has officially fixed the frequency at 50 cycles, and has subsidized the Association of Electrical Enterprisers in that manner.

Transportation and Communications

Railways before the Great War The first construction of railways in Manchoukuo was made by Great Britain and Russia, starting about 1890. Great Britain established the North China Railway which now connects Peiping with Mukden. Later this line was extended to Suichang, about 90 kilometres from Shanhaikwan, and then in 1903, the main line was extended to Hsinmintun on the middle course of the Liao River, and a branch line to Yingkow on the lower stream of the Liao, which was only open port of Manchuria until October, 1903.

In 1896, Russia obtained the right of constructing and operating a railway line crossing North Manchuria east and west. Then in 1898, she secured a similar right to construct a branch line from Harbin on the main line to Port Authur and Dairen as well as to Yingkow. The construction of the main line extending from Manchoukuo to Vladivostok via Pogranichnaya was finished in 1901, and the southern line, including the Yingkow branch, was completed in 1903. The main and branch lines, comprising 2,500 kilometres, were opened to traffic on July, 1903.

By the terms of the Portsmouth Treaty, Japan succeeded to the Russian railway in Manchuria, south of Changchun, or Hsinking, totalling about 840 kilometres. Also Japan secured the right of improving the light railway between Antung and Mukden from China, about 290 kilometres. In 1912, Japan completed construction of the Kirin-Changchun Railway, 128 kilometres.

The above is an outline of railway construction in Manchuria prior to the Great War. By that time the total length of railways in Manchuria reached 4,035 kilometres, of which railways constructed by Japanese, Japanese loan and Sino-Japanese joint capital were 1,265 kilometres, lines constructed by Russia 1,726 kilometres, and that constructed through British loan 1,014 kilometres, while the line constructed by China

stretched only for 29 kilometres.

Present Railway Situation While the area of Manchoukuo is about 1,300,000 square kilometres, which is three times the area of Japan proper, or about 1.9 times the entire area of the Japanese Empire, or slightly larger than the area of Germany and France put together, the total mileage of the railways in the country is about 8,440.3 kilometres, including poorly constructed light railways. It is less than one-third of the total railway length of Japan, which is about 25,600 kilometres. The railway per one thousand square kilometres of area is about 54 kilometres in Japan, but in Manchoukuo it is only 6.5 kilometres, a little over one-tenth of the rate in Japan, though somewhat better than China in which country the rate is but one kilometre.

Railways in Manchoukuo comprise the state railways, now extending 6,955.9 km., the South Manchuria Railway Co. lines which extend 1,129 km. and private railways extending 355.3 km. which total 8,440.3 km. At the end of 1931, shortly before the founding of Manchoukuo, the total length of railways in Manchuria was 6,252.3 km., or 2,188 km. less than the present length.

As transportation routes, which serve as substituting or supplementary lines to the railways, there are motor roads, water-ways, and coastwise ship lines. Motor roads in the former Three Eastern Provinces stretched only 13,200 kilometres in 1928, which excludes roads in cities, towns and villages. Compared with 43,200 kilometres of motor roads as of 1927 in Japan, which excludes the roads in cities, towns and villages, the Manchurian roads are still few and undeveloped. Manchoukuo, having a coast line of only 855 kilometres on the Sea of Pechili, the coastwise ship lines are not worth mentioning. There are, however, good inland water-ways as Manchurian rivers run through great plains from their sources to the sea. Particularly the Sungari River is navigable by ships of more than 1,000 tons for a distance of about 700 kilometres from its confluence with the Amur to Harbin. But the great drawback to the river is that during the five months of freezing in winter, steamship navigation is impossible, although motor cars can use the frozen river as a highway during these winter months. Next comes the Liao River, but this is not navigable for large ships as the stream near its mouth is shallow.

Railway Policy of Manchoukuo Railways come under the supervision of the Minister of Communications. In view of the fact that railways in Manchoukuo were still in an undeveloped stage the Manchoukuo Government deemed it advisable to entrust the management to an experienced body, and placed the management of the entire state railways in charge of the South Manchuria Railway on March 1, 1933. Thereupon, the latter created the General Direction of State Railways with its headquarters at Mukden and entrusted to it the management of the state railways and the business attached to them. Since then the railway business and the construction work which is also taken care of by the General Direction have made rapid progress.

An epocal change of the framework of the South Manchuria Railway Company was introduced on October 1, 1936. The most important one is unification of the South Manchuria Railway proper, State railways of Manchoukuo, North Korea Railway and construction of new railways under one management, that is, the Railway General Direction of the railway company with its vice-president as the bureau's director. Thus, the State Railways of Manchoukuo, which operations used to be entrusted to the South Manchuria Railway Company on contract and which operated by the General Direction, were established by the company, independently of the company's own network. This General Direction, however, was no longer independent, but was included into the S. M. R. Company's framework on October 1, 1936. Simultaneously, the Railway Department of the S.M.R. Co. was abolished and was included into the General Direction of the company. It now controls the railway lines with a total length of 8,895 kilometres on January 1, 1937. The whole railway lines are controlled by five railway bureaus and three railway offices as follows: Chinhsien Bureau controlling 1,594 kilometres; Kirin Bureau 1,181 kilometres; Mutan Bureau 1,177 kilometres; Harbin Bureau 1,426 kilometres; Tsitsihar Bureau 2,041 kilometres; Dairen Office 481 kilometres; Mukden Office 647 kilometres; and North Korea Office 344 kolometres. The total number of railway employés was 114,000 at the end of August, 1936.

Receipts of the South Manchuria Railway proper forming the company's business nucleus for the 1935–36 year amounted to ¥134,686,176 as against expenditures totalling ¥50,655,794. The profit amounted to ¥84,030,382, increasing ¥10,786,637 over the year before. This set an all-time record. No business results of the Manchoukuo State

Railways have been made public so far, in consideration of defence, but, according to unofficial report, their business receipts for the 1935–36 year amounted to ¥120,620,000 as against their expenditures totalling ¥106,180,000. Expenditures spent for their enterprises for the year totalled ¥36,000,000.

The status of the railways at the end of 1933 and new constructions made since October, 1933 follows :

S. M. R. CO.'S LINES

Lines	Terminals	Distance in kilometre
Dairen-Wharf	Dairen Station and Wharves	3
Nankwanling-Kanchingtzu	Nankwanling and Kanchingtzu	12
Shakako-Irifune	Shakako and Irifune	4
S.M.R. Main Line	Dairen and Hsinking	701
Dairen-Port Arthur	Choushuitsu and Port Arthur	51
Tashihchao-Yingkou	Tashihchao and Yingkou	22
Mukden-Antung	Suchiatun and Antung	261
Mukden-Fushun	Suchiatun and Fushun	56
	Hunho and Yushutai	15
Tafanshen-Liushutun	Tafanshen and Liushutun (unopened)	6
Total		1,131

MANCHOUKUO STATE RAILWAYS

(Including lines completed after the incident)

Lines	Terminals	Distance in kilometre
Hsinking-Tumen	Hsinking and Tumen	528
,,	Chaoho and Jengtzushan	10
Kirin-Hailung	Kirin and Chaoyangchen	183
Mukden-Hailung	Mukden and Chaoyangchen	271
,,	Shaho and Hsian	67
Fengtien-Shanhaikwan	Mukden and Shanhaikwan	423
,,	Kuopangtzu and Yingkou	91
,,	Chinchou and Peipiao	113
,,	Tahushan and Tungliao	251
,,	Lienshan and Hulutao	12
Sspingkai-Taonan	Sspingkai and Taonan	317
,,	Chengchiatun and Tungliao	114
Taonan-Angangchi	Taonan and Angangchi	224
Angangchi-Peian	Angangchi and Peian	261
,,	Ningnen and Noho	87
,,	Yushutun and Chungtung	5
Hulan-Hailun	Manchuankou and Peian	327
Taonan-Solun	Taonan and Hwaiyuanchen	84
Harbin-Lafa	Harbin and Lafa	272
Chaoyangchuan-Tumenho	Chaoyangchuan and Tumenho	60
Koupeiyingtzu-Chaoyan	Koupeiyingtzu and Chaoyan	40
Total		3,740

NORTH MANCHURIA RAILWAY LINES

	Terminals	Distance in kilometre
	Harbin and Manchouli	935
	Harbin and Suifengho	546
	Harbin and Hsinking	240
Total		1,721

OTHER RAILWAY LINES

Lines	Terminals	Distance in kilometre
Chinchou-Pitzuwo	Chinchou and Chengtzutung	102
Shaochengtzu-Liyuku	Shaochengtzu and Liyukou	63
Kaiyuan-Hsifeng	Kaiyuan and Hsifeng	64
Liengkou-Hsingshancheng	Lienkiangkou and Hsingshancheng	56
Penchihu-Ninshintai	Penchihu and Ninshintai	26
Tsitsihar-Angangchi	Tsitsihar and Angangchi	29
Total		340
Grand total		6,932

The new railway lines which were constructed after October 1933 are as follows:

NEW RAILWAY LINES CONSTRUCTED AFTER THE INCIDENT

Since Oct., 1933

	(In km.)
Tunhua-Tumen line	189.9
Taian-Peian line	102.6
Peian-Hailun line	106.0
Laha-Nungho line	38.8
Kaishantun-Chaoyangchuan	60.0
Lafe-Harbin line	271.7
Chinlingaze-Linyuan line	156.7
Peian-Chenching line	135.5
Hsinking-Nungan line	62.4
Lishoukou-Luhtao line	30.6
Paichengtze-Wangyehmiao line	11.8
Lutao-Ningan line	102.7
Nungan-Chienkuochi line	87.6
Linyuan-Pingchuan line	87.2
Chenching-Heiho line	166.0
Wangyemiao-Solun line	107.9
Lishoukou-Tumen line	115.4
Mutankiang-Linkou line	110.0
Yehpeishow-Chifeng line	147.1
Chienkuochi-Talai line	64.8
Talai-Taoan line	120.0

State Railways The transference of the North Manchuria Railway by the U.S.S.R. to Manchoukuo made it possible for the General Direction of State Railways to unify the control over the whole of railways in Manchoukuo. The lines which are entrusted to the General Direction number, on Jan. 1, 1936, 31 which extend 6,835.6 km. In addition there are three lines which are temporarily engaged in business and extend in length to 362.4 km. These are together supervised and managed by the General Direction. There are subbureaux in the General Direction located at Mukden, Kirin, Harbin and Tsitsihar.

As regards business conditions of the railways under the General Direction the Government does not yet permit publication of the working results. It is, however, roughly estimated that the total receipts in 1934 amounted to ¥66,550,000 of which ¥16,040,000 were from passenger traffic and ¥50,510,000 from goods carried, which was an increase of ¥15,000,000 as compared with the receipts of 1933. The number of passengers and the amount of goods carried and receipts therefrom follow:

NUMBER OF PASSENGERS CARRIED AND RECEIPTS THEREFROM 1932-1934

Sub-bureaux	Passengers 1932	1933	1934	Receipts 1932	1933	1934
Mukden	2,927,736	3,584,262	3,520,929	5,535,179	7,333,578	7,797,994
Kirin	1,489,243	2,057,757	2,855,284	1,990,616	2,935,383	3,980,372
Harbin	386,116	696,302	1,227,601	548,682	822,803	1,768,011
Tsitsihar	1,413,383	1,734,980	1,653,133	2,892,118	3,614,577	4,305,533
Total	6,216,478	8,073,301	9,256,947	10,966,595	14,706,341	17,851,910

AMOUNT OF GOODS CARRIED AND RECEIPTS THEREFROM 1933-1934

Districts of Subbureaux	Goods Carried in m.t. 1933	1934	Increase or Decrease	Receipts in yen 1933	1934	Increase or Decrease
Mukden	3,102,654	2,797,671	304,983	12,291,495	12,504,280	×212,785
Hsinking	3,087,159	2,049,611	1,037,548	12,039,866	6,190,111	5,849,755
Harbin	1,897,809	1,120,269	777,540	8,771,797	2,219,842	6,551,955
Taonan	3,807,878	2,932,490	875,388	17,410,316	15,165,411	2,244,905
Total	11,895,500	8,900,041	2,995,459	50,513,474	36,079,644	14,433,830

Water Transportation For the purpose of regulating shipping on the rivers in Manchoukuo, the Government has promulgated the River Shipping Law, in addition to establishing a navigation bureau in Harbin, Yingkow and Antung for the administration of matters relating to water courses, harbours, shipping, and water transportation in general. The Yingkow Navigation Bureau in January, 1934, took over the Liao River Conservancy Board, which had up till then been operating independently of the Government. This action taken in view of the difficulties the Board was encountering in carrying out its projects owing to the lack of funds.

Steamers and sailing boats operating under the Manchoukuo flag at the end of September, 1935, numbered as follows:

Registered at Harbin:
116 steamers with 50,893 tons;
284 "pachuan" boats with 76,465 tons,
107 sailing boats with 3,630 tons.
Registered at Yingkow:
58 steamers with 19,875 tons;
245 sailing boats with 6,987 tons.
Registered at Tutung:
13 steamers with 630 tons;
150 sailing boats with 2,597 tons.

Rivers The rivers of Manchoukuo are serving as important transportation routes supplementing the insufficient railway lines, as they run for long distances from their sources to the sea and mostly traverse large plains. The largest river is the Sungari, and the second is the Liao. The Sungari and the Liao Rivers with their numerous branch streams traverse south and north of Manchuria and give facilities for boat and steamship navigation.

The Sungari River is a branch of the Amur or Heilungkiang River and for a distance of about 700 kilometres from its confluence with the Amur River upstream to Harbin, it is wide and deep with more than 7 feet of water, and is possible for navigation by steamships of more than 1,000 tons. The river traffic is very busy in this section. Whence small steamships and junks are able to navigate a further distance of 500 kilometres on the main stream to Kirin, and also on its north-western affluent, the Nonni River, up to Tsitsihar. But the Sungari and its branches have the disadvantages of being frozen in winter for about five months.

In the contract drawn between Manchoukuo and the South Manchuria Railway Co. in the management of the State Railways there is a clause providing that in the management of part of the water transportation on the Sungari River rests with the General Direction of State Railways. On the strength of it the General Direction operates vessels under its management and their vessels engage in the transportation work on the river. The routes number 12 and covers 5,194 km. Passengers embarked and landed at various points and goods loaded and discharged in 1935 follow :

PASSENGERS EMBARKED AND ARRIVED AT VARIOUS POINTS ALONG THE SUNGARI RIVER IN 1935

	Points of Arrival					
Points Embarked	Harbin	Ilan	Chiamussu	Fuchin	Others	Total
Harbin	—	12,052	9,146	9,860	49,782	80,840
Ilan	10,424	—	3,860	1,479	16,429	32,192
Chiamussu	8,000	4,408	—	4,013	14,909	31,330
Fuchin	10,472	1,551	3,918	—	19,579	35,520
Heiho	3,206	10	43	264	9,454	12,978
Hulin	1,426	22	66	125	1,456	3,095
Others	49,718	15,626	14,915	13,214	88,488	186,961
Total	83,246	33,669	31,948	33,955	200,098	382,916

VOLUME OF CARGOES CARRIED ON THE RIVER IN 1935

(Unit in m.t.)

Points of Loading	Soy Bean	Wheat	Articles Various Cereals	Coal	Lumber	Others	Total
Harbin	—	—	509	2,673	299	59,411	62,891
Ilan	81,923	1,797	442	—	16,504	1,451	112,118
Chiamussu	30,938	18,763	90	—	604	2,608	52,643
Fuchin	45,598	28,763	1,681	—	205	6,901	83,143
Heiho	11	—	—	—	1,401	2,140	3,635
Hulin	—	—	—	—	—	29	31
Others	166,166	35,298	12,767	205,763	45,269	42,344	502,607
Total	324,636	79,261	15,574	208,436	74,277	114,885	817,069

Motor Bus Line The motor bus business has expanded enormously with the construction of new highways. On September 1, 1935, there were 90 bus lines operating 725 cars as the following figures show :

	No. of Bus Lines	Total Length	No. of Motor cars	Capital Invested
State	28	3,746	318	M¥2,409,382
Private	62	4,185 km.	507	2,738,400
Total	90	7,931 km.	725	5,147,782

All bus services along railway lines or running parallel to such lines, and other routes which will later become railways, as well as those which play an important rôle in the opening up of undeveloped regions and in the maintenance of peace and order, and which are not paying propositions are managed by the State through the General Direction of State Railways as a subsidiary business of the latter. The other bus lines, however, are left to private management.

State Highways On March 3, 1933, the Bureau of State Highways was established to undertake the building of national highways. In Hsinking, Mukden and Tsitsihar local state highway construction offices were opened and each was entrusted with the construction of State roads within its territory. The Bureau has spent so far M¥15,600,000 for building and improving roads.

By the end of June, 1935, a total of 58 State highways extending 5,471.4 km. were completed. If finished sections of the other uncompleted highways are added the total length would reach 6,378 km. At the outset the State Highways Bureau drew up a road construction programme calling for the completion of 60,000 km. of new highways during the next ten years. The programme included the following :

A. First class roads (connecting the capital with chief cities or ports) 12,500 km.
B. Second class roads (between chief cities) 12,500 km.
C. Third class roads (between hsiens) 35,000 km.

Air Transport Civil aviation has made rapid strides since the advent of the new State. At present there are no less than 13 regular air routes, stretching 4,715 km., operated by the Manchuria Air Transport Company which was established in October, 1932, with a capital of M¥3,580,000. Aviation in this country is favoured by the vastness of territory and suitable climatic and topographic conditions. The air routes are as follows :

1. Hsinking-Mukden-Shingishu.
2. Harbin-Hsinking-Mukden-Dairen.
3. Hsinking-Harbin-Tsitsihar-Manchouli.
4. Hsinking-Taonan-Tsitsihar.
5. Tsitsihar-Nonkiang-Taheiho.
6. Hsinking-Kirin-Yentai-Hungchingtsun-Seishin.
7. Harbin-Peianchen-Taheiho.
8. Harbin-Ilan-Chiamussu-Fuchin.
9. Mukden-Chinchow-Shanhaikwan.
10. Mukden-Chinchow-Chaoyang-Linyuan-Jehol.
11. Mukden-Chinchow-Chaoyang-Chihfeng.
12. Harbin-Mutankiang-Suifenho-Misan-Hulin-Taheiho-Fuchin.
13. Harbin-Mutankiang-Poli-Chiamussu.

South Manchuria Railway Co. This railway was acquired by Japan as a result of the Portsmouth Treaty of September, 1905, and the Sino-Japanese Treaty of December, 1905. The rights Japan secured in respect to the railway line between Dairen and Hsinking, and branch lines, were those originally held by Russia. The company is capitalized at ¥800,000,000 following the issuance of 3,600,000 new shares of ¥100 each on August 10,1933. Until then the capital of the company was ¥440,000,000, one-half of which was held by the Japanese Government, the other half being distributed among private shareholders.

The president and vice-president of the company are appointed by the Japanese Government with Imperial sanction, while the directors are also appointed by the Government, though without Imperial sanction. The auditors are elected from among the shareholders.

(1) Volume of Business. Since its formal organization in 1906 the railway business of this company has grown with the years as is shown in the following table :

Year	Passenger Revenue	Freight Revenue	Other Revenue	Total
1907	¥ 3,594,239	¥ 6,160,274	¥ 14,375	¥ 9,768,887
1912	5,008,633	13,913,341	985,482	19,907,456
1916	6,040,453	19,882,476	1,892,420	27,815,349
1921	12,194,288	59,615,835	6,394,010	78,204,132
1926	15,216,353	89,513,059	3,194,155	107,923,567
1927	16,102,953	94,040,819	3,100,408	113,244,180
1928	17,619,293	97,738,147	3,281,649	118,639,090
1929	17,451,585	101,089,474	3,562,684	122,103,743
1930	11,461,175	77,936,688	5,932,867	95,330,730
1931	9,135,663	70,897,756	4,539,937	84,573,356
1932	14,812,045	85,022,314	4,012,153	103,846,512
1933	16,434,000	94,263,000	8,980,000	119,677,000
1934	17,405,000	101,489,000	7,631,000	126,525,000
1935	22,412,000	103,362,000	8,911,000	134,686,000

Among the goods transported by this railway, beans, bean cake, cereals and coals are the most important items.

(2) Accessory Business. In addition to its transportation business, the company is engaged in activities in many other fields including manufacturing, warehousing, shipping, mining, real estate and building, and various public works.

(a) As regards manufacturing, the company makes and repairs its own locomotives and other rolling stock at its Dairen shop, which occupies a site of 340,000 tsubo in area.

(b) The company operates warehousing business at 31 different places at the wharf of Dairen and along its railway lines.

(c) As for marine transportation, the company started a steamship service between Dairen and Shanghai in 1907. The opening of the Tsingtao line and the Hong-Kong line followed later, the latter being intended to facilitate the shipping of the company's coal, mined at Fushun, to South China.

All these three lines were later transferred to the Dairen Steamship Company, which is capitalized at ¥25,000,000 by the company.

(d) Harbours are a wing of the railway business and is in inseparable position from it. Therefore, the South Manchuria Co., Ltd. has invested a sum amounting to ¥97,280,000 in Dairen, Port Arthur, Antung and Yingkow. A special attention has been devoted to the improvement of the harbour of Dairen, and the greater half of the entire harbour programme has already been finished, its present facilities being capable of handling 7,000,000 tons of freight annually with a berthing capacity of 190,000 tons of shipping at the same time.

Dairen. Dairen is at the extreme end of the Kwantung Penninsula, and has a population of 400,000, being the second largest city in Manchuria. It was leased in 1898 by Russia and was made an open port in July, 1907. Soon the harbour was much improved so as to berth simultaneously 27 steamships, ranging from 1,000 tons to 25,000 tons. Furthermore, in 1930, a coal wharf was constructed at Kanchingtzu on the other side of the bay opposite Dairen. The harbour freezes in winter from December to February, but only slightly and the entrance and departure of ships are made possible by the use of ice-breakers. The management of the wharf is conducted by the South Manchuria Railway Company under the supervision of the Kwantung government.

The trade via Dairen now totals M¥703,000,000 a year, or 75 per cent of the entire trade of Manchuria. In passenger traffic, Dairen occupies a very important position in the Europe-Asia international routes. From this port the South Manchuria Railway Company operates international trains to connect with the Korean Railway to Japan, and with the North Manchuria Railway and the Trans-Siberia Railway to Europe.

The recent traffic at the port of Dairen is shown in the following tables :

PASSENGER TRAFFIC AT DAIREN

Passengers Embarking	1931	1932	1933	1934
Manchurians	183,956	239,393	252,465	232,905
Japanese	47,376	56,332	77,674	87,876

Passengers Embarking	1931	1932	1933	1934
Others	4,076	4,885	5,832	4,932
Total	235,405	300,610	335,971	325,713
Landing				
Manchurians	236,864	240,286	346,099	404,317
Japanese	52,942	83,161	119,418	125,893
Others	4,021	4,821	6,729	10,670
Total	293,827	328,268	472,246	536,680

EXPORTS FROM DAIREN

(In metric tons)

Commodities	1931	1932	1933	1934
Soy beans	1,398,611	1,878,231	1,985,532	1,930,000
Kaoliang	88,225	173,723	64,459	—
Other cereals	318,719	339,017	292,237	813,000
Bean oil	140,604	102,325	67,238	85,000
Bean cake	904,408	892,939	692,708	807,000
Coal	2,481,671	2,156,689	2,807,503	3,266,000
Pig iron	197,323	268,117	427,231	305,000
Others	403,613	395,247	536,829	—
Total	5,933,174	6,206,288	6,873,737	7,206,000

IMPORTS THROUGH DAIREN

(In metric tons)

Commodities	1931	1932	1933	1934
Fruits	19,272	39,950	103,770	97,000
Cotton	23,774	31,205	—	—
Petroleum and light oil	20,923	41,159	77,488	181,000
Wheat flour	84,591	165,790	290,796	388,000
Sugar	41,395	90,339	87,799	70,000
Cotton yarn and cotton clothes	34,099	54,308	—	56,000
Iron and copper manufactures	73,852	155,793	350,010	500,000
Others	488,618	689,876	1,259,994	793,000
Total	786,525	1,268,420	2,169,857	2,085,000

Other Ports. Yingkow harbour is situated at a place 21 kilometres above the mouth of the Liao River. Its depth is from 7 to 20 metres, but the greatest defect of Yingkow harbour is its shallowness, as the water is only 2 to 1.5 metres deep at low tide. Exports, which consist of soy beans, bean cake, coal, pig iron, amount to over 1,300,000 tons while about 350,000 tons of commodities are imported through this port annually.

The harbour of Antung is located 31 kilometres above Hsintao at the mouth of the Yalu River. At Antung the river is from 1,000 to 1,500 metres wide, and the water under the Antung Railway Bridge is 3.7 metres deep at average low tide. But the water in front of Wutaokou in the lower stream shoals at low tide is only 0.9 to 1.8 metres deep. This shallowness in the lower stream has greatly hindered the development of Antung. Also, the river freezes from November to February. Though Antung has such defects, it possesses the advantage of being able to surpass other Manchurian harbours as a shipping port for lumber.

Conditions of these two and other ports are, in 1934, illustrated by the following tables :

ARRIVALS AND DEPARTURE OF VESSELS

Wharfs	Steamers No.	Tonnage M. tons	Junks No.
Dairen	5,377	16,219,000	880
Port Arthur	138	333,000	—
Yingkow	674	1,403,000	4,660
Antung	—	—	830
Total	6,189	17,955,000	6,370

VOLUME OF IMPORTS & EXPORTS

	Imports m.t.	Exports m.t.	Total m.t.
Dairen	3,074,000	7,660,000	10,734,000
Port Arthur	20,000	278,000	297,000
Yingkow	354,000	1,324,000	1,679,000
Antung	199,000	36,000	235,000
Total	3,647,000	9,298,000	12,945,000

(e) In mining, the company operates coal mines at Fushun and Yentai, and in addition to this, it is also engaged in shale-oil mining and steel foundry work.

(f) In the railway zone, the company is engaged in the real estate, building business and municipal administration, attending to the needs of sanitation, education and policing, while at the same time promoting agriculture, industry, commerce and mining in this area. The sum invested by the Company in these branches of work amounts to ¥188,620,000.

(g) The landed estate owned by this company extends over a total area of 371,430,000 square metres, of which approximately 59,000,000 square metres is leased to individuals. The company also owns some 14,200 buildings, of which 859 are rented to individuals.

(h) Another notable achievement of the company is its city-planning in various places. Up to the present it has built 25 cities at Liaoyang, Mukden, Hsinking, Yingkow, Antung, and other places. In these places the company has constructed roads, bridges, sewerage, schools, parks, markets and other modern municipal facilities.

(i) In education, the company now operates 26 kindergartens, 36 primary Schools, 5 middle schools, 4 girls' high schools, 2 colleges, one university, 10 public schools for Chinese students, 34 business supplementary schools, 13 girls' housekeeping schools, 2 commercial schools, one mining school, and six other schools. It has also opened two public libraries, one each at Dairen and Mukden, and 21 other reading rooms.

(j) Among other enterprises of the company are 16 hospitals and 5 branches, and for research and experimental work it carries on a hygienic station, an agricultural station, a farm, a tobacco farm, a geological research station, a central experimental station, and other institutions.

(3) There are in Manchoukuo 72 companies directly connected with the S.M.R. Co., with an aggregate paid-up capital of M¥461,675,000, about 43 per cent of which being borne by the mother company.

Communications (1) Postal and Telegraph Service. The post office is under the direction of the Department of Communications and Manchoukuo now has 353 post offices and 783 postal agencies, as compared with 283 and 720, respectively, in March, 1932. Since July, 1932, postal charges for both domestic and foreign mails have been reduced. Postal savings which were started in May, 1933, now total M¥1,150,000 (end of Aug., 1935). Money orders can be exchanged between this country and Japan, as well as China, Germany, Dutch Indies, Poland and Netherlands. Ordinary mail between Manchoukuo and China, too, is now exchanged without serious hitch, while international postal air service has also been inaugurated.

With the pacification of Jehol in 1933, the Government succeeded in bringing the postal administration throughout the country under its complete control. Since then postal charges have been reduced for both domestic and foreign mails. In May, 1933, postal savings, telegraphic transfer, postal note and savings transfer, and account services were opened for the benefit of the masses. In addition the new administration has inaugurated an international postal air service. Mail matters collected and delivered by Manchoukuo in recent years follow :

MAIL MATTERS COLLECTED AND DELIVERED IN KWANTUNG PROVINCE AND THE S.M.R. ZONE

	Collected	Delivered
1933–34	146,894,363	119,848,362
1934–35	154,304,137	152,794,660

There are the following telegraph lines between Manchuria and Japan proper :

Dairen-Sasebo submarine cable, laid during the Russo-Japanese War.
Dairen-Osaka direct line, via Korea, laid in May, 1919.
Mukden-Osaka direct line, via Korea, laid in June, 1919.
Dairen-Nagasaki submarine cable, laid in April, 1921, by the South Manchuria Railway Company and leased by the government.
Mukden-Shimonoseki direct line, via Korea, laid in December, 1926.

Although the telegraph and telephone enterprises were formerly under the control and management of the Depart-

ment of Communications, they were amalgamated into the Manchuria Telegraph and Telephone Company, a Manchoukuo-Japanese joint enterprise with a capital of M¥50,000,000 in August, 1933. This step was taken to unify all electric communication enterprises in the country. Since its establishment, telegraphic communications between principal cities in the country have been improved and with the completion of wireless service at Hsinking on Aug. 1, 1934, it succeeded not only in effecting wireless telephone service with Japan, but also in opening the service with Europe and America. The telegraph and telephone offices throughout the country now total 376, twice the number recorded at the time of the founding of the State. A 100-kw. broadcasting station, one of the largest in the Far East, was opened in Hsinking in November, 1934, while the stations at Harbin and Mukden were reorganized to meet the requirements of the times. Following tables show the status of telegraph and telephone services in Manchoukuo in recent years.

TELEGRAMS DESPATCHED AND RECEIVED IN KWANTUNG PROVINCE AND THE S.M.R. ZONE

Year	Despatched	Received
1933-34	3,370,794	3,146,673
1934-35	3,861,807	3,532,926

Telephone Subscribers

Year	No.	Year	No.
1931-32	19,640	1933-34	23,237
1932-33	21,255	1934-35	32,271

Justice and Police

General The present judicial system of Manchoukuo comes largely from the old Chinese system, which existed before the founding of Manchoukuo.

Before the unification of the country by the National Government, the number and grades of new courts established in China proper, the Three Eastern Provinces and other districts were as follows :

1. Supreme court, 1; supreme court prosecutorate, 1 at Nanging.
2. High court and high court prosecutorate, 23.
3. Branch high court and branch high court prosecutorate, 26.
4. District court and district court prosecutorate, 66.
5. Branch district court and branch district court prosecutorate, 25.

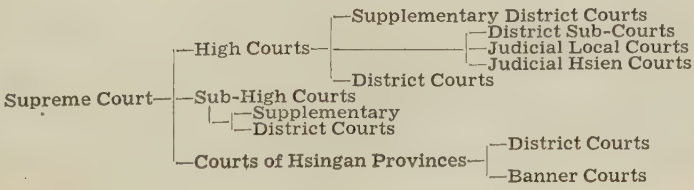
After the founding of Manchoukuo the old system has been revised several times due to the contradiction it involves being inimical to the other existing systems and the obstacles it offered against the smooth working of laws.

Judicial System According to the principle of the independence of the four divisions of government of Manchoukuo the judicial power is invested direct with the Emperor, and its independence is assured by making it independent of the cabinet.

The present judicial system of Manchoukuo is based upon the Organic law promulgated on March 1, 1934, and in accordance with this law many improvements have since been effected seeking to give fair and speedy trial to all.

Manchoukuo makes the abolition of extraterritoriality as the fundamental national policy and preparations for that purpose are progressing. A general programme has been already mapped out for the improvement of courts and prisons, as well as for the establishment of a new system for police and new procurator's offices. For the training of competent judicial officers, a number of judical experts from Japan have been engaged as advisers and instructors. A law school for training Manchurian judicial officers has been established.

The defect of the old régime was the want of a central and well organized judiciary. Laws were dead letter because there were no efficient courts to expound and define their true meaning and operation. The organization of the courts of Manchoukuo to-day stands as follows :



COURTS

Institutions	Kirin	Lung-kiang	Fengtien	Antung	Chinchow	Ping-kiang	Sang-kiang
Supreme court	1	—	—	—	—	—	—
High courts & sub-high courts	1	(1)	1	(1)	—	1,(1)	(1)
District courts & supplementary district courts	2	(1)	10	1,(1)	1	4,(1)	(1)
District sub-courts & judicial local courts	—	(2)	6	2	1	1	—
Ssufakungshu	5	—	6	3	1	4	—
Chienlissufahsienkunshu	10	3	9	4	7	20	13
Cheng-shenso	—	1	—	—	2	—	1
Judicial hsien courts	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	19	8	29	12	12	32	16

Institutions	Lunk-iang	Heiho	Jehol	East Hsing-an	South Hsing-an	West Hsing-an	North Hsing-an	Total
Supreme court	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
High courts & sub-high courts	1	—	1	1	1	1	1	9 (4)
District courts & supplementary district courts	3	—	1	—	—	—	—	22 (4)
District sub-courts & judicial local courts	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	12 (2)
Ssufakungshu	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	19
Chienlissufahsienkungshu	22	8	—	—	1	—	—	94
Cheng-shenso	—	—	12	—	—	—	—	19
Judicial hsien courts	—	—	—	5	8	9	6	28
Total	26	8	14	6	10	10	9	211

Remarks: Figures in parenthesis are sub-high courts, supplementary district courts and judicial local courts.

Prosecutorates

Institutions	Kirin	Lung-kiang	Fengtien	Antung	Chinchow	Ping-kiang	Sang-kiang
Supreme prosecutorate	1	—	—	—	—	—	—
High proc'te & sub-high prosecutorates	1	(1)	1	(1)	—	1,(1)	(1)
District proc'te & sup'rly dist'ct proc'tes	2	(1)	10	1,(1)	1	4,(1)	(1)
District subproc'te & judical local proc'tes	—	(2)	1	2	1	1	—
Ssufakungshu	5	—	6	3	1	4	—
Chienlissufahsienkungshu	10	3	9	4	7	20	13
Cheng shenso	—	1	—	—	2	—	1
Hsin proc'tes	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	19	8	29	12	12	32	16

Institutions	Lunk-iang	Heiho	Jehol	East Hsing-an	South Hsing-an	West Hsing-an	North Hsing-an	Total
Supreme prosecutorate	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
High proc'te & sub-high prosecutorates	1	—	1	1	1	1	1	9,(4)
District proc'te & sup'rly dist'ct proc'tes	3	—	1	—	—	—	—	22,(2)
District subproc'te & judical local proc'tes	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	12,(2)
Ssufakungshu	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	19
Chienlissufahsienkungshu	22	8	—	—	1	—	—	94
Cheng shenso	—	—	12	—	—	—	—	16
Hsin proc'tes	—	—	—	5	8	9	6	28
Total	26	8	14	6	10	10	9	211

Police System With the founding of Manchoukuo, the police administration was put under supervision of the Minister of Civil Affairs, and a new police system was founded, which would suit the particular conditions of each province. According to the investigation made by the police bureau in the Department of Civil Affairs in November of 1932, the total number of police was 101,000.

As organs for training police there are the Central Police School, Local Police Schools and police training schools. Superior police are sent to Japan for further study there for a year and in 1935 students numbering 30 were despatched for that purpose to Japan for the fourth time. From 5 to 20 experienced Japanese policemen are engaged in various hsiens and they are directing police in general in various provinces.

Education and Religion

General Public education in Manchoukuo, except in the Hsingan provinces, comes under the jurisdiction of the Department of Education. In the provinces, education, in accordance with the policy as outlined by the Department of Education, is governed by the Department of Mongolian Administration.

Works in education are being organized under and undertaken by School Education and Social Works Bureaux. The primary object of school education is character building with the principle of equal opportunity for all which is the basis of the entire educational system. Anti-foreignism which the former régime fostered has been entirely done away with, and the ideas of "Wangtao" are inculcated in the minds of the children. Compilation of new text-books is progressing rapidly and in most of the schools the new text-books are already in use. Practically vocational training is another important work of the schools.

Schools The number and kinds of schools, and the number of instructors and pupils are as follws :

Kind of School	No.	No. of Students	No. of Instructors
Primary school	10,925	596,688	19,632
	*2,959		
Middle school	173	26,021	1,820
	×33		
Normal school	109	8,727	701
	36		
Vocational school	41	4,592	428
	×5		
Universities and colleges	7	1,987	306
	×3		
Private school	1,624	29,952	1,639
Total	12,884	667,967	24,526
	×3,236		

Remarks: * denotes the number in contemplation.

Social and Cultural Education In the field of social education, the national traits of the people and the actual conditions of the country are given due consideration. A five-year programme is being worked out for adult education. Cultural work covers a vast field of activities, and it must of necessity proceed gradually.

Beginning with 1934 an annual subsidy of M¥40,000 is being granted from the national treasury to improve and expand the work for adult education. In all some 2,236 schools now exist for adults. In addition there are 72 popular educational institutes and 55 lecture halls.

The National Library was established in Mukden in April, 1932, while in June, 1935, the National Museum was opened also in Mukden, which contains mementos of the country's once illustrious history. These institutions will undoubtedly help to promote the nation's cultural enterprises. The authorities have already taken steps so preserve historic buildings and relics throughout the country. The Lama temples and other architectures in Jehol are receiving special attention of the Government which has decided to expend M¥23,000 for preliminary investigation necessary to their permanent preservation.

Institutions by Western Peoples Educational institutions maintained by Western peoples are under the management of religious workers.

These educational establishments are mostly carried on by the British, French, German, and Danish nationals. The schools maintained by foreign missions in Manchuria were as follows, in 1929.

	Primary School	Secondary School	Others
Fengtien province	111	10	11
Kirin province	31	1	2
Lungkiang province	7	—	—
Total	149	11	13
Number of students	2,785	1,188	455

As regards schools for Russians there are 14 secondary schools, 8 primary schools, and 3 kindergartens of the Soviet Union in the Tungsheng Special District.

Institutions Maintained by Japanese The educational institutions maintained by the Japanese in Manchuria may be divided into those for the education of the Japanese (there are separate institutions for Koreans) and those for the education of the Chinese. These educational institutions are controlled by the Kwantung government in the Kwantung Leased Territory, and by the South Manchuria Railway Company in the railway zone, and by Japanese consulates in the consular districts.

In 1907 there were only six primary schools in Manchuria maintained by the Japanese. At present, however, there are numerous primary schools, middle schools, and higher schools established throughout Manchuria, the latest available figures of which are tabulated below :

	For Japanese		For Manchus	
	No. of Schools	No. of Students	No. of Schools	No. of Students
Primary education				
Primary schools or public schools	58	33,756	22	13,284
Others	—	—	328	30,990
Total	58	33,756	350	44,274
Secondary education				
Middle Schools	7	4,190	2	570
Girls' Schools or Girls' Schools of Domestic Science	23	4,542	—	—
Total	30	8,732	2	570
Technical Education				
Technical Schools	5	2,465	2	209
Others (Training Schools)	5	229	—	—
Total	10	2,694	2	2
South Manchuria Technical College	1	—	—	—
Manchurian Educational School	1	259	—	—
University				
Port Arthur Engineering College	2	891	—	49
Manchurian Medical College				

Religion The principal religions in Manchoukuo are Confucianism, Buddhism, Taoism, Lamaism, and Mohammedanism. Christianity was introduced in 1858. In April, 1934, the Holy See formed a separate mission field in Manchoukuo, independent from that of China, and appointed the Rt. Rev. Bishop A. Gaspais as Acting Apostolic Delegate for the whole of Manchoukuo. The latest available number of preachers and believers for each and the number of temples, shrines, and churches follow :

NUMBER OF PREACHERS

Provinces	Buddhism	Taoism	Mohammedanism	Lamaism	Roman Catholics	Protestants
Fengtien	1,324	786	132	324	131	235
Kirin	311	570	172	—	73	232
Lungkiang	196	131	31	—	22	36
North Manchuria	49	8	11	12	67	63
Hsinking Special Municipality	85	3	1	—	9	15
Total	1,965	1,498	347	336	302	582

NUMBER OF BELIEVERS

Provinces	Buddhism	Taoism	Mohammedanism	Lamaism	Roman Catholics	Protestants
Fengtien	697,316	22,408	79,850	276	27,843	18,277
Kirin	39,933	12,994	30,885	—	11,735	8,373
Lungkiang	5,777	1,329	7,086	—	10,779	648
North Manchuria Special District	10,921	373	31,076	3,182	13,776	4,437
Hsinking Special Municipality	2,522	30	2,300	—	130	458
Total	756,469	37,134	151,197	3,458	64,263	32,192

NUMBER OF TEMPLES AND CHURCHES

Provinces	Buddhism	Taoism	Mohammedanism	Lamaism	Roman Catholics	Protestants
Fengtien	652	319	90	22	63	136
Kirin	74	133	32	—	27	51
Lungkiang	42	28	15	—	13	16
North Manchuria Special District	15	5	12	6	19	27
Hsinking Special Municipality	10	3	1	—	2	4
Total	793	488	150	28	121	234

Medicine and Sanitation

Sanitary Conditions The climate of Manchuria is not at all unhealthy. But since the country is extensive, bordering on Mongolia and Siberia and inhabited by different races, many of whom lead the insanitary life of extremely primitive conditions, and especially since coolies and refugees are constantly migrating in large groups, the risk of the spread of dreadful infectious diseases is rather common. In the past twenty years, Manchuria has been often afflicted by such plagues; for instances, the pneumonic plague in 1910–1911, cholera in 1919, pneumonic plague again in 1920–1921, and pneumonic plague once more in 1927. Another plague is the pest which destroyed the lives of 900 people in 1934. But due to vigorous exertion made jointly by the Department of Civil Affairs, the Department of Mongolian Administration and the South Manchuria Railway Co. special districts have been mapped, isolation hospitals and lookouts established and they have been placed under supervision of the pest investigation institute. Owing to activities of these institutions as well as the thoroughness in inoculation the number afflicted by pest in 1935 was reduced to one-half of that of 1934.

Medical Institution The administration of hygiene of the country is undertaken by the Bureau of Hygiene of the Department of Civil Affairs. As regards the facilities of the administration of hygiene they have organs established in various provinces, in North Manchuria Special District, in Hsinking, in various hsiens, the police stations, etc. Though medical institutions in large cities in the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone are well equipped the situation is quite different in local districts and is not so good. State hospitals are located in Kirin, Harbin and Chengte where patients numbering about 25,000 are received every month. Among public hospitals there are Fengtien City Hospital, the Harbin First and Second Hospitals and a few others which are under construction. Physicians in the public service number 67 in all and it is so planned that by 1937 there will be at least one public physician in every hsien. In addition there are some private hospitals. The number of places where there are public physicians and private hospitals are as follows :

Province	No. of Places Public Physicians	Private Hospitals
Fengtien	5	1
Pingkiang	9	2
Sankiang	8	2
Kirin	6	2
Chinchow	5	1
Heiho	2	1
Lungkiang	10	2
Antung	5	1
Hsingan (4 prov.)	7	1
Jehol	10	1
Chientao	3	1

In addition to the above there are many medical organs which are under management of the General Direction of State Railways, the South Manchuria Railway and Japan Red Cross Society as well as of foundations and religious bodies. These are tabulated as follows :

Under management of	
The General Direction of State Railway	30
The South Manchuria Railway	29
Under management of	
Public hospitals under management of the South Manchuria Railway	13
The Red Cross Society	10
Various foundations	6
Religious bodies	28
Municipal and hsien offices	19
Associations affiliated with social welfare works	34
Those which belong to the military	7
National asylums for the habitués of opium	10

The number of physicians, dentists, mid-wives, pharmacists and drug stores follows :

	Fengtien	Kirin	Lung-kiang	Tungsheng Special District	Total
Physicians					
Practitioners in the Chinese medicine	3,284	495	398	99	4,276
Ordinary physicians	658	133	121	287	1,199
Dentists	125	12	5	183	326
Mid-wives					
Old-fashioned	1,564	9	27	8	1,608
New-styled	600	4	39	7	650
Pharmacists	441	?	?	?	441
Drug stores					
Chinese drug	995	?	?	?	996
Western medicine	229	?	?	?	229

Medical Education As organs for educating medical students there are only the Medical School attached to Kirin Government Hospital College and the Harbin Medical College. All the other educational organs are under management of foreign countries. Of these are found Manchuria Medical University and College, Fengtien Medical College, Harbin First and Second Dental School, and one pharmaceutical school under Russian management. But all except the Manchuria Medical University, are poorly equipped. In view of this, the Manchuria Medical College opened its technical course in 1933 and now admits Manchurian students.

Sanitation With central epidemics prevention organ in the Bureau of Hygiene there are various sanitary institutions placed in local districts. There are also installed six quarantine stations at the frontier which have been established as permanent organs. As an organ for the prevention of pest 2 pest investigation institutes, 9 isolation hospitals and 9 lookouts which are permanent institutions have been established. Quarantine and the hygiene of the ports of Dairen and Port Arthur are under the direction of the Marine Office of the Kwantung government and its branch.

Hygienic investigations and inspections are conducted by the following institutions : The Central Laboratory, the Hygiene Institute and the Animal Disease Research Institute of the South Manchuria Railway Company ; the government hospitals at Dairen and Port Arthur ; physicians, veterinary surgeons and pharmaceutists stationed by the Kwantung government at civil administration offices, police stations and sub-stations.

The Hygienic Institute was established in 1925 by the railway company at an outlay of ¥400,000 in view of the lack of facilities for pathogenic investigations, and also for the supply of preventive and curative medicines.

Vaccines, serums, and disinfectants produced at the Institute are distributed free or at cost not only in Manchuria but also in Tientsin and Shantung districts. The latest statistics for production and distribution of vaccines and serums give the following figures :

	Vaccines and serums manufactured in cc.	Products sold or distributed in cc.
1928	21,856,857	21,128,423
1929	25,574,962	25,513,384
1930	30,801,140	30,728,469

The Animal Disease Research Institute of the South Manchuria Railway Co., was established in 1925 at Mukden at a cost of ¥250,000. The Institute is divided into the Research and Enterprise Divisions. The Enterprise Division manufactures and distributes serums, vaccines and medicines for various animal diseases, conducts classes and lectures on animal diseases, gives itinerant medical treatment by sending free treatment and research corps, and also operates the examination station in the Institute.

Principal Cities

Hsinking Hsinking has, within the brief period of three years, grown from a sleepy railway junction town into a fast expanding thriving city with a population of over 307,000. Prior to the establishment of the new State the population had remained stationary at above 130,000. Situated 702 km. north of Dairen as at the northern terminus of the South Manchuria Railway line, Hsinking, formerly known as Chang-

chun, is now the capital of Manchoukuo and the seat of the Imperial Palace and all other important government buildings.

This city is also an important commercial centre as it forms the junction of the South Manchuria Railway, the North Manchuria Railway and the Hsinking-Tumen Railway. Its area, inclusive of the S.M.R. Zone, the Open Mart, the Chinese town and Kuanchengtzu was, prior to the establishment of the new state, 21 sq. km. Today, owing to the rapid expansion of the city, its area, including the new first-stage construction zone, is 200 sq. km. The population is rapidly increasing and is expected to exceed 300,000 by the time of the completion of the first stage construction works in 1937 and surpass the half-million mark when the second and third stage projects are finished.

It is divided into three sections known as the new city, the open town and the walled city, and plans are now being promoted which will ultimately make it a fine metropolis of some 3,000,000 population.

The Japanese population in Hsinking has increased from 10,000 to approximately 59,000 in these few years, and the Japanese institutions in this city include the chamber of commerce and industry, the stock exchange, banks, industrial organizations, the district and transportation offices of the South Manchuria Railway Company, and several schools of various grades, in addition to the offices of the ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary, the consulate-general, and the headquarters of the commander of the Kwantung army.

Capital Construction Plan. According to the city planning programme of the Capital Construction Bureau, which has been created in the General Affairs Board of the Manchoukuo Government, the great metropolis to be built around the present city of Hsinking is to cover an area of 200 square kilometres, an oblong polygon in shape, with its centre at Kaotaitze, which is situated a little south of Hsinking Railway Station.

During the first period of the capital construction programme work will be undertaken in an area of about 100 square kilometres out of the total of 200 square kilometres.

The area is sub-divided as follows :

		sq. km.
1.	For Government buildings	6.5
2.	„ streets, roads, etc.	21.0
3.	„ public use	3.5
4.	„ parks, grounds, etc.	7.0
5.	For military purposes	9.0
6.	„ residences	27.0
7.	„ commercial districts	8.0
8.	„ industrial districts	6·0
9.	„ miscellaneous purposes	10.0
10.	„ special districts (vegetables, livestock, etc.)	2.0
		100.0

On completion the new metropolis is to be divided into residential, commercial, industrial, special and miscellaneous districts, each designated as such, and it is hoped that the whole city will assume the grand appearance of a metropolis as modern in equipment as any other in the world, with seven trunk roads radiating in all directions from its centre. They are as follows :

Hsinking-Nungan-Fuyu	160 km.
Hsinking-Huaite-Kungchuling	100 „
Hsinking-Mukden via Kungchuling	270 „
Hsinking-Itung	72 „
Hsinking-Shuangyang	50 „
Hsinking-Kirin via Tapinling	114 „
Hsinking-Harbin via Yaomen	235 „

Anticipating that the population of this new area will eventually reach 500,000, the Capital Construction Bureau is building a huge reservoir in the basins of the Hsiao and Tai Rivers, tributaries of the Itung River, for supplying water to the capital. The projected reservoir, which will be one of the largest in the Far East, will be filled with rain water and water obtained by damming the two tributaries. It will hold 27,700,000 cubic metres, and will be capable of supplying over 40,000 tons of water daily, which will be more than enough to meet the needs of a population of 500,000.

An up-to-date sewer system is also being built as part of the capital construction programme. Already 48,301 metres of sewer pipes have been laid in the new area.

Spacious parks will be a feature of the new section of the city. These will occupy seven per cent of the total area of the new town. In the vicinity of the parks are projected a national museum, a huge public library, public auditoriums, botanical gardens, and a zoo. Athletic fields, a horse race course and golf links have been already completed, or are nearing completion. When the present projects are completed, Hsinking will no doubt rank as one of the leading modern cities in the Far East.

Mukden Mukden (Fengtien), for-

merly the seat of the old militarist government of the Chang family, still retains its prosperity as a commercial and industrial centre of Manchoukuo situated as it is in the heart of a vast plain watered by the Liao River.

The main line and the Antung-Mukden line of the South Manchuria Railway, the Mukden-Shanhaikwan Railway, and the Mukden-Hailung Railway converge at Mukden thus making this city an important point of communication between Europe and Asia.

As an industrial centre, Mukden produces matches, bean-oil, rice, pottery, textiles and tobacco. This city also is a centre of education in Manchoukuo, among its important schools being the Manchuria Medical College, in addition to several primary and secondary schools for boys and girls.

The population of the open town and the railway zone of Mukden at the end of July, 1936, numbered 534,638, of which 81,676 are the Japanese nationals including Koreans.

Dairen Dairen is the most important port for Manchoukuo. Located in the Leased Territory of Kwantung the city is under Japanese administration. Starting from this city, the main line of the South Manchuria Railway runs north as far as Hsinking, branching off at Mukden to Antung.

The city is built on the shore of the Bay of Dairen, extending 7.8 kilometres from east to west and 3 kilometres from north to south. Divided into the residential, mixed, commercial and industrial districts, the city is well planned, with a sewerage system, parks and other modern public utilities completed by the Japanese.

In 1915 the city was organized as an autonomous municipality and efforts have since been continued to perfect its sanitary and educational institutions and fire-preventing facilities.

From the central square covering an area of more than 10,000 tsubo, 10 boulevards radiate in all directions, the streets of this city being of seven different widths with a maximum of 25 ken or about 50 yards.

Among the parks of the city, Electric Park is the most famous. Hoshigaura Park, which is in Hoshigaura, a suburb of Dairen, is also well known for its golf links and sea-bathing beach.

Being the largest commercial centre of South Manchuria, the city has a population of approximately 370,000 of which about 139,000 are the Japanese coming from Japan proper. Among the important offices in the city are the headquarters of the South Manchuria Railway Company, the city hall, the civil administration office, the bureau of communications, the chamber of commerce and industry, the branch offices of the Yokohama Specie Bank, the Chosen Bank, the Oriental Colonization Company, the Central Bank of Manchou, the Chenglung Bank, the Mitsui Company, the Mitsubishi Company, the Okuragumi, Mitsukoshi and other business concerns.

Various local institutions include the Manchuria Dockyard Company, the Dairen Steamship Company, the South Manchuria Electric Company and the Dairen Hospital. Among the schools in this city are 12 kindergartens, 14 primary schools, 2 middle schools, 2 girls' high schools, a commercial school, a girls' commercial school, a commercial and industrial school, a foreign language school and a technical college.

Ryojun (Port Arthur) Ryojun was once the seat of the government of the Kwantung Leased Territory. Situated at the southern tip of Liaotung peninsula, the city is surrounded by hills on all sides except on its water front, which forms a port opening to the Gulf of Pechihli.

The city is made up of two sections, the old town and the new town. In the old town are located the city hall, the dockyard, the defence headquarters, the higher law court, the civil administration office and the headquarters of Port Arthur fortress.

The new city is built on the shore of the west port and forms the government and school district with the former office of government of the Kwantung Leased Territory, the Ryojun Engineering College, and other schools located in it.

The boulevards of the city are of two different width, 84 feet and 63 feet respectively, while the standard width of the street is 42 feet.

The vicinity of Ryojun is the old scene of the siege of Port Arthur during the Russo-Japanese War, and a smooth driveway now connects Ryojun and Dairen to take tourists to the old battlefields.

The population of the city is put at 31,000, of which about 12,000 are the Japanese nationals.

Yingkow Before the opening of Dairen, Yingkow was the only commercial port of Manchuria, and it enjoyed great prosperity. It is now known mostly as an industrial centre for manufacturing bean oil, tobacco, brick and soy sauce.

Being situated on the bank of the Liao River about 14 miles from its mouth, this town still plays an impor-

tant rôle in the commerce of the river, meeting the needs of the rural populace along its banks. The town on the opposite bank of the river is known as Newchwang.

The population of the Japanese section of the city is put as 5,300, of which 3,000 are the Japanese coming from Japan proper.

Kirin Standing on the western bank of the Sungari River, Kirin is the terminus of the Kirin-Changchun Railway and is known as an important station in the transportation of lumber produced in the upper basin of the river.

Being one of the largest cities in Manchoukuo, it has a population of 127,000, of which about 8,500 are the Japanese. As the city is kept comparatively clean, surrounded by shapely hills, Kirin is known among the Japanese as the Kyoto of Manchuria. Among other products marketed in this city are lumber, tobacco leaf, hemp and furs.

Harbin Special Municipality Harbin is situated on the eastern bank of the Sungari River, at 44.5 degrees North Latitude and 126.40 degrees East Longitude. Although now known as the Paris of the Far East, Harbin was only a deserted village before the Russian penetration into Manchuria.

Built in European style, the city has a population of 462,000, of which 31,400 are the Japanese, 6,400 Koreans and 40,000 Russians.

From this city, the southern line of the North Manchuria Railway runs to Hsinking. The city also forms an important point in the long railway which links Vladivostok and cities of Europe via Siberia.

As the largest commercial and industrial centre of north Manchuria, Harbin handles more than 4,000,000 tons of soy beans, wheat, bean-cake and other products annually.

The city was formerly divided into three sections : Old Harbin, the new city and the open town. The new city is said to have been planned after Moscow. The railway station, the offices of the North Manchuria Railway and the North Manchuria Railway and the foreign consulates are located in this section.

In the open town, which is the commercial section of the city, reside Russian, Japanese and Manchurian merchants engaged in thriving business activities. The Harbin offices of the Yokohama Specie Bank, the Chosen Bank and Mitsui Company are found in the open town.

In June of 1933 Harbin was made a special municipality and since July 1, 1933 the municipality became an autonomous city which comes under the direct control of the Department of Civil Affairs. Since then the old plan of extension of the city has been given up and the city is under construction according to a new plan which purports to make it ten times as large as that designed under the old plan

Kwantung Leased Territory

General and Historical The Kwantung Leased Territory under Japanese rule which was ceded to Japan by Russia and the lease of which lasts till 1997, together with the railway zone of the South Manchuria Railway Company, forms the most civilized area of Manchuria with all kinds of modern facilities introduced by the Japanese.

Occupying a small southern portion of Liaotung Peninsula, the Leased Territory covers an area of some 3,367.88 square kilometres with a population of 1,134,074 at the end of 1935, of which 163,796 are the Japanese, 4,389 Koreans, 963,875 the Chinese and Manchous and 2,014 of other nationalities.

Government The government of the Kwantung Leased Territory at Ryojun is in charge of the civil administration office under the supervision of the Kanto Bureau, which is again placed under the Embassy at Hsinking.

In the beginning the territory was under military rule with an army officer as governor-general. This system was changed in 1919, and since then a civilian officer was appointed governor of the territory by the Emperor of Japan. A drastic change was made in this system on December 26, 1934, in which the Kanto Bureau was established at Hsinking under the control of the Ambassador at Hsinking, and most of the administrative powers formerly vested in the governor of the Leased Territory was transferred to the president of the newly created Bureau. The president takes charge of the civil administration within the territory and supervises the business of the South Manchuria Railway Co. The Bureau is sub-divided into the president's secretariat, home affairs, police, and controller's divisions. At the same time a separate office was created for administration of the Peninsula. Under this office, which is at Ryojun, falls the administration of civil affairs in the Peninsula, the prisons, the Ryojun Engineering College, the middle schools, the girls' high schools, the normal school for natives, the commercial school for natives, the agri-

cultural schools for natives, the Police Training School, the Meteorological Observatory, the government hospitals, the Agricultural Experimental Station, the Sericultural Experimental Station and several other institutions in the territory.

Finance Taxes are regularly collected, but due to a large expenditure required for improvement in hygiene, strengthening of police force, extension of educational facilities, development of industries, etc., the revenue from this source is not enough to meet the expenditure, so that subvention is allowed from the General Account. The budget for the financial year 1936–37 was as follows :

Revenue	
Ordinary revenue	¥4,760,276
Extraordinary „	¥2,510,243
Total	¥7,270,519
Expenditure	
Ordinary expenditure	¥3,544,089
Extraordinary „	¥3,726,430
Total	¥7,270,519

Of the ordinary revenue the income from taxes amounts to ¥2,066,278, that from the Government enterprises and properties to ¥2,393,450, while in the extraordinary revenue the Government subvention amounts to ¥1,747,412. The main items of expenditure included ¥2,084,432 for various subsidies, ¥1,510,251 for public works and repairs, ¥1,198,056 for various enterprises and ¥757,213 for education.

Justice and Communications In regard to the administration of justice in the Leased Territory, the system of the courts of justice was established in 1906 to adjudicate in all civil and criminal cases, irrespective of the nationalities of the persons involved.

The defence of the Leased Territory is secured by a neutral zone along the northern frontier.

The communication system and educational, hygienic and other modern institutions are well organized in the territory. In matters concerning hygiene and sanitation, the Kwantung government is collaborating with the South Manchuria Railway Company.

APPENDIX

CHAPTER I

THE EMPEROR

ARTICLE I The Empire of Japan shall be reigned over and governed by a line of Emperors unbroken for ages eternal.

ARTICLE II The Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by Imperial male descendants, according to the provisions of the Imperial House Law.

ARTICLE III The Emperor is sacred and inviolable.

ARTICLE IV The Emperor is the head of the Empire, combining in Himself the rights of sovereignty, and exercises them according to the provisions of the present Constitution.

ARTICLE V The Emperor exercises the legislative power with the consent of the Imperial Diet.

ARTICLE VI The Emperor gives sanction to laws, and orders them to be promulgated and executed.

ARTICLE VII The Emperor convokes the Imperial Diet, opens, closes and prorogues it, and dissolves the House of Representatives.

ARTICLE VIII The Emperor, in consequence of an urgent necessity to maintain public safety or to avert public calamities, issues, when the Imperial Diet is not sitting, Imperial Ordinances in the place of law.

Such Imperial Ordinances are to be laid before the Imperial Diet at its next session, and when the Diet does not approve the said Ordinances, the Government shall declare them to be invalid for the future.

ARTICLE IX The Emperor issues, or causes to be issued, the Ordinances necessary for the carrying out of the laws, or for the maintenance of the public peace and order, and for the promotion of the welfare of the subjects. But no Ordinance shall in any way alter any of the existing laws.

ARTICLE X The Emperor determines the organization of the different branches of the administration, and salaries of all civil and military officers, and appoints and dismisses the same. Exceptions especially provided for in the present Constitution or in other laws shall be in accordance with the respective provisions bearing thereon.

ARTICLE XI The Emperor has the supreme command of the Army and Navy.

ARTICLE XII The Emperor determines the organization and peace standing of the Army and Navy.

ARTICLE XIII The Emperor declares war, makes peace, and concludes treaties.

ARTICLE XIV The Emperor declares a state of siege.

The conditions and effects of a state of siege shall be determined by law.

ARTICLE XV The Emperor confers titles of nobitity, rank, orders and other marks of honour.

ARTICLE XVI The Emperor orders amnesty, pardon, commutation of punishments and rehabilitation.

ARTICLE XVII A Regency shall be instituted in conformity with the provisions of the Imperial House Law.

The Regent shall exercise the powers appertaining to the Emperor in His name.

CHAPTER II

RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF SUBJECTS

ARTICLE XVIII The conditions necessary for being a Japanese subject shall be determined by law.

ARTICLE XIX Japanese subjects may, according to qualifications determined in laws or ordinances, be appointed to civil or military or any other public offices equally.

ARTICLE XX Japanese subjects are amenable to service in the Army or Navy according to the provisions of law.

ARTICLE XXI Japanese subjects are amenable to the duty of paying taxes according to the provisions of law.

ARTICLE XXII Japanese subjects shall have the liberty of abode and of changing the same within the limits of law.

ARTICLE XXIII No Japanese subject shall be arrested, detained, tried or punished, unless according to law.

ARTICLE XXIV No Japanese subject shall be deprived of his right of being tried by the judges determined by law.

ARTICLE XXV Except in the cases provided for in the law, the house of no Japanese subject shall be entered or searched without his consent.

ARTICLE XXVI Except in the cases mentioned in the law, the secrecy of the

letters of every Japanese subject shall remain inviolate.

ARTICLE XXVII The right of property of every Japanese subject shall remain inviolate.

Measures necessary to be taken for the public benefit shall be provided for by law.

ARTICLE XXVIII Japanese subjects shall, within limits not prejudicial to peace and order, and not antagonistic to their duties as subjects, enjoy freedom of religious belief.

ARTICLE XXIX Japanese subjects shall, within the limits of law, enjoy the liberty of speech, writing, publication, public meetings and associations.

ARTICLE XXX Japanese subjects may present petitions, by observing the proper forms of respect, and by complying with the rules specially provided for the same.

ARTICLE XXXI The provisions contained in the present chapter shall not affect the exercise of the powers appertaining to the Emperor, in times of war or in cases of a national emergency.

ARTICLE XXXII Each and every one of the provisions contained in the preceding Articles of the present chapter, that are not in conflict with the laws or the rules and discipline of the Army and Navy, shall apply to the officers and men of the Army and of the Navy.

CHAPTER III

THE IMPERIAL DIET

ARTICLE XXXIII The Imperial Diet shall consist of two Houses, a House of Peers and a House of Representatives.

ARTICLE XXXIV The House of Peers shall, in accordance with the Ordinance concerning the House of Peers, be composed of the members of the Imperial Family, of the orders of nobility, and of those persons who have been nominated thereto by the Emperor.

ARTICLE XXXV The House of Representatives shall be composed of Members elected by the people according to the provisions of the Law of Election.

ARTICLE XXXVI No one can at one and the same time be a Member of both Houses.

ARTICLE XXXVII Every law requires the consent of the Imperial Diet.

ARTICLE XXXVIII Both Houses shall vote upon projects of law submitted to them by the Government, and may respectively initiate projects of law.

ARTICLE XXXIX A Bill which has been rejected by either the one or the other of the two Houses shall not be again brought in during the same session.

ARTICLE XL Both Houses can make representations to the Government as to laws or upon any other subject. When, however, such representations are not accepted, they cannot be made a second time during the same session.

ARTICLE XLI The Imperial Diet shall be convoked every year.

ARTICLE XLII A session of the Imperial Diet shall last during three months. In case of necessity, the duration of a session may be prolonged by Imperial Order.

ARTICLE XLIII When urgent necessity arises, an extraordinary session may be convoked in addition to the ordinary one.

The duration of an extraordinary session shall be determined by Imperial Order.

ARTICLE XLIV The opening, closing, prolongation of session and prorogation of the Imperial Diet, shall be effected simultaneously for both Houses.

In case the House of Representatives has been ordered to dissolve, the House of Peers shall at the same time be prorogued.

ARTICLE XLV When the House of Representatives has been ordered to dissolve, Members shall be caused by Imperial Order to be newly elected, and the new House shall be convoked within five months from the day of dissolution.

ARTICLE XLVI No debate can be opened and no vote can be taken in either House of the Imperial Diet, unless not less than one-third of the whole number of the Members thereof is present.

ARTICLE XLVII Votes shall be taken in both Houses by absolute majority. In the case of a tie vote, the President shall have the casting vote.

ARTICLE XLVIII The deliberations of both Houses shall be held in public. The deliberations may, however, upon demand of the Government or by resolution of the House, be held in secret sitting.

ARTICLE XLIX Both Houses of the Imperial Diet may respectively present addresses to the Emperor.

ARTICLE L Both Houses may receive petitions presented by subjects.

ARTICLE LI Both Houses may enact, besides what is provided for in the present Constitution and in the Law of the Houses, rules necessary for the management of their internal affairs.

ARTICLE LII No Member of either House shall be held responsible outside

the respective Houses for any opinion uttered or for any vote given in the House. When, however, a Member himself has given publicity to his opinions by public speech, by documents in print or in writing, or by any other similar means, he shall, in the matter, be amenable to the general law.

ARTICLE LIII The Members of both Houses shall, during the session, be free from arrest, unless with the consent of the House, except in cases of flagrant delicts, or of offences connected with a state of internal commotion or with a foreign trouble.

ARTICLE LIV The Ministers of State and the Delegates of the Government may, at any time, take seats and speak in either House.

CHAPTER IV

THE MINISTERS OF STATE AND THE PRIVY COUNCIL

ARTICLE LV The respective Ministers of State shall give their advice to the Emperor, and be responsible for it.

All Laws, Imperial Ordinances and Imperial Rescripts of whatever kind, that relate to the affairs of the State, require the countersignature of a Minister of State.

ARTICLE LVI The Privy Councillors shall, in accordance with the provisions for the organization of the Privy Council, deliberate upon important matters of State, when they have been consulted by the Emperor.

CHAPTER V

THE JUDICATURE

ARTICLE LVII The Judicature shall be exercised by the Courts of Law according to law, in the name of the Emperor.

The organization of the Courts of Law shall be determined by law.

ARTICLE LVIII The judges shall be appointed from among those who possess proper qualifications according to law.

No judge shall be deprived of his position, unless by way of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment.

Rules for disciplinary punishment shall be determined by law.

ARTICLE LIX Trials and judgments of a Court shall be conducted publicly. When, however, there exists any fear, that such publicity may be prejudicial to peace and order, or to the maintenance of public morality, the public trial may be suspended by provision of law or by the decision of the Court of Law.

ARTICLE LX All matters, that fall within the competency of a special Court, shall be specially provided for by law.

ARTICLE LXI No suit at law, which relates to rights alleged to have been infringed by the illegal measures of the administrative authorities, and which shall come within the competency of the Court of Administrative Litigation specially established by law, shall be taken cognizance of a Court of Law.

CHAPTER VI

FINANCE

ARTICLE LXII The imposition of a new tax or the modification of the rates of an existing one shall be determined by law.

However, all such administrative fees or other revenue having the nature of compensation shall not fall within the category of the above clause.

The raising of national loans and the contracting of other liabilities to the charge of the National Treasury, except those that are provided in the Budget, shall require the consent of the Imperial Diet.

ARTICLE LXIII The taxes levied at present shall, in so far as they are not remodelled by a new law, be collected according to the old system.

ARTICLE LXIV The expenditure and revenue of the State require the consent of the Imperial Diet by means of an annual Budget.

Any and all expenditures overpassing the appropriations set forth in the Titles and Paragraphs of the Budget, or that are not provided for in the Budget, shall subsequently require the approbation of the Imperial Diet.

ARTICLE LXV The Budget shall be first laid before the House of Representatives.

ARTICLE LXVI The expenditures of the Imperial House shall be defrayed every year out of the National Treasury, according to the present fixed amount for the same, and shall not require the consent thereto of the Imperial Diet, except in case an increase thereof is found necessary.

ARTICLE LXVII Those already fixed

expenditures based by the Constitution upon the powers appertaining to the Emperor, and such expenditures as may have arisen by the effect of law, or that appertain to the legal obligations of the Government, shall be neither rejected nor reduced by the Imperial Diet, without the concurrence of the Government.

ARTICLE LXVIII In order to meet special requirements, the Government may ask the consent of the Imperial Diet to a certain amount as a Continuing Expenditure Fund, for a previously fixed number of years.

ARTICLE LXIX In order to supply deficiencies, which are unavoidable, in the Budget, and to meet requirements unprovided for in the same, a Reserve Fund shall be provided in the Budget.

ARTICLE LXX When the Imperial Diet cannot be convoked, owing to the external or internal condition of the country, in case of urgent need for the maintenance of public safety, the Government may take all necessary financial measures, by means of an Imperial Ordinance.

In the case mentioned in the preceding clause, the matter shall be submitted to the Imperial Diet at its next session, and its approbation shall be obtained thereto.

ARTICLE LXXI When the Imperial Diet has not voted on the Budget, or when the Budget has not been brought into actual existence, the Government shall carry out the Budget of the preceding year.

ARTICLE LXXII The final account of the expenditures and revenue of the State shall be verified and confirmed by the Board of Audit, and it shall be submitted by the Government to the Imperial Diet, together with the report of verification of the said Board.

The organization and competency of the Board of Audit shall be determined by law separately.

CHAPTER VII

SUPPLEMENTARY RULES

ARTICLE LXXIII When it has become necessary in future to amend the provisions of the present Constitution, a project to that effect shall be submitted to the Imperial Diet by Imperial Order.

In the above case, neither House can open the debate, unless not less than two-thirds of the whole number of Members are present, and no amendment can be passed, unless a majority of not less than two-thirds of the Members present is obtained.

ARTICLE LXXIV No modification of the Imperial House Law shall be required to be submitted to the deliberation of the Imperial Diet.

No provision of the present Constitution can be modified by the Imperial House Law.

ARTICLE LXXV No modification can be introduced into the Constitution, or into the Imperial House Law, during the time of a Regency.

ARTICLE LXXVI Existing legal enactments, such as laws, regulations, Ordinances, or by whatever names they may be called, shall, so far as they do not conflict with the present Constitution, continue in force.

All existing contracts or orders, that entail obligations upon the Government, and that are connected with expenditure, shall come within the scope of Art. LXVII.

THE IMPERIAL HOUSE LAW

CHAPTER I

SUCCESSION TO THE IMPERIAL THRONE

ARTICLE I The Imperial Throne of Japan shall be secceeded to by male descendants in the male line of Imperial Ancestors.

ARTICLE II The Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by the Imperial eldest son.

ARTICLE III When there is no Imperial eldest son, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by the Imperial eldest grandson. When there is neither Imperial eldest son nor any male descendant of his, it shall be succeeded to by the Imperial son next in age, and so on in every successive case.

ARTICLE IV For succession to the Imperial Throne by an Imperial descendant, the one of full blood shall have precedence over descendants of half blood. The succession to the Imperial Throne by the latter shall be limited to those cases

only, when there is no Imperial descendant of full blood.

ARTICLE V When there is no Imperial descendant, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by an Imperial brother and by his descendants.

ARTICLE VI When there is no such Imperial brother or desendant of his, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by an Imperial uncle and by his descendants.

ARTICLE VII When there is neither such Imperial uncle nor descendant of his, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by the next nearest member among the rest of the Imperial Family.

ARTICLE VIII Among the Imperial brothers and the remoter Imperial relations, precedence shall be given, in the same degree, to the descendants of full blood over those of half blood, and to the elder over the younger.

ARTICLE IX When the Imperial heir is suffering from an incurable disease of mind or body, or when any other weighty cause exists, the order of succession may be changed in accordance with the foregoing provisions, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

CHAPTER II

ASCENSION AND CORONATION

ARTICLE X Upon the demise of the Emperor, the Imperial heir shall ascend the Throne, and shall aquire the Divine Treasures of the Imperial Ancestors.

ARTICLE XI The ceremonies of Coronation shall be performed and a Grand Coronation Banquet (Daijosai) shall be held at Kyoto.

ARTICLE XII Upon an ascension to the Throne, a new era shall be inaugurated, and the name of it shall remain unchanged during the whole reign, in agreement with the established rule of the 1st year of Meiji.

CHAPTER III

MAJORITY. INSTITUTION OF EMPRESS AND OF HEIR-APPARENT

ARTICLE XIII The Emperor, the Kotaishi and the Kotaison shall attain their majority at eighteen full years of age.

ARTICLE XIV Members of the Imperial Family, other than those mentioned in the preceding Article, shall attain their majority at twenty full years of age.

ARTICLE XV The son of the Emperor, who is Heir-apparent, shall be called "Kotaishi." In case there is no Kotaishi, the Imperial grandson, who is Heir-apparent, shall be called "Kotaison."

ARTICLE XVI The institution of Empress and that of Kotaishi or of Kotaison shall be proclaimed by an Imperial Rescript.

CHAPTER IV

STYLES OF ADDRESS

ARTICLE XVII The style of address for the Emperor, the Grand Empress Dowager, the Empress Dowager and of the Empress, shall be His, or Her or Your Majesty.

ARTICLE XVIII The Kotaishi and his consort, the Kotaison and his consort, the Imperial Princes and their consorts, the Imperial Princesses, the Princes and their consorts, and the Princesses shall be styled His, Her, Their, or Your Highness or Highnesses.

CHAPTER V

REGENCY

ARTICLE XIX When the Emperor is a minor, a Regency shall be instituted.

When He is prevented by some permanent cause from personally governing, a Regency shall be instituted, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

ARTICLE XX The Regency shall be assumed by the Kotaishi or the Kotaison, being of full age of majority.

ARTICLE XXI When there is neither Kotaishi nor Kotaison, or when the Kotaishi or the Kotaison has not yet arrived at his majority, the Regency shall be assumed in the following order :

1. An Imperial Prince or a Prince.
2. The Empress.
3. The Empress Dowager.
4. The Grand Empress Dowager.
5. An Imperial Princess or a Princess.

ARTICLE XXII In case the Regency is to be assumed from among the male members of the Imperial Family, it shall be done in agreement with the order of succession to the Imperial Throne. The same shall apply to the case of female

members of the Imperial Family.

ARTICLE XXIII A female member of the Imperial Family to assume the Regency shall be exclusively one who has no consort.

ARTICLE XXIV When, on account of the minority of the nearest related member of the Imperial Family, or for some other cause, another member has to assume the Regency, the latter shall not, upon the arrival at majority of the above mentioned nearest related member, or upon the disappearance of the aforesaid cause, resign his or her post in favour of any person other than of the Kotaishi or of the Kotaison.

ARTICLE XXV When a Regent or one who should become such, is suffering from an incurable disease of mind or body, or when any other weighty cause exists therefor, the order of the Regency may be changed, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

CHAPTER VI

THE IMPERIAL GOVERNOR

ARTICLE XXVI When the Emperor is a minor, an Imperial Governor shall be appointed to take charge of His bringing up and of His education.

ARTICLE XXVII In case no Imperial Governor has been nominated in the will of the preceding Emperor, the Regent shall appoint one, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

ARTICLE XXVIII Neither the Regent nor any of his descendants can be appointed Imperial Governor.

ARTICLE XXIX The Imperial Governor can not be removed from his post by the Regent, unless upon the advice of the Imperial Family Council and upon that of the Privy Council.

CHAPTER VII

THE IMPERIAL FAMILY

ARTICLE XXX The term "Imperial Family" shall include the Grand Empress Dowager, the Empress Dowager, the Empress, the Kotaishi and his consort, the Kotaison and his consort, the Imperial Princes and their consorts, the Imperial Princesses, the Princes and their consorts, and the Princesses.

ARTICLE XXXI From Imperial sons to Imperial great-great-grandsons, Imperial male descendants shall be called Imperial Princes; and from Imperial daughters to Imperial great-great-grand-daughters, Imperial female descendants shall be called Imperial Princesses. From the fifth generation downwards, they shall be called, male descendants, Princes, female ones, Princesses.

ARTICLE XXXII When the Imperial Throne is succeeded to by a member of a branch line, the title of Imperial Prince or Imperial Princess shall be specially granted to the Imperial brothers and sisters, being already Princes or Princesses.

ARTICLE XXXIII The births, namings, marriages and deaths in the Imperial Family shall be announced by the Minister of the Imperial Household.

ARTICLE XXXIV Genealogical and other records relating to the matters mentioned in the preceding Article shall be kept in the Imperial archives.

ARTICLE XXXV The members of the Imperial Family shall be under the control of the Emperor.

ARTICLE XXXVI When a Regency is instituted, the Regent shall exercise the power of control referred to in the preceding Article.

ARTICLE XXXVII When a member, male or female, of the Imperial Family is a minor and has been bereft of his or her father, the officials of the Imperial Court shall be ordered to take charge of his or her bringing up and education. Under certain circumstances, the Emperor may either approve the guardian chosen by his or her parent, or may nominate one.

ARTICLE XXXVIII The guardian of a member of the Imperial Family must be himself a member thereof and of age.

ARTICLE XXXIX Marriages of members of the Imperial Family shall be restricted to the circle of the Family, or to certain noble families specially approved by Imperial Order.

ARTICLE XL Marriages of the members of the Imperial Family shall be subject to the sanction of the Emperor.

ARTICLE XLI The Imperial writs sanctioning the marriages of members of the Imperial Family shall bear the countersignature of the Minister of the Imperial Household.

ARTICLE XLII No member of the Imperial Family can adopt any one as his son.

ARTICLE XLIII When a member of the Imperial Family wishes to travel beyond the boundaries of the Empire, he

shall first obtain the sanction of the Emperor,

ARTICLE XLIV A female member of the Imperial Family, who has married a subject, shall be excluded from membership of the Imperial Family. However, she may be allowed, by the special grace of the Emperor, to retain her title of Imperial Princess or of Princess, as the case may be.

CHAPTER VIII

IMPERIAL HEREDITARY ESTATES

ARTICLE XLV No landed or other property that has been fixed as the Imperial Hereditary Estates shall be divided up and alienated.

ARTICLE XLVI The landed and other property to be included in the Imperial Hereditary Estates shall be settled by Imperial writ with the advice of the Privy Council, and shall be announced by the Minister of the Imperial Household.

CHAPTER IX

EXPENDITURES OF THE IMPERIAL HOUSE

ARTICLE XLVII The expenditures of the Imperial House of all kinds shall be defrayed out of the National Treasury at a certain fixed amount.

ARTICLE XLVIII The estimates and audit of accounts of the expenditures of the Imperial House and all other rules of the kind shall be regulated by the Finance Regulations of the Imperial House.

CHAPTER X

LITIGATIONS. DISCIPLINARY RULES FOR THE MEMBERS OF THE IMPERIAL FAMILY

ARTICLE XLIX Litigation between members of the Imperial Family shall be decided by judicial functionaries specially designated by the Emperor to the Department of the Imperial Household, and execution issued, after Imperial sanction thereto has been obtained.

ARTICLE L Civil actions brought by private individuals against members of the Imperial Family, shall be decided in the Court of Appeal in Tokyo. Members of the Imperial Family shall, however, be represented by attorneys, and no personal attendance in the Court shall be done in agreement with the Court.

ARTICLE LI No member of the Imperial Family can be arrested, or summoned before a Court of Law, unless the sanction of the Emperor has been first obtained thereto.

ARTICLE LII When a member of the Imperial Family has committed an act derogatory to his (or her) dignity, or when he has exhibited disloyalty to the Imperial House, he shall, by way of disciplinary punishment and by order of the Emperor, be deprived of the whole or a part of the privileges belonging to him as a member of the Imperial Family, or shall be suspended therefrom.

ARTICLE LIII When a member of the Imperial Family acts in a way tending to the squandering of his (or her) property, he shall be pronounced incapable by the Emperor, prohibited from administering his property, and a manager shall be appointed therefor.

ARTICLE LIV The two foregoing Articles shall be enforced upon the advice of the Imperial Family Council.

CHAPTER XI

THE IMPERIAL FAMILY COUNCIL

ARTICLE LV The Imperial Family Council shall be composed of the male members of the Imperial Family, who have reached the age of majority. The Lord Keeper of the Privy Seal, the President of the Privy Council, the Minister of the Imperial Household, the Minister of State for Justice and the President of the Court of Cassation shall be ordered to take part in the deliberations of the Council.

ARTICLE LVI The Emperor personally presides over the meeting of the Imperial Family Council, or directs one of the members of the Imperial Family to do so.

CHAPTER XII

SUPPLEMENTARY RULES

ARTICLE LVII Those of the present members of the Imperial Family of the fifth generation and downwards, who have already been invested with the title of Imperial Prince, shall retain the same as heretofore.

ARTICLE LVIII The order of succes-

sion to the Imperial Throne shall in every case relate to the descendants of absolute lineage. There shall be no admission to this line of succession for any one, as a consequence of his being an adopted Imperial son, Koyushi or heir to a princely house.

ARTICLE LIX The grades of rank among the Imperial Princes, Imperial Princesses, Princes and Princesses shall be abolished.

ARTICLE LX The family rank of Imperial Princes and all usages conflicting with the present Law shall be abolished.

ARTICLE LXI The property, annual expenses and all other rules concerning the members of the Imperial Family shall be specially determined.

ARTICLE LXII When in the future it shall become necessary either to amend or make additions to the present Law, the matter shall be decided by the Emperor, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council, and with that of the Privy Council.

A SUPPLEMENT TO THE IMPERIAL HOUSE LAW

(February 11, 1907)

ARTICLE I A Prince may be granted a family name and be caused to join the order of nobility by Imperial Order or through a petition.

ARTICLE II A Prince may become, by obtaining the sanction of the Emperor, the successor to the headship of a noble family, or be adopted into a noble family, with the object of succeeding to its headship.

ARTICLE III The wife and direct descendants of a Prince, who has, in accordance with the two preceding Articles, become a subject, and the wives of such descendants, enter such subject's family. This rule does not apply, however, to females married to other members of the Imperial Family and the direct descendants of such females.

ARTICLE IV A member of the Imperial Family, who has been deprived of its privileges may, by Imperial order, be caused to descend to the status of subject.

ARTICLE V The cases provided for in Articles I, II, and IV (of the supplementary law) shall be subject to the advice of the Imperial Family Council and that of the Privy Council.

ARTICLE VI A member of the Imperial Family who has become a subject can not be restored into the Imperial Family.

ARTICLE VII Regulations relating the personal status and other rights and duties of members of the Imperial Family, shall be especially determined besides those prescribed in the present Law.

The regulations referred to in the preceding clause apply when a member of the Imperial Family and a private individual are parties to a matter, concerning which different rules are provided to apply to such parties respectively.

ARTICLE VIII Provisions in Laws and Ordinances, which are set down as applicable to members of the Imperial Family, shall be applicable only when there are no special provisions in the present Law or in Regulations that may be issued in conformity with the present Law.

A SUPPLEMENT TO THE IMPERIAL HOUSE LAW

(November 28, 1918)

A female member of the Imperial Family may marry a Prince of the principal House or of the branch Houses of the Ri Family.

LIST OF EMPERORS

No. of Reign	Emperor	Year Name(with its duration in parenthesis)	Duration of Reign
1	JIMMU	(B. C.)	660-581
2	SUIZEI		581-548
3	ANNEI		548-510
4	ITOKU		510-475
5	KŌSHŌ		475-392
6	KŌAN		392-290
7	KŌREI		290-214
8	KŌGEN		214-157
9	KAIKA		157-97
10	SUJIN		97-29
11	SUININ		29-71
12	KEIKŌ	(A. D.)	71-131
13	SEIMU		131-192
14	CHŪAI		192-201
15	ŌJIN		270-313
	(Jingo, Regent)		201-270

No. of Reign	Emperor	Year Name(with its duration in parenthesis)	Duration of Reign
16	NINTOKU		313-400
17	RICHU		400-406
18	HANSHŌ		406-412
19	INGYŌ		412-453
20	ANKŌ		453-456
21	YŪRYAKU		456-480
22	SEINEI		480-485
23	KENSŌ		485-488
24	NINKEN		488-499
25	BURETSU		499-507
26	KEITAI		507-531
27	ANKAN		531-535
28	SENKA		535-539
29	KIMMEI		539-572
30	BITATSU		572-585
31	YŌMEI		585-587
32	SUSHUN		587-592
33	SUIKO (Empress)		592-629
34	JOMEI		629-642
35	KŌGYOKU (Empress)		642-645
36	KŌTOKU	Taika (645-650), Hakuchi (650-654)	645-654
37	SAIMEI (Empress)		655-661
38	TENCHI		661-671
39	KŌBUN		671-672
40	TEMMU	Hakuhō (672-686) Suchō (686-)	672-686
41	JITŌ (Empress)	Suchō (686-697)	686-697
42	MOMMU	Taihō (701-704), Keiun (704-707)	697-707
43	GEMMYŌ (Empress)	Keiun (707-708), Wadō (708-715)	707-715
44	GENSHŌ (Empress)	Reiki (715-717), Yōrō (717-724)	715-724
45	SHŌMU	Jinki (724-729), Tempyo (729-749), Tempyokanhō (749)	724-749
46	KŌKEN (Empress)	Tempyōshōhō (749-757) Tempyōhōji (757-758)	749-758
47	JUNNIN	Tempyōhōji (758-764)	758-764
48	SHŌTOKU (Empress)	Tempyōhōji (764-765), Tempyōjingo (765-767), Jingokeiun (767-770)	764-770
49	KŌNIN	Jingokeiun (770), Hōki (770-781), Ten-ō (781)	770-781
50	KAMMU	Ten-ō (781-782), Enryaku (782-806)	781-806
51	HEIZEI		806-809
52	SAGA	Daidō (809-810), Kōnin (810-823)	809-823
53	JUNNA	Kōnin (823-824), Tenchō (824-833)	823-833
54	NIMMYŌ	Tenchō (833-834), Jowa (834-848), Kashō (848-850)	833-850
55	MONTOKU	Kashō (850-851), Ninju(851-854), Saikō (854-857), Tennan (857-858)	850-858
56	SEIWA	Tennan (858-859), Jōgwan (859-876)	858-876
57	YŌZEI	Jōgwan(876-877), Gwangyō (877-884)	876-884
58	KŌKŌ	Gwangyō (884-885), Ninna (885-887)	884-887
59	UDA	Ninna (887-889), Kwanpyō (889-897)	887-897
60	DAIGO	Kwampyō (897-898), Shōtai (898-901), Engi (901-923), Enchō (923-930)	897-930
61	SUZAKU	Enchō (930-931), Jōhei (931-938), Tengyō (938-946)	930-946
62	MURAKAMI	Tengyō(946-947), Tenryaku (947-957), Tentoku(957-961), Ōwa (961-964), Kōhō (964-967)	946-967
63	REIZEI	Kōhō (967-968), Anna (968-969)	967-969
64	ENYŪ	Anna (969-970), Tenroku (970-973) Tenen (973-976), Jōgen (976-978), Tengen (978-983), Eikan (983-984)	969-984
65	KAZAN	Eikan (984-985), Kanna(985-986)	984-986
66	ICHIJŌ	Kanna (986-987), Eien (987-989), Eiso (989-990), Shōryaku (990-995) Chōtoku (995-999), Chōho (999-1004) Kankō (1004-1011)	986-1011
67	SANJŌ	Kankō (1011-1012), Chōwa (1012-1016)	1011-1016
68	GOICHIJŌ		1016-1036

No. of Reign	Emperor	Year Name(with its duration in parenthesis)	Duration of Reign
		Chōwa (1016-1017), Kannin (1017-1021), Chian (1021-1024), Manju (1024-1028), Chōgen (1028-1036)	
69	GOSUZAKU	Chōgen (1036-1037), Chōryaku (1037-1040), Chōkyū (1040-1044), Kantoku (1044-1045)	1036-1045
70	GOREIZEI	Kantoku (1045-1046), Eijō (1046-1053), Tenki (1053-1058), Kōhei (1058-1065) Chiryaku (1065-1068)	1045-1068
71	GOSANJŌ	Chiryaku (1068-1069), Enkyū (1069-1072)	1068-1072
72	SHIRAKAWA	Enkyū (1072-1074), Jōho (1074-1077), Jōryaku (1077-1081), Eiho (1081-1084), Ōtoku (1084-1086)	1072-1086
73	HORIKAWA	Ōtoku (1086-1087), Kanji (1087-1094), Kaho (1094-1096), Eichō (1096-1097), Jōtoku (1097-1099), Kōwa (1099-1104), Chōji (1104-1106), Kajō (1106-1107),	1086-1107
74	TOBA	Kajō (1107-1108), Tennin (1108-1110) T1n-ei (1110-1113), Eikyū (1113-1118), Gen-ei (1118-1120), Hoan (1120-1123)	1107-1123
75	SUTOKU	Hoan (1123-1124), Tenji (1124-1126), Daiji (1126-1131), Tenjō (1131-1132), Chōjō, (1132-1135), Hoen (1135-1141), Eiji (1141)	1123-1141
76	KONOYÉ	Éiji (1141-1142), Kōji (1142-1144), Tenyō (1144-1145), Kyūan (1145-1151), Nimpei (1151-1154), Kyūju (1154-1155)	1141-1155
77	GOSHIRAKAWA	Kyūju (1155-1156), Hogen (1156-1158)	1155-1158
78	NIJŌ	Hogen (1158-1159), Heiji (1159-1160), Éiryaku (1160-1161), Ōho (1161-1163), Chōkan (1163-1165), Éiman (1165)	1158-1165
79	ROKUJŌ	Eiman (1165-1166), Ninnan (1166-1168)	1165-1168
80	TAKAKURA	Ninnan (1168-1169), Kaō (1169-1171), Jōan (1171-1175), Angen (1175-1177), Jishō (1177-1180)	1168-1180
81	ANTOKU	Jishō (1180-1181), Yōwa (1181-1182), Juéi (1182-1184), Genryaku (1184-1185)	1180-1185
82	GOTOBA	Bunji (1185-1190), Kenkyū (1190-1198)	1185-1198
83	TSUCHIMIKADO	Kenkyū (1198-1199), Shōji (1199-1201), Kennin (1201-1204), Genkyū (1204-1206), Kenéi (1206-1207), Jōgen (1207-1210)	1198-1210
84	JUNTOKU	Jōgen (1210-1211), Kenryaku (1211-1213), Kenho (1213-1219), Jōkyu (1219-1221)	1210-1221
85	CHŪKYŌ	Jōkyū (1221)	1221
86	GOHORIKAWA	Jōkyū (1221-1222), Jō-ō (1222-1224), Gennin (1224-1225), Karoku (1225-1227), Antéi (1227-1229). Kanki (1229-1232), Jōéi (1232)	1221-1232
87	SHIJŌ	Jōéi (1232-1233), Tempuku (1233-1234), Bunryaku(1234-1235),Katei(1235-1238), Ryakunin (1238-1239), Ennō (1239-1240), Ninji (1240-1242)	1232-1242
88	GOSAGA	Ninji (1242-1243), Kangen (1243-1246)	1242-1246
89	GOFUKAKUSA	Kangen (1246-1247), Hōji (1247-1249), Kenchō (1249-1256), Kogen (1256-1257), Shōka (1257-1259) Shōgen (1259)	1246-1259
90	KAMEYAMA	Shōgen (1259-1260), Bunnō (1260-1261), Kōcho (1261-1264), Bunéi (1264-1274)	1259-1274
91	GOUDA	Bunéi (1274-1275), Kenji (1275-1278), Kōan (1278-1287)	1274-1287
92	FUSHIMI	Kōan (1287-1288), Shō-ō (1288-1293), Einin (1293-1298)	1287-1298
93	GOFUSHIMI	Einin (1298-1299), Shōan	1298-1301

No. of Reign	Emperor	Year Name(with its duration in parenthesis)	Duration of Reign
		(1299-1301)	
94	GONIJŌ	Shōan (1301-1302), Kengen (1302-1303), Kagen (1303-1306), Tokuji (1306-1308)	1301-1308
95	HANAZONO	Tokuji (1308), Enkyo (1308-1311, Ūchō (1311-1312), Shōwa (1312-1317), Bunpo (1317-1318)	1308-1318
96	GODAIGO	Bumpo (1318-1319), Gennō (1319-1321), Genkyō (1321-1324), Shōchū (1324-1326), Karyaku (1326-1329), Gentoku (1329-1331), Genkō (1331-1334), Kemmu (1334-1336), Engen (1336-1339)	1318-1339
97	GOMURAKAMI	Engen (1339-1340), Kōkoku (1340-1346), Shōhei (1346-1368)	1339-1368
98	CHŌKEI	Shōhei (1368-1370), Kentoku (1370-1372), Bunchū (1372-1375), Tenju (1375-1381), Kōwa (1381-1383)	1368-1383
99	GOKAMEYAMA	Kōwa (1383-1384), Genchū (1384-1392)	1383-1392
100	GOKOMATSU	Genchū (1392), Meitoku (1393-1394,) Ōéi (1394-1412)	1392-1412
101	SHŌKŌ	Ōéi (1412-1428), Shōchō (1428)	1412-1428
102	GOHANAZONO	Shōchō (1428-1429), Éikyō (1429-1441), Kakitsu (1441-1444), Bunnan (1444-1449), Hōtoku (1449-1452), Kyōtoku (1452-1455), Kōshō (1455-1457), Chōroku (1457-1460), Kanshō (1460-1464)	1428-1464
103	GOTSUCHIMIKADO	Kanshō (1464-1466), Bünshō (1466-1467), Ōnin(1467-1469), Bummei (1469-1487), Chōkyō (1487-1489), Entoku (1489-1492), Méiō (1492-1500)	1464-1500
104	GOKASHIWABARA	Méiō (1500-1501), Bünki (1501-1504), Eishō (1504-1521), Daiéi (1521-1526)	1500-1526
105	GONARA	Daiéi (1526-1528), Kyoroku (1528-1532), Temmon (1532-1555), Kōji (1555-1557)	1526-1557
106	ŌGIMACHI	Kōji (1557-1558), Eiroku (1558-1570), Genki (1570-1573), Tenshō (1573-1586)	1557-1586
107	GOYŌZEI	Tenshō (1586-1592), Bünroku(1592-1596), Keichō(1596-1611)	1586-1611
108	GOMIZUNO-O	Keichō (1611-1615), Genna (1615-1624), Kanéi (1624-1629)	1611-1629
109	MYŌJŌ (Empress)	Kanéi (1629-1643)	1629-1643
110	GOKŌMYŌ	Kanéi (1643-1644), Shōho (1644-1648), Keian (1648-1652), Jō-ō (1652-1654)	1643-1654
111	GOSAI	Jō-ō (1654-1655), Meiryaku (1655-1658), Manji (1658-1661), Kanbun (1661-1663)	1654-1663
112	REIGEN	Kanbun (1663-1673), Empō (1673-1681), Tenna (1681-1684), Jōkyō (1684-1687)	1663-1687
113	HIGASHIYAMA	Jōkyō (1687-1688), Genroku (1688-1704), Hōéi (1704-1709)	1687-1709
114	NAKAMIKADO	Hōéi (1709-1711), Shōtoku (1711-1716), Kyōho (1716-1735)	1709-1735
115	SAKURAMACHI	Kyōho(1735-1736), Gembun (1736-1741), Kampō (1741-1744), Enkyō (1744-1747)	1735-1747
116	MOMOZONO	Enkyō (1747-1748), Kan-én (1748-1751), Hōryaku (1751-1762)	1747-1762
117	GOSAKURAMACHI (Empress)	Hōryaku (1762-1764), Meiwa (1764-1770)	1762-1770
118	GOMOMOZONO	Meiwa (1770-1772), An-éi (1772-1779)	1770-1779
119	KŌKAKU	An-éi (1779-1781), Temmei (1781-1789), Kansei (1789-1801), Kyōwa (1801-1804), Bünka (1804-1817)	1779-1817
120	NINKŌ	Bunka (1817-1818), Bünsei (1818-1830), Tempō (1830-1844), Kōka (1844-1846)	1817-1846
121	KŌMEI	Kōka (1846-1848), Kaéi (1848-1854), Ansei (1854-1860), Manén (1860-1861), Bünkyū (1861-1864), Genji	1846-1866

No. of Reign	Emperor	Year Name (with its duration in parenthesis	Duration of Reign
		(1864-1865), Keiō (1865-1866)	
122	MEIJI		1867-1912
		Keiō (1867-1868), Meiji (1868-1912)	
123	TAISHŌ		1912-1926
		Taishō (1912-1926)	
124	PRESENT TENNŌ		1926-
		Showa (1926-)	

TREATY FOR THE RENUNCIATION OF WAR

Signed at Paris, August 26, 1926

ARTICLE I The High Contracting Parties solemnly declare in the name of their respective peoples that they condemn recourse to war for the solution of international controversies, and renounce it as an instrument of national policy in their relations with one another.

ARTICLE II The High Contracting Parties agree that the settlement or solution of all disputes or conflicts of whatever nature or of whatever origin they may be, which may arise among them, shall never be sought except by pacific means.

ARTICLE III The present Treaty shall be ratified by the High Contracting Parties named in the Preamble in accordance with their respective constitutional requirements, and shall take effect as between them as soon as all their several instruments of ratification shall have been deposited at Washington.

This Treaty shall, when it has come into effect as prescribed in the preceding paragraph, remain open as long as may be necessary for adherence by all the other Powers of the world. Every instrument evidencing the adherence of a Power shall be deposited at Washington and the Treaty shall immediately upon such deposit become effective as between the Power thus adhering and the other Powers parties hereto.

It shall be the duty of the Government of the United States to furnish each Government named in the Preamble and every Government subsequently adhering to this Treaty with a certified copy of the Treaty and of every instrument of ratification or adherence. It shall also be the duty of the Government of the United States telegraphcially to notify such Governments immediately upon the deposit with it of each instrument of ratification or adherence.

TREATY BETWEEN THE NINE POWERS CONCERNING CHINA

Signed at Washington February 6, 1922

ARTICLE I The Contracting Powers, other than China, agree:

(1) To respect the sovereignty, the independence, and the territorial and administrative integrity of China;

(2) To provide the fullest and most unembarrassed opportunity to China to develop and maintain for herself an effective and stable government;

(3) To use their influence for the purpose of effectually establishing and maintaining the principle of equal opportunity for the commerce and industry of all nations through the territory of China;

(4) To refrain from taking advantage of conditions in China in order to seek special rights or privileges which would abridge the rights of subjects or citizens of friendly States, and from countenancing action inimical to the security of such States.

ARTICLE II The Contracting Powers agree not to enter into any treaty, agreement, arrangement, or understanding, either with one another, or individually or collectively, with any Power or Powers, which would infringe or impair the principles stated in Article I.

ARTICLE III With a view to applying more effectually the principles of the Open Door or equality of opportunity in China for the trade and industry of all nations, the Contracting Powers, other than China, agree that they will not seek,

nor support their respective nationals in seeking :—

(a) any arrangement which might purport to establish in favour of their interest any general superiority of rights with respect to commercial or economic development in any designated region of China ;

(b) any such monopoly or preference as would deprive the nationals of any other Power of the right of undertaking any legitimate trade or industry in China, or of participating with the Chinese Government, or with any local authority, in any category of public enterprise, or which by reason of its scope, duration or geographical extent is calculated to frustrate the practical application of the principle of equal opportunity.

It is understood that the foregoing stipulations of this Article are not to be so construed as to prohibit the acquisition of such properties or rights as may be necessary to the conduct of a particular commercial, industrial, or financial undertaking or to the encouragement of invention and research.

China undertakes to be guided by the principles stated in the foregoing stipulations of this Article in dealing with applications for economic rights and privileges from Governments and nationals of all foreign countries, whether parties to the present Treaty or not.

ARTICLE IV The Contracting Powers agree not to support any agreements by their respective nationals with each other designed to create Spheres of Influence or to provide for the enjoyment of mutually exclusive opportunities in designated parts of Chineses territory.

ARTICLE V China agrees that, throughout the whole of the railways in China, she will not exercise or permit unfair discrimination of any kind. In particular there shall be no discrimination whatever, direct or indirect, in respect of charges or of facilities on the ground of the nationality of passengers or the countries from which or to which they are proceeding, or the origin or ownership of goods or the country from which or to which they are consigned, or the nationality or ownership of the ship or other means of conveying such passengers or goods before or after their transport on the Chinese Railways.

The Contracting Powers, other than China, assume a corresponding obligation in respect of any of the aforesaid railways over which they or their nationals are in a position to exercise any control in virtue of any concession, special agreement or otherwise.

ARTICLE VI The contracting Powers, other than China, agree fully to respect China's rights as a neutral in time of war to which China is not a party; and China declares that when she is a neutral she will observe the obligations of neutrality.

ARTICLE VII The Contracting Powers agree that, whenever a situation arises which in the opinion of any one of them involves the application of the stipulations of the present Treaty, and renders desirable discussion of such application, there shall be full and frank communication between the Contracting Powers concerned.

ARTICLE VIII Powers not signatory to the present Treaty, which have Governments recognized by the Signatory Powers and which have treaty relations with China, shall be invited to adhere to the present Treaty. To this end the Government of the United States will make necessary communications to nonsignatory Powers and will inform the Contracting Powers of the replies received. Adherence by any Power shall become effective on receipt of notice thereof by the Government of the United States.

TREATY BETWEEN THE FOUR POWERS CONCERNING THEIR INSULAR POSSESSIONS AND INSULAR DOMINIONS IN THE REGION OF THE PACIFIC OCEAN

Signed at Washington, December 13, 1921

AND

SUPPLEMENTARY AGREEMENT

Signed at Washington, February, 6, 1922

I

The High Contracting Parties agree as between themselves to respect their rights in relation to their insular possessions and insular dominions in the region of the Pacific Ocean.

If there should develop between any of the High Contracting Parties a contr oversy arising out of any Pacific question and involving their said rights which is not satisfactorily settled by diplomacy and is likely to affect the harmonious accord now happily subsisting between them, they shall invite the other High Contracting Parties to a joint conference to which the whole subject will be referred for consideration and adjustment.

II

If the said rights are threatened by the aggressive action of any other Power, the High Contracting Parties shall communicate with one another fully and frankly in order to arrive at an understanding as to the most efficient measures to be taken, jointly or separately, to meet the exigencies of the particular situation.

III

This Treaty shall remain in force for ten years from the time it shall take effect, and after the expiration of said period it shall continue to be in force subject to the right of any of the High Contracting Parties to terminate it upon twelve months' notice.

IV

This Treaty shall be ratified as soon as possible in accordance with the constitutional methods of the High Contracting Parties and shall take effect on the deposit of ratifications, which shall take place at Washington, and there-upon the agreement between Great Britain and Japan, which was concluded at London on July 13, 1911, shall terminate. The Government of the United States will transmit to all the Signatory Powers a certified copy of the proces-verbal of the deposit of ratifications.

The present Treaty, in French and in English, shall remain deposit in the archives of the Government of the United States, and duly certified copies thereof will be transmitted by that Government to each of the Signatory Powers.

TREATY BETWEEN JAPAN AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA CONCERNING THE ISLAND OF YAP AND OTHER MANDATED ISLANDS SITUATED IN THE PACIFIC OCEAN AND LYING NORTH OF THE EQUATOR

Signed at Washington, Febuary 11, 1922

Considering that by Article 119 of the Treaty of Versailles, signed on June 28, 1919, Germany renounced in favour of the Powers described in that Treaty as the Principal Allied and Associated Powers, to wit, the United States of America, the British Empire, France, Italy and Japan, all her rights and titles over her oversea possessions;

Considering that the benefits accruing to the United States under the aforesaid Article 119 of the Treaty of Versailles were confirmed by the Treaty between the United States and Germany, signed on August 25, 1921, to restore friendly relations between the two nations;

Considering that the said four Powers, to wit, the British Empire, France, Italy and Japan, have agreed to confer upon His Majesty the Emperor of Japan a mandate, pursuant to the Treaty of Versailles, to administer the groups of the former German islands in the Pacific Ocean lying north of the Equator, in accordance with the following provisions:

ARTICLE I The islands over which a Mandate is conferred upon His Majesty the Emperor of Japan (herein-after called the Mandatory) comprise all the former German islands situated in the Pacific Ocean and lying north of the Equator;

ARTICLE II The Mandatory shall have full power of administration and legislation over the territory subject to the present Mandate as an integral portion of the Empire of Japan, and may apply the laws of the Empire of Japan to the territory, subject to such local modifications as circumstances may require;

The Mandatory shall promote to the utmost the material and moral well-being and the social progress of the inhabitants of the territory subject to the present Mandate;

ARTICLE III The Mandatory shall see that the slave trade is prohibited and that

no forced labour is permitted, except for essential public works and services, and then only for adequate remuneration;

The Mandatory shall also see that the traffic in arms and ammunition is controlled in accordance with principles analogous to those laid down in the Convention relating to the control of the arms traffic, signed on September 10th, 1919, or in any convention amending same;

The supply of intoxicating spirits and beverages to the natives shall be prohibited;

ARTICLE IV The military training of the natives, otherwise than for purpose of internal police and the local defence of the territory, shall be prohibited. Furthermore, no military or naval bases shall be established or fortifications erected in the territory;

ARTICLE V Subject to the provisions of any local law for the maintenance of public order and public morals, the Mandatory shall ensure in the territory freedom of conscience and the free exercise of all forms of worship, and shall allow all missionaries, nationals of any State Member of the League of Nations, to enter into, travel and reside in the territory for the purpose of prosecuting their calling;

ARTICLE VI The Mandatory shall make to the Council of the League of Nations an annual report to the satisfaction of the Council, containing full information with regard to the territory, and indicating the measures taken to carry out the obligations assumed under Articles 2, 3, 4, and 5;

ARTICLE VII The consent of the Council of the League of Nations is required for any modification of the terms of the present mandate;

The Mandatory agrees that, if any dispute whatever should arise between the Mandatory and another member of the League of Nations relating to the interpretation or the application of the provision of the Mandate, such dispute, if it cannot be settled by negotiation, shall be submitted to the Permanent Court of International Justice provided for by Article 14 of the Covenant of the League of Nations;

Considering that the United States did not ratify the Treaty of Versailles and did not participate in the agreement respecting the aforesaid Mandate;

Desiring to reach a definite understanding with regard to the rights of the two governments and their respective nationals in the aforesaid islands, and in particular the Island of Yap, have resolved to conclude a Convention for that purpose and to that end have named as their Plenipotentiaries:

His Majesty the Emperor of Japan: Baron Kijuro Shidehara, His Majesty's Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary at Washington; and

The President of the United States of America: Charles Evans Hughes, Secretary of State of the United States of America;

Who, after having communicated to each other their respective full powers, found to be in good and due form, have agreed as follows:

ARTICLE I Subject to the provisions of the present Convention, the United States consents to the administration by Japan, pursuant to the aforesaid Mandate, of all the former German islands in the Pacific Ocean, lying north of the Equator.

ARTICLE II The United States and its nationals shall receive all the benefits of the engagements of Japan, defined in Articles 3, 4 and 5 of the aforesaid Mandate, notwithstanding the fact that the United States is not a Member of the League of Nations.

It is further agreed between the High Contracting Parties as follows:

(1) Japan shall insure in the islands complete freedom of conscience and the free exercise of all forms of worship which are consonant with public order and morality; American missionaries of all such religions shall be free to enter the islands and to travel and reside therein, to acquire and possess property, to erect religious buildings and to open schools throughout the islands; it being understood, however, that Japan shall have the right to exercise such control as may be necessary for the maintenance of public order and good government and to take all measures required for such control.

(2) Vested American property rights in the mandated islands shall be respected and in no way impaired;

(3) Existing treaties between the United States and Japan shall be applicable to the mandated islands;

(4) Japan will address to the United States a duplicate of the annual report on the administration of the Mandate to be made by Japan to the council of the League of Nations;

(5) Nothing contained in the present Convention shall be affected by any modification which may be made in the terms of the Mandate as recited in the Convention, unless such modification shall have been expressly assented to by the United States.

ARTICLE III The United States and

its nationals have free access to the Island of Yap on a footing of entire equality with Japan or any other nation and their respective nationals in all that relates to the landing and operation of the existing Yap-Guam cable or of any cable which may hereafter be laid or operated by the United States or by its nationals connecting Island of Yap.

The rights and privileges embraced by the preceding paragraph shall also be accorded to the Government of the United States and its nationals with respect to radio-telegraphic communication; provided, however, that so long as the Government of Japan shall maintain on the Island of Yap an adequate radio-telegraphic station, co-operating effectively with the cables and with other radio stations on ships or on shore, without discriminatory exactions or preferences, the exercise of the right to establish radio-telegraphic stations on the Island by the United States or its nationals shall be suspended.

ARTICLE IV In connection with the rights embraced by Article III, specific rights, privileges and exemptions, in so far as they relate to electrical communications, shall be enjoyed in the Island of Yap by the United States and its nationals in terms as follows:

(1) Nationals of the United States shall have the unrestricted right to reside in the Island, and the United States and its nationals shall have the right to acquire and hold on a footing of entire equality with Japan or any other nation or their respective nationals all kinds of property and interests, both personal and real, including lands, buildings, residences, offices, works and appurtenances.

(2) Nationals of the United States shall not be obliged to obtain any permit or license in order to be entitled to land and operate cables on the Island, or to establish radio-telegraphic service, subject to the provisions of Article 3, or to enjoy any of the rights and privileges embraced by this Article and Article 3.

(3) No censorship or supervision shall be exercised over cable or radio messages or operations.

(4) Nationals of the United States shall have complete freedom of entry and exit in the Island for their persons and property.

(5) No taxes, port, harbour, or landing charges or exactions of any nature whatsoever, shall be levied either with respect to the operation of cables or radio stations, or with respect to property, persons or vessels.

(6) No discriminatory police regulations shall be enforced.

(7) The Government of Japan will exercise its power of expropriation in the Island to secure to the United States or its nationals needed property and facilities for the purpose of electrical communications if such property or facilities cannot otherwise be obtained.

It is understood that the location and the area of land so to be expropriated shall be arranged between the two Governments according to the requirements of each case. Property of the United States or of its nationals and facilities for the purpose of electrical communication in the Island shall not be subject to expropriation.

NOTIFICATION OF THE JAPANESE GOVERNMENT TO THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Made Public March 27, 1932

The Japanese Government believe that the national policy of Japan, which has for its aim to insure the peace of the Orient and thereby to contribute to the cause of peace throughout the world, is identical in spirit with the mission of the League of Nations, which is to achieve international peace and security. It has always been with pleasure, therefore, that this country has for thirteen years past, as an original Member of the League, and a permanent Member of its Council, extended a full measure of co-operation with her fellow-Members towards the attainment of its high purpose. It is indeed a matter of historical fact that Japan has continuously participated in the various activities of the League with a zeal not inferior to that exhibited by any other nation. At the same time, it is and has always been the conviction of the Japanese Government that in order to render possible the maintenance of peace in various regions of the world, it is necessary in existing circumstances to allow the operation of the Covenant of the

League to vary in accordance with the actual conditions prevailing in each of those regions. Only by acting on this just and equitable principle can the League fulfil its mission and increase its influence.

Acting on this conviction, the Japanese Government, ever since the Sino-Japanese dispute was, in September, 1931, submitted to the League, have, at meetings of the League and on other occasions, continually set forward a consistent view. This was, that if the League was to settle the issue fairly and equitably, and to make a real contribution to the promotion of peace in the Orient, and thus enhance its prestige, it should acquire a complete grasp of the actual conditions in this quarter of the globe and apply the Covenant of the League in accordance with these conditions. They have repeatedly emphasized and insisted upon the absolute necessity of taking into consideration the fact that China is not an organized State,—that its internal conditions and external relations are characterized by extreme confusion and complexity, and by many abnormal and exceptional features, — and that, accordingly, the general principles and usages of International Law which govern the ordinary relations between nations are found to be considerably modified in their operation so far as China is concerned, resulting in the quite abnormal and unique international practices which actually prevail in that country.

However, the majority of the Members of the League evinced in the course of its deliberations during the past seventeen months a failure either to grasp these realities or else to face them and take them into proper account. Moreover, it has frequently been made manifest in these deliberations that there exist serious differences of opinion between Japan and these Powers concerning the application and even the interpretation of various international engagements and obligations including the Covenant of the League and the principles of International Law. As a result, the Report adopted by the Assembly at the special session of 24 February last, entirely misapprehending the spirit of Japan, pervaded as it is by no other desire than the maintenance of peace in the Orient, contains gross errors both in the ascertainment of facts and in the conclusions deduced. In asserting that the action of the Japanese Army at the time of the Incident of 18 September and subsequently did not fall within the just limits of self-defence, the Report assigned no reasons and came to an arbitrary conclusion, and in ignoring alike the state of tension which preceded, and the various aggravations which succeeded, the Incident—for all of which the full responsibility is incumbent upon China—the Report creates a source of fresh conflict in the political arena of the Orient. By refusing to acknowledge the actual circumstances that led to the foundation of Manchoukuo, and by attempting to challenge the position taken up by Japan in recognizing the new State, it cuts away the ground for the stabilization of the Far Eastern situation. Nor can the terms laid down in its recommendations — as was fully explained in the Statement issued by this Government on 25 February last — ever be of any possible service in securing enduring peace in these regions.

The conclusion must be that in seeking a solution of the question the majority of the League have attached greater importance to upholding inapplicable formulae than to the real task of assuring peace, and higher value to the vindication of academic thesis than to the eradication of the sources of future conflict. For these reasons, and because of the profound differences of opinion existing between Japan and the majority of the League in their interpretation of the Covenant and of other treaties, the Japanese Government have been led to realize the existence of an irreconcilable divergence of views, dividing Japan and the League on policies of peace, and especially as regards the foundamental principles to be followed in the establishment of a durable peace in the Far East. The Japanese Goverment, believing that in these circumstances there remains no room for further cooperation, hereby give notice, in accordance with the provisions of Article 1, Paragraph 3, of the Covenant, of intention of Japan to withdraw from the League of Nations.

STATEMENT OF THE JAPANESE GOVERNMENT IN VIRTUE OF PARAGRAPH 5 OF ARTICLE 15 OF THE COVENANT OF THE LEAGUE

February 25, 1933

PART I

Japan's co-operation with the League of Nations

Japan has taken the greatest interest in the development and success of the League from the days of its inception. Her successive governments have extended to it for nearly fourteen years their hearty co-operation, and her statesmen have devoted their best efforts to the extention of its influence and the enhancement of its prestige. Japan takes pride in recalling the active participation of her representatives in the work of the League. As an original and permanent Member of the Council, she has had many opportunities of co-operation in its beneficient activities, and of these opportunities she has fully availed herself. She regards the League as a most powerful instrument for the good of humanity; and she is only anxious, in the interest of this great experiment in the establishment of universal peace, that the Members of the League shall fully appreciate the situation in the Far East and deal with it in a practical way rather than by formulae and principles.

The present dispute was first brought by China to the consideration of the Council of the League of Nations under Article 11 of the Covenant in September, 1931. In spite of the fact that Japan in this case was obliged to act solely in self-defence against aggression on the part of China, Japan, from the very beginning, has spared no effort in explaining to the League the facts and background of this unfortunate incident, and at the same time, she has constantly, and without waiting for the Resolution passed by the Council on September 30, endeavoured as far as possible not to aggravate the situation. Japan has also from time to time communicated to the League all information relative to the development of the situation, so that the League might be enabled to understand the actual conditions prevailing in the Far East.

Unfortunately, however, the condition of Manchuria showed no immediate improvement in the matter of peace and order, owing to the continued activities of Chang Hsueh-liang, while the feelings of the Chinese and the Japanese peoples became further strained, with the result that there was no possibility of withdrawing the Japanese troops within the Railway Zone under the then existing circumstances. When the Council met again in October, Japan realized the importance of allaying the excited national feelings of the two peoples as the first essential condition of securing the safety of the lives and property of Japanese subjects and of making possible the withdrawal of the Japanese troops. She was convinced that for this purpose, it was necessary for the two parties concerned to pave the way for direct negotiations, with the object of restoring normal relations between the two countries. Japan took pains to explain this view to the President and certain Members of the Council, but proposal to initiate direct negotiations was not accepted.

Moreover, the Council formed a plan to invite a representative of the United States, a non-Member State of the League, to participate in its deliberations as an observer. To this proposition Japan raised an objection, contending that participation in the proceedings of the Council by a state not a Member of the League is contrary to its constitution, but the other Members of the Council insisted on regarding the step as a mere matter of procedure, and they invited a United States observer to the Council. Japan remained convinced that this was a matter which concerned the constitution of the League and that the action of the majority constituted a clear case of the violation of the Covenant. It became apparent that if the opinion of her fellow-members was that such an important matter of substance could be decided by a majority as a mere matter of procedure, she had ratified the Covenant under an error. However, owing to her strong desire to uphold the cause of the League, she continued to participate in the activities of the Council.

The discrepancy between the views of the other Members of the League and those entertained by Japan arose from a

lack of understanding of the Far Eastern situation on the part of the League. In her desire to assist the League and to maintain its legitimate influence and usefulness, Japan proposed at the Council meeting held in November, 1931, that the League should dispatch a Commission of Enquiry to China so that its Members might be able to understand fully the actual conditions prevailing in that country. This proposal was adopted by the Council in its Resolution of December 10.

The Commission of Enquiry headed by Lord Lytton reached China in March, 1932, by way of Japan and entered Manchoukuo in April. Japan rendered every facility to the Commission in order to assist its investigations. Through the establishment of the new State of Manchoukuo, especial difficulty was encountered in the matter of the entrance of the Chinese Assessor into the territory of that State. Japan therefore exerted her good offices with Manchoukuo in order to smooth over this difficulty, and enabled the Commission to carry out its investigations.

The Report of the Commission of Enquiry was made public on October 1, 1932. On account of the brief period allowed for the investigation of the Commission, much remained to be desired for the Report to claim to present a true picture of the actual condition of China. Accordingly, Japan, on November 18 last, handed to the League her Observations on the Lytton Report in order to provide it with accurate materials for coming to a fair conclusion on the questions involved.

The Lytton Report was the subject of deliberation by the Council from November 21, and by the Assembly from December 6, 1932. The Committee of Nineteen appointed by the Assembly without the concurrence of Japan drafted on December 15 a Resolution and a Statement of Reasons concerning the procedure to be followed in performing the duty of conciliation which devolved upon that body in accordance with Paragraph 3, Article 15 of the Covenant. Japan proposed the deletion from the Draft Resolution of passages regarding the participation of states which were not members of the League, and also the modification of certain points relating to the proposed Committee of Conciliation as well as the entire deletion of the last paragraph of the Statement of Reasons, which declared in particular that the maintenance and recognition of the present régime in Manchuria could not be considered as solution.

At the same time, considering that Paragraph 3 of Article 15 represents the final resort provided for in the Covenant for conciliatory solution of a dispute, Japan endeavoured to discover some compromise which would enable her to continue her co-operation with the League.

As stated in Part II, M of the Report, the President of the Committee and the Secretary General were authorized to enter into conversations with both the Japanese and Chinese Delegations. The conversations between the Japanese Delegation and the Secretary General were carried on from the first part of January, 1933. As a result of these conversations, a draft was drawn up, and it was referred with the knowledge of the President of the Committee to the Japanese Government for their approval. Subsequently, when amendments of the Japanese Government to this draft were communicated to the Committee of Nineteen, it was made known to the Japanese Delegation that the said draft could not be taken up as a basis of further negotiation. This caused a great surprise to the Japanese Government as they had every reason to believe that the President of the Committee, who together with the Secretary General was authorized to conduct negotiations with the both Delegations, was also fully aware of the conversations and raised no objection to the preparation of the draft.

Though the Committee finally agreed to the deletion from the Draft Resolution of passages relating to the participation of non-Member States in the work of the proposed Committee of Conciliation, it proposed that the Japanese Government accept the rest of the text of the Resolution and the Statement of Reasons of December 15 and make a reservation in regard to the last Paragraph of the Statement of Reasons to which Japan had taken objection. The declaration contained in this Paragraph would, as is stated elsewhere in the present statement, not only constitute an action ultra vires on the part of the League but prejudice the whole question and imply a direct attack on the policy followed by the Japanese Government with respect to the existence of Manchoukuo. Furthermore, such an attitude on the part of the League was in no way in accord with the idea of conciliation advocated by the Committee of Nineteen as well as by the Japanese Government. For these reasons, Japan found it impossible to accept the proposal of the Committee.

Upon the refusal of the Japanese Delegation to agree to the Committee's proposal in this regard, the latter set to the procedure of drafting a Report under Paragraph 4 of Article 15.

However, the Japanese Government refused to give up the hope for conciliation and in their final efforts to achieve this end, they agreed to withdraw the various amendments which they had presented when the text of December 15 was communicated to them and consented to accept as the basis of conciliation the principles and conclusions of Chapter 9 of the Lytton Report, in so far as they were applied in a way to "harmonize with the events which have taken place," which phrase is an almost literal quotation from that Report itself. Further they agreed to the maintenance of the last Paragraph of the President's Declaration (formerly called the Statement of Reasons) on the condition that its wording be modified in such a way that it would not appear to constitute a prejudgment and an attack directed against the policy of the Japanese Government vis-à-vis Manchoukuo.

The Committee of Nineteen found this final proposal likewise unacceptable. Thus the Committee rejected all the Japanese proposals and came to the conciliation under Paragraph 3 was impossible. The Committee forthwith proceeded with the drafting of a Report under Paragraph 4 of Article 15 of the Covenant. The Draft Report thus prepared was submitted to the Assembly on February 21, and in spite of the negative vote on the part of Japan, it was adopted by the Assembly on February 24.

PART II

Errors in the Report concerning the chief characteristics of the dispute

The Report sets forth in Part III what are termed the " chief characteristics of the dispute." It is most regrettable that this part of the Report is substantially based upon the Report of the Commission of Enquiry. As stated in that Report, "the issues involved in this conflict are not as simple as they are often represented to be. They are, on the contrary, exceedingly complicated and only an intimate knowledge of all the facts as well as of their historical background should entitle anyone to express a definite opinion upon them." It must be remembered that the Commission of Enquiry spent only six weeks in Manchuria and fifteen in China, most of which was passed in Peiping, and their trip covered only a very limited area of China—a few open ports where the real condition of China could not have thoroughly been studied. In these circumstances, it was impossible for them to acquire "an intimate knowledge of all the facts as well as their historical background."

Hence the document is not as complete as it should be. It is quite natural that there should be not a few errors in the Report of the Assembly which was drafted upon the basis of the Lytton Report. These errors might have been avoided if the Committee of Nineteen had taken into due consideration the Observations of the Japanese Government presented to the Council on November 18, 1932. At any rate, it must be said that the Lytton Report, admirable and praiseworthy as it is, is not a document which one can lock upon as containing all the facts as well as all the historical background upon which alone final judgment should be based. The errors in the Report of the Assembly are numerous. Let only the most salient be cited:

(1) The Report appears to cling in Part III to the fiction that China exists today as a single organized state to be dealt with on the same footing as any country in Europe or America. The fiction happens to be merely a convenient formula which embodies in a concise form the generous aspirations of the Powers for the recovery of China as a unified and orderly state. Japan has worked hard to act upon that formula during these many years, and she is prepared to continue on the same lines in cases where ordinary matters alone are concerned. But where her vital necessities come into play as in Manchuria, she is forced to reconsider that fiction, and to ask herself what are the actual facts, and who are the actual rulers. States which are Members of the League of Nations and have little interest in China can afford to preserve the convenient fiction intact without serious difficulty. But Japan, in a totally different position, economically and strategically, is compelled, however reluctantly, to examine and set a limit to the fiction and to direct her course according to realities.

It is the view of the Japanese Government that the erstwhile Chinese State ceased to rule in Manchuria when "the fall of the United Republic after the death of Yuan Shi-kai in 1915 signalized the break-up of all unity of government in China." (Observations of the Japanese Government, page 15).

As a matter of fact, none of the governments including the Nanking Government maintains authority over China save over the limited areas which it actually controls. That is why the Japanese Government in their Observations insist that Manchuria is not naturally and necessarily an integral part of China. It will then be asked, as it has been asked,—"why did Japan invoke the Nanking Government at the outset of the Manchurian Incident? Why did Japan negotiate with Peking in 1915? Why did she declare Manchuria to be a part of China in 1922?" The answer is that Japan clung until the last moment to the fiction of Manchuria being an integral part of China. She had many excellent opportunities of departing from it, if she had wished, afforded by the chaotic state of the country. She steadily refrained from availing herself of the opportunities. But when chaos came to threaten her whole position in Manchuria, it became necessary for her to take measures to protect her various interests and important rights.

It should be observed at this point that Japan is not setting a precedent for defying the existence of a neighbour state merely because it is weak or disturbed by internal disruption. It is needless to say that so long as the government of a state which has actually ruled the whole area maintains its authority in any part of its territory, so long does the state continue to subsist and to remain inviolable. The peculiar circumstances of China do not reside in the fact that its common government is weak or distracted by disruption. They reside in the unique fact that no authority which now exists has ever been a common government of China at all, and none therefore has title to rule the entire country.

The League of Nations should not forget that fact overrides form, and that a state must possess a single and continuous government.

(2) The Report, in agreeing that the Chinese boycott against Japan imposed after the September 18 Incident falls within the province of retaliatory measures, sows the seeds of incalculable future trouble for each and every Power interested in China. All the major Powers conduct military operations in China under certain cirsumstances, and maintain armed forces in Chinese territory for that specific purpose. If the adoption by the Powers of any forcible measure for the protection of their rights and interests is on each occasion to be the subject of a retaliatory boycott, the application of force will of necessity be extended without limit.

By their acceptance of the Resolutions of September 30 and of December 10, 1931, China and Japan agreed that they should take the necessary measures to prevent any aggravation of the situation. The Japanese Government desire to call the attention of the League to the fact that it was the conspicuous failure on the part of China to take such proper measures that led to the regrettable Shanghai Incident. It should also be added that in any discussion of the boycott the fact of anti-foreign education in schools and the "revolutionary foreign policy" (admitted by the Nanking Government) should not be left out of consideration, as these three subjects are inseparably bound together.

(3) The Report quotes and adopts from the Lytton Report the reference to the possibility of an arbitral settlement of the Sino-Japanese dispute. But arbitration presupposes a normal organized state with a government supreme throughout its territory and capable of enforcing an award. China, as has been stated above, has not for years been in such a state, at any rate so far as to render it possible to arbitrate with her in vital matters concerning Manchuria. With whom would the arbitration have proceeded? With Chang Hsueh-liang whom the League does not recognize? Or with the Nanking Government whose authority (as the Report of the Commission of Enquiry showed) he did not obey? Japan, with her vital interests at stake, could not and cannot possibly resort to arbitration in such a matter with such a country as China.

(4) The Report again quotes and adopts the refusal of the Commission of Enquiry to recognize as measures of self-defence the military operations of the Japanese army on the night of September 18, although it does not exclude the possibility that the Japanese officers on the spot might have thought they were acting in self-defence. This is simply another case of a facile and uncritical acceptance of the opinions of the Commission of Enquiry, utterly ignoring the emphatic contradiction contained in the Observations of the Japanese Government. On what grounds can the League or any other third party pronounce a verdict on the case contrary to the judgment of the Japanese officers on the spot? The right of self-defence is one of those inalienable rights of a state which may be duly exercised in certain specific circumstances, and the question of on what occasion and

to what extent that right should be exercised is a matter which can be determined only by the state concerned. In this connection the Japanese Government in their Observations have referred to the reservations made by both France and the United States in concluding the Pact of Paris; a reference which the Assembly found it possible to pass over in silence.

The Report in stating that the operations of the Japanese army, viewed as a whole as they developed through the entire period of the conflict, cannot be regarded as an act of self-defence, fails to take into cognizance the tension which existed, the overwhelming forces by which the Japanese were faced and the utter uncertainty which prevailed as to the probable action of those forces. Above all, it fails to take into account the vital rights and interests of Japan in Manchuria, which are not confined to the leased territory and the railways, but involve mining and forestry, consular police and consular jurisdiction, residence and trade throughout the entire region. When these rights and interests are threatened, the measures for their protection may have to be extended throughout Manchuria. But never have Japanese military operations exceeded the bounds of necessity for self-protection.

In order that it may not be supposed over sub silentio, the Japanese Government take this opportunity of explicitly denying the specific conclusion reached in the Report that no question can arise of Chinese responsibility for the development of events since September 18, 1931, and that the use of boycotts by China subsequent to that date falls under the category of reprisals. Even if the theory that the Japanese military action did not constitute lawful self-defence should be accepted, that clearly would not invest the Chinese with an unlimited license to behave as they chose to, and to enter upon a career of unrestricted violence and wrong. Much more is this the case if, as Japan contends, the actions of her troops were urgently called for by the necessities of self-defence. How can reprisals possibly be exercised against a lawful act? The proper reply to acts of self-defence is negotiation and explanation and not reprisals, which generally lead to war. Had the United States exercised reprisals in the Carolina case, war with England must have ensued. Again it must be noted that the Resolution of September 30 precludes either party from aggravating the situation; and it would seem strange to hold that this meant that China might take steps which would certainly aggravate it, leaving Japan alone responsible for any untoward development.

What appears to be a most curious statement is found in Part III of the Report which reads: "adoption of measures of self-defence does not exempt a state from complying with the provisions of Article 12 of the Covenant."

As has already been observed by the Japanese Government, the right of self-defence is exercised upon the occasion "of an urgent"—to quote Webster's definition — "and overwhelming necessity allowing no choice of means and no instant for deliberation." To enquire the observance upon such an occasion of Article 12 of the Covenant, which stipulates that the right of self-defence may be exercised three months after the award by the arbitrators or the judicial decision or the Report of the Council of the League has been made public, is to deny the right of self-defence itself.

(5) The Report says that the declaration of independence by Manchoukuo was not spontaneous. Since the statement is based upon no fresh investigation conducted at a later date, it may be readily gathered that the Report has here again adopted the erroneous conclusions of the Commission of Enquiry contained in Chapter VI of the latter's Report, the baselessness of which has been fully exposed in the Observations of the Japanese Government.

It must strike an impartial observer as extraordinary that the Assembly repeats this finding of the Commission of Enquiry in face of the emphatic denials of Japan. There are two factors which may partly account for this. First, the movement during the tyrannous régime of the Changs for the keeping of Manchuria aloof from all participation in the affairs of China Proper was subterranean, and had no repercussion in the outside world; and the authors of the Report may therefore have been sceptical of its existence. Secondly, they appear to be misled by giving implicit credence to the legend of the so-called "continental policy" of Japan, and her supposed plan to seek a political solution of the Manchurian issue as a step towards the execution of that policy. It is unnecessary to repeat that the Japanese "continental policy" is a mere Chinese fabrication, and that Japan harbours no territorial designs in any part of the world. But all this, though it may explain the rejection by the Assembly of the uncompromising denial made by Japan, can hardly be thought to excuse it.

The simple fact is that, as has so often been explained, on the disappearance of all the administrative organisations, such as they were, which had existed under the Changs, spontaneous local organisations naturally sprung up, and the Japanese troops which were responsible for the maintenance of order necessarily co-operated with them. It was a proper and necessary step, and in the circumstances an unavoidable one. Such was the whole significance of the presence of Japanese troops, and such was the sole aim of the activities of Japanese civil and military officers. Unfortunately the Commission of Enquiry, and consequently the Assembly, in their implicit reliance on the assumption that there had never existed any independence movement in Manchuria, have been obliged to attribute to the activities of Japanese civil and military officers the independence which was actually proclaimed,—and to do so upon no solid grounds whatever.

As to the assertion that the people of Manchuria are hostile to the new state, again there is no valid evidence beyond fifteen hundred letters of dubious origin received by the Commission of Enquiry. The Japanese Government desire to point out the fact that within less than a year since its foundation, Manchoukuo has achieved a marked and healthy progress in the restoration of law and order, and that no criticism or complaint has been heard of regarding its conduct of affairs, whether domestic or foreign.

Regardless of the attitude of the Assembly to the new State of Manchoukuo, she has gone forward steadily on the road of progress. Freed from the yoke of misgovernment under the tyrannous rule of the Changs, thirty million inhabitants of Manchuria, Machus, Mongols and Chinese all alike, have, already begun to reap the benefits of their labours which were denied them in former days. Throughout most of the country banditry has been suppressed. Those hostile elements, largely composed of the remnants of Chang Hsueh-liang's troops and receiving not inconsiderable assistance from their former war lord, had constituted an obstacle to the establishment of peace throughout the territory. Thanks, however, to the combined efforts of the Japanese and Manchoukuo forces, they have been practically cleared out of the Provinces of Fengtien, Kirin, and Heilungkiang, and the security of life and property has been reestablished in these Provinces. It is only in the Province of Jehol that the organized opposition still continues.

In the domain of finance, something entirely unknown in the history of China has been realized in Manchoukuo. Though the State is still in its infancy, a sound budgetary system has been initiated, and is being carried out with utmost satisfaction. The establishment of the central bank, which is functioning on the same lines as those of the advanced countries of the world, has contributed much to the stabilization of state finances and to the economic and industrial development of the country. A similar progress has also been noted in the domain of railway administration, commerce and industry, and with abundant resources with which she is endowed, there is every prospect of this country achieving, in days to come, a still greater progress along these lines to the benefit of her inhabitants and foreigners.

All this could not have been the case had the population of the country been hostile or even sullenly submissive. It is to be regretted therefore that the Assembly should have, without referring to the Observations submitted by Japan, accepted the assumption of the Commission of Enquiry, which, here again, has no foundation in fact,

(6) The Report dwells upon the need of international co-operation in the reconstruction of China, and mentions the provision of technical assistance as one form of that international co-operation. Obviously, the reconstruction of China cannot be accomplished by any such superficial and in adequate means. It could only be rendered possible by some forceful international intervention of such a nature as would at once prove incompatible with the stipulations of the Nine Power Treaty regarding the administrative integrity and political independence of China. That is another proof that it is necessary to allow ample elasticity by taking due account of changing conditions in the application of the Nine Power Treaty and the Covenant of the League as far as China is concerned.

PART III

Impracticabilities of the Recommendations

(1) Japan recognizes that the Covenant of the League of Nations and the Pact of Paris constitute the basic principles of the settlement of international disputes in so far as international relations in general are concerned. But a certain degree of

elasticity must be allowed in the application of these principles to such special and entirely abnormal conditions as prevail in China.

(2) As to the proposal for the withdrawal of troops contained in Section 2, (1), (A) of Part IV of the Report, it is to be noted that the presence of Japanese troops outside the Railway Zone, so far from being incompatible with legal principles, has from the very beginning been due entirely to the sheer necessities of lawful self-defence, and is in no way derogatory to the accepted principles regarding the settlement of international disputes. It is further to be noted that these Japanese troops are now responsible, in accordance with the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol, for the maintenance of peace and order in Manchoukuo. It is true that by the Resolutions of September 30 and of December 10, 1931, Japan undertook to withdraw her troops within the Railway Zone in so far as the safety of her sebjects was assured, but the condition attaching to that undertaking, namely the assurance of safety of life and property, has never been satisfied; and the undertaking itself has now become inapplicable on account of the independence of Manchoukuo and the conclusion of the agreements embodied in the Protocol signed on September 15 last. Should the Japanese troops be withdrawn from the Railway Zone in accordance with the recommendation contained in the Report, it would be inevitable that unrest and disturbances would ensue in the evacuated territory. Those Members of the League that have but little direct interest in the affairs of the Far East can afford to maintain that the upholding of abstract formulae is more important than the maintenance of the peace in this part of the world. But Japan, vitally concerned in the maintenance of peace and order in Manchuria, cannot tolerate that that region should again be plunged into disorder. It cannot be supposed that a gendarmerie system as proposed by the Lytton Report would remove all apprehensions on this score. There is no precedent in the history of the world in which the security of such a vast territory was secured by gendarmerie. The proposition is absurd and cannot be put into practice. If the Japanese troops were withdrawn, the country would be quickly overrun by bandits and by Chang Hsueh-liang's troops resulting in anarchy and disorder.

(3) As to Section 2, (1) of Part IV of the Report, where it is stated that the sovereignty over Manchuria belongs to China, it has to be noted that at any rate since the year 1916, Manchuria has never been subject to the authority of China, and that in the final analysis, the present difficulty has been caused by the supposition that the sovereignty of China actually extended and extends to that region. It is entirely superfluous to say that the enforcement of this fiction will never ensure the protection of Japan's rights and interests and the maintenance of peace in the Far East. Inasmuch as the Report repudiates the restoration of the old régime as leading merely to a repetition of disorder and friction, so any return to the fiction in question must equally be repudiated. Nor is it possible for Japan to admit any policy which is incompatible with the simple fact of the existence of the State of Manchoukuo and the provisions of the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol.

(4) With regard to the ten principles set out in the Lytton Report and cited in Section I of Part IV of the Report, apart from the observations made above, the Japanese Government deem it sufficient to quote the following passages from their Observations presented to the League in November last:—

"Certain of these principles to which the Japanese Government have no fundamental objection, have already found concrete application in the Protocol signed by Japan and Manchoukuo. But, in any view of the matter, it must evidently be impossible, so long as the anarchical state of things in China persists, to arrive at a satisfactory solution of the questions at issue on the basis of the first nine of these principles, especially Principles 4-9 inclusive. As is sustained in Principle 10, these nine principles cannot be practically applied 'without a strong central government in China'."

(5) In Section 2, (3) of Part IV of the Report, the Assembly contemplates the establishment of a Committee to assist in the negotiations which are to be opened between the two parties in accordance with the method specified in the Report. This, however, is directly contrary to the insistence of Japan not to allow any third party to intervene in the Manchurian problem, and Japan finds it absolutely impossible to accept such a proposal. As, moreover, the Recommendations referred to as (1), (A) and (1), (B) of Section 2, Part IV of the Report, must be dismissed as unpractical, and those made under (2) of the said Section 2 are equally inapplicable in the present state of China, there would seem to be no scope left for the activities of the proposed Committee.

(6) The Report states in effect in Section 3 of Part IV that the maintenance and recognition of the existing régime in Manchuria is no solution and that the Members of the League should, after having adopted the Report, abstain from recognizing the present régime either de jure or de facto. Further it expresses the hope that the States non-Members of the League who are signatories of the Pact of Paris and the Nine Power Treaty will associate themselves with the view set forth in the Report in this regard. The Japanese Government cannot but consider that the Assembly, in proposing in such a manner to influence or to bind, if only morally, both Member and non-Member states in the matter of recognizing or not recognizing another state, is exceeding its powers conferred upon it by Article 15 of the Covenant. In any case, in making a proposition of this nature the League of Nations whose primary duty is the preservation of peace throughout the world could not surely contribute to the maintenance of peace and security not only in Manchoukuo, but also in the Far East. Such an action on the part of the League would prove to be an obstacle to the good understanding and friendly relations between nations upon which peace depends.

PART IV

Conclusion

The Japanese Government are fully convinced that the action of the Japanese army on the night of September 18, 1931, and thereafter has never exceeded the limits appropriate to measures of self-defence, and that Manchoukuo has been founded by the spontaneous will of the people of Manchuria. Accordingly, they consider that neither the action of the Japanese army in Manchuria, nor the conclusion of the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol is in violation of the Covenant of the League of Nations, the Nine Power Treaty, the Pact of Paris, or any other international treaty. The Japanese Government maintain that in view of the quite abnormal condition of China, where no existing authority has ever ruled the entire country, and particularly in view of the unparalleled complexity and peculiarity of the Manchurian problem, and also having regard to the anti-foreign character of the policy of the National Government, it is impossible to think of applying to the present dispute the general formulae applicable to an ordinary international question; and they maintain moreover that neither any procedure which may be adopted for such an exceptional case, nor any solution thereby attained, can ever establish a precedent for ordinary cases of international dispute, Were it possible to apply ordinary formulae, the plans adumbrated by the Assembly would themselves be ruled out of consideration as interferences with what the Assembly regards as Chinese sovereign rights.

Unfortunately, the Assembly, through the refusal of its Members to face facts, and their uncritical acceptance of the Report of the Commission of Enquiry, has only indulged in academic and inadequate principles. The Assembly stands, if it may so be said, for mere formulae; Japan for solid realities. Japan takes her stand on established principles; the Assembly on preconceived hypotheses. It results from the refusal of the Assembly to go beyond the Lytton Report. As pointed out in the preceding part of the present statement, the new State of Manchoukuo has made rapid progress. Peace and order are superseding banditry. Commerce and industry have responded to the improved situation, to the benefit of foreigners and the people of Manchoukuo alike. This is a concrete proof of the truth of the Japanese contention that the recognition and encouragement of the Manchurian State is the only road to a satisfactory solution of the Manchurian question and to the maintenance of a lasting peace in the Orient.

On the other hand, it appears impossible to look for any improvement in the Chinese situation in the near future, and China is likely to remain a chronic anxiety to the rest of the world. Communism has already invaded China, and the alarming extent and success of the invasion is far too seldom realized. A communized China would constitute a problem for Europe and America beside which other questions would pale into insignificance. But a Manchuria free from Chinese connection constitutes a barrier to the communistic danger in the Far East. Its value ought surely to be apparent to every statesman. It is earnestly hoped that the League of Nations will soon be led to change its attitude, to discard reliance on academic and inapplicable doctrine and to respect and recognize the forces that are actually rendering possible the maintenance of peace in the various regions of the world. The Covenant of the League of Nations itself provides in Article 21 for the due recognition of regional under-

standings, and the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol of September 15, 1932, falls incontestably within the category of understandings such as these, as the special interests of Japan in Manchuria have again and again been recognized. At the same time, Japan takes this opportunity of repeating her disclaimer of all desire for territorial gains or commercial advantages.

TRAITÉ DE RÈGLEMENT JUDICIAIRE, D'ARBITRAGE ET DE CONCILIATION ENTRE LE JAPON ET LES PAYS-BAS

Ratifié le 25, Mai

ARTICLE I

Tous les différends de quelque nature qu'ils soient, qui pourraient se produire entre les Hautes Parties Contractantes et qui n'auraient pu être réglés, dans un délai raisonnable, par les procédés diplomatiques ordinaires seront, d'un commun accord entre les Parties ou à la demande de l'une d'elles, soumis à une Commission permanente de Conciliation, constituée et fonctionnant conformément aux dispositions du présent Traité. Les différends qui de l'avis des deux Parties seraient d'ordre juridique, ne seront soumis à la Commission permanent de Conciliation que d'un commun accord entre les Parties.

ARTICLE II

Les différends pour la solution desquels une procédure spéciale est prévue par d'autres conventions en vigueur entre les Hautes Parties Contractantes, seront réglés conformément aux dispositions de ces conventions.

ARTICLE III

Les différends d'ordre juridique, notamment ceux concernant l'interprétation des traités en vigueur entre les Hautes Parties Contractantes, différends qui n'auraient pas été soumis à la Commission permanente de Conciliation ou qui, ayant été soumis à celle-ci, n'auraient pas été réglés dans les trois mois après le dressement de son rapport, seront, à la demande de l'une des Parties adressée à l'autre, soumis d'un commun accord par voie de compromis soit à la Cour permanente de Justice internationale qui statuera dans les conditions et suivant la procédure prévues par son Statut, soit à un Tribunal arbitral qui statuera dans les conditions et suivant la procédure prévues par la Convention de la Haye du 18 octobre 1907 pour le règlement pacifique des conflits internationaux. Le compromis est établi par échange de notes entre les Gouvernements des Hautes Parties contractantes.

A défaut d'accord entre les Parties sur le choix de la juridiction dans un délai de trois mois à compter de la proposition adressée par l'une des Parties á l'autre de soumettre le différend à la Cour permanente de Justice internationale ou à un Tribunal arbitral, le différend sera soumis, selon la procédure prévue à l'alinéa précédent, à ladite Cour, qui statuera dans les conditions et suivant la procédure prévues par son Statut. Il sera également soumis à cette Cour, suivant la même procédure, si, les Hautes Parties Contractantes ayant été d'accord pour soumettre le différend à un Tribunal, arbitral la consitution de celui-ci selon les dispositions de l'article suivant n'a pas eu lieu dans les cinq mois à compter de la demande visée à l'alinéa 2 dudit article.

ARTICLE IV

Si les Hautes Parties Contractantes se sont mises d'accord pour soumettre le différend à un Tribunal arbitral, celui-ci sera, à défaut d'autre entente, composé de cinq membres et constitué de la manière suivante: les Parties nommeront chacune un arbitre qui pourra être choisi parmi leurs nationaux; le président et les deux autres arbitres seront choisis d'un commun accord parmi les ressortissants de tierces Puissances; ces trois arbitres devront être de nationalités différentes.

Si la nomination des membres du Tribunal arbitral n'intervient pas dans un délai de trois mois à compter de la demande adressée par l'une des Parties à l'autre de constituer ensemble un Tribunal arbitral, le soin de procéder aux nominations nécessaires sera confié à une tierce Puissance

choisie d'un commun accord par les Parties.

Si l'accord ne s'établit pas à ce sujet, chaque Partie désignera une Puissance différente et les nominations seront faites de concert par les Puissances ainsi choisies,

ARTICLE V

Il sera pourvu, dans le plus bref délai, aux vacances qui viendraient à se produire dans le Tribunal arbitral par suite de décès, de démission ou de quelque autre empêchement en suivant le mode fixé à l'article 4 pour les nominations.

ARTICLE VI

L'arbitrage visé à l'article 4 sera régi par les dispositions des articles 7, 8 et 9.

ARTICLE VII

Les Hautes Parties contractantes rédigeront un compromis déterminant l'objet du différend et la procédure à suivre.

A défaut d'indications ou de précisions suffisantes dans le compromis, la procédure arbitrale sera réglée par les dispositions de la Convention de La Haye du 18 octobre 1907 pour le règlement pacifique des conflits internationaux.

ARTICLE VIII

A défaut d'autre entente concernant les règles de fond à appliquer par les arbitres, le Tribunal arbitral fonde ses décisions:

1° sur les conventions générales ou spéciales en vigueur entre les deux Parties et règles de droit qui en découlent;

2° sur la coutume internationale considérée comme l'expression d'une pratique générale acceptée comme étant le droit;

3° sur les principes généraux de droit reconnus par les nations civilisées;

4° sur les résultats de la doctrine et de la jurisprudence les plus autorisées, comme moyens auxiliaires de détermination des règles de droit.

ARTICLE IX

Sauf stipulation contraire du compromis d'arbitrage, une demande de revision de la sentence arbitrale sera admise conformément aux dispositions de l'article 83, alinéas 2 et 3 de la Convention de La Haye du 18 octobre 1907 pour le règlement pacifique des conflits internationaux, dans le délai qui sera fixé par le Tribunal.

ARTICLE X

S'il s'agit d'un différend dont l'object, d'après la législation intérieure de l'une des Hautes Parties contractantes, relève de la compétence des tribunaux nationaux de celle-ci, le différend ne pourra être soumis à la procédure prévue par le présent Traité qu'après jugement passé en force de chose jugée et rendu dans des délais raisonnables par l'autorité judiciaire nationale compétente.

ARTICLE XI

La Commission permanente de Conciliation prévue par le présent Traité sera composés de cinq membres, qui seront désignée comme il suit, savoir: Les Hautes Parties contractantes nommoront chacune un commissaire choisi parmi leurs nationaux respectifs et désigneront d'un commun accord les trois autres commissaires parmi les ressortissants de tierces Puissances; ces trois commissaires devront être de nationalités différentes et, parmi eux, les Hautes Parties contractantes désigneront le Président de la Commission.

Les commissaires sont nommés pour cinq ans à compter de la date de l'entrée en vigueur du présent Traité; leur mandat est renouvelable. Ils resteront en fonctions jusqu'à leur remplacement et, dans tous les cas, jusqu'à l'achèvement de leurs travaux en cours au moment de l'expiration de leur mandat.

Il sera pourvu aussi rapidement que possible et dans un délai qui ne devra pas excéder trois mois, aux vacances qui viendraient à se produire par suite de décès, de démission ou de quelque empêchement permanent ou temporaire en suivant le mode fixé pour les nominations. Les personnes ainsi désignées ne seront nommées que pour la période nonécoulée du mandat des commissaires qu'elles remplacent.

ARTICLE XII

La Commission permanente de Conciliation sera constituée aussitôt que possible aprés l'échange des ratifications du présent Traité.

Si la nomination des membres à désigner en commun n'intervenait pas dans les six mois aprés l'échange des ratifications du Traité ou, en cas de remplacement, dans les trois mois à compter de la vacance du siège, le Président de la Cour permanente de Justice internationale serait, à défaut d'autre entente, prié par les deux Hautes

Parties Contractantes Conjointement ou par l'une d'elles, de procéder aux désignations nécessaires. Si le Président est empêché ou s'il est ressortissant de l'une des Parties, le Vice-Président sera prié de procéder à ces désignations. Si celui-ci est empêché ou s'il est ressortissant de l'une des Parties, le premier des autres juges selon l'ordre du tableau de la Cour qui n'est ressortissant d'aucune des Parties, sera prié de procéder à ces désignations.

ARTICLE XIII

La Commission permanente de Conciliation sera saisie par voie de requête adressée au Président.

La requête, aprés avoir exposé sommairement l'objet du différend, contiendra l'invitation à la Commission de procéder à toutes mesures propres à conduire à une conciliation.

Si la requête émané d'une seule des Parties, elle sera notifiée par celle-ci sans délai à la Partie adverse.

ARTICLE XIV

La Commission permanente de Conciliation aura pour tâche d'élucider les questions en litige, de recueillir à cet effet toutes les information utiles par voie d'enquête ou autrement et de s'efforcer de concilir les Parties. Elle pourra, après examen de l'affaire, exposer aux Parties les termes de l'arrangement qui lui paraitrait convenable, et, s'il y a lieu, leur impartir un délai pour se prononcer.

A la fin de ses travaux, la Commission dressera un rapport qui en constatera le résultat et dont un exemplaire sera remis à chacune des Parties. Le rapport ne mentionnera pas si les décisions de la Commission ont été prises à l'unanimité ou à la majorité.

Les Hautes Parties Contractantes ne seront jamais liées par les considérations de fait, de droit ou autres auxquelles la Commission se sera arrêtée.

Les travaux de la Commission devront être ouverts au plus tard dans les deux mois à compter de jour où elle aura été saisie du différend. A moins que les Parties n'en conviennent différemment ou que la Commission ne juge indispensable de prolonger le délai, les travaux doivent être terminés dans un délai de six mois à compter du jour où la Commission en aura déclaré l'ouverture. Si la Commission juge indispensable de continuer ses travaux au delà du délai de six mois, elle communiquera les motifs aux deux Parties.

ARTICLE XV

A moins de stipulations spéciales contraires, la Commission permanente de Conciliation réglera elle-même sa procédure qui, dans tous les, cas, devra être contradictoire. En matière d'enquêtes, la Commission, si elle n'en décide autrement à l'unanimité, se conformera aux dispositions du Titre III (Commission internationale d'enquête) de la Convention de La Haye du 18 octobre 1907 pour le règlement pacifique des conflits internationaux.

ARTICLE XVI

Le Président convoquera la Commission permanente de Conciliation aussitôt que possible après que celle-ci aura été saisie du différend.

La Commission se réunira, sauf accord contraire entre les Parties, au lieu désigné et à la date fixée per son Président.

ARTICLE XVII

Les travaux de la Commission permanente de Conciliation ne sont publics qu'en vertu d'une décision prise par la Commission avec L'assentiment des Parties.

Les Hautes Parties Contractantes s'engagent à ne pas publier le résultat des travaux de la Commission sans s'être préalablement consultées.

ARTICLE XVIII

Les Hautes Parties Contractantes seront représentées auprès de la Commission permanente de Conciliation par des agents ayant mission de servir d'intermédiaires entre elles et la Commission; elles pourront, en outre, se faire assister par des conseils et experts nommés par elles à cet effet et demander l'audition de toutes personnes dont le témoignage leur paraitrait utile.

La Commission rura, de son côté, la faculté de demander des explications orales aux agents, conseils et experts des deux Parties, ainsi qu'à toutes personnes qu'elle jugerait utile de faire comparaître avec l'assentiment de leur Gouvernement.

ARTICLE XIX

Sauf dispositions contaires du présent Traité, les décisions de la Commission permanente de Conciliation seront prises à la majorité des voix.

La Commission ne pourra prendre de décision portant sur le fond du différend

que si tons les membres ont été dument convoqués et si au moins tous les membres élus en commun sont présents.

ARTICLE XX

Les Hautes Parties Contractantes s'engagent à faciliter les travaux de la Commission permanente de Conciliation et, en particulier, à assurer à celle-ci l'assistance de leurs autorités compétentes, à lui fournir dans la plus large mesure possible tous documents et information utiles et à prendre les mesures nécessaires pour permettre à la Commission de procéder sur leur territoire à la citation et à l'audition de témoins ou d'experts et à des transports sur les lieux.

ARTICLE XXI

Pendant la durée des travaux de la Commission permanente de Conciliation, chacun des commissaires recevra une indemnité dont le montant sera arrêtè d'un commun accord entre les Hautes Parties Contractantes qui en supporteront chacune une part égale. Les frais généraux occasionnés par le fonctionnement de la Commission seront répartis par moitié.

ARTICLE XXII

Les décisions du Tribunal arbitral ou de la Cour permanente de Justice internationale devront être exécutées de bonne foi par les Parties.

Les Hautes Parties Contractantes s'engagent à ne prendre pendant la durée de la procédure de la Commission permanente de Conciliation, du Tribunal arbitral ou de la Cour permanente de Justice internationale, aucune mesure qui pourrait avoir une répercussion défavorable sur l'acceptation de la proposition de la Commission permanente de Conciliation ou sur l'exécution de la décision du Tribunal arbitral ou de la Cour permanente de Justice internationale. Le Tribunal arbitral peut, à la remande de l'une des Parties, ordonner des mesures provisoires, pour autant que ces mesures peuvent être prises par les Parties par la voie administrative. La Commission permanente de Conciliation peut également faire des propositions dans le même but. Pour ce qui concerne la Cour permanente de Justice internationale, son Statut est applicable.

ARTICLE XXIII

Si quelque différend venait à surgir entre les Hautes Parties Contractantes relativement à l'interprétation du présent Traité, ce différend serait réglé selon la procédure prévue à l'article 3.

ARTICLE XXIV

Le présent Traité sera ratifié. Les ratifications en seront échangées à La Haye aussitot que faire se pourra.

ARTICLE XXV

Le présent Traité entrera en vigueur dès l'échange des ratifications et aura une durée de cinq ans à compter de son entrée en vigueur. S'il n'est pas dénoncé six mois avant l'expiration de cette période, il sera considéré comme renouvelé tacitement pour une nouvelle période de cinq ans et ainsi de suite.

Si, lors de l'expiration de la durée du présent Traité, une procédure quelconque en vertu de ce Traité se trouvait pendante devant la Commission permanente de Conciliation, devant la Cour permanente de Justice internationale ou devant le Tribunal arbitral, cette procédure serait poursuivie jusqu'à son achèvement.

PROTOCOLE DE SIGNATURE

Au moment de procéder à la signature du Traité de règlement judiciaire, d'arbitrage et de conciliation entre le Japon et les Pays-Bas les Plénipotentiaires soussignés se sont déclarés d'accord sur ce qui suit:

1. Le Traité susmentionné sera applicable à tous les différends qui viendraient à s'élever entre les deux pays et qui ne toucheraient pas directement aux intérêts de tierces Puissances.

2. Au cas où, par suite de la réalisation du retrait du Japon de la Société des Nations, dont préavis a été donné le 27 mars 1933, un changement viendrait à se produire dans la situation juridique du Japon vis-à-vis de la Cour permanente de Justice internationale, les Hautes Parties Contractantes entreront en pourparlers, à la demande du Gouvernement japonais, pour examiner s'il y a lieu de modifier des dispositions dudit Traité qui ont trait à ladite Cour. Pendant ces pourparlers l'application desdites dispositions sera suspendue. Les procédures pendantes devant la Cour au moment où le Gouvernement du Japon aurait fait la demande visée ci-dessus, seraient toutefois poursuivies jusqu'a leur achèvement et les dis-

positions du Traité resteraient applicables aux décisions de la Cour dans ces cas.

La Haye, le dix-neuvième jour du quatrième mois de la huitième année de Showa, correspondant au 19 avril 1933.

Hiroshi Saito
Beelaerts van Blokland.

TREATY OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION BETWEEN JAPAN AND CHINA

Signed at Peking, July 21, 1896

ARTICLE I

There shall be perpetual peace and friendship between His Majesty the Emperor of Japan and His Majesty the Emperor of China, and between their respective subjects who shall enjoy equally in the respective countries of the High Contracting Parties full and entire protection for their persons and property.

ARTICLE II

It is agreed by the High Contracting Parties that His Majesty the Emperor of Japan may, if He see fit, accredit a Diplomatic Agent to the Court of Peking and His Majesty the Emperor of China may, if He see fit, accredit a Diplomatic Agent to the Court of Tokio.

The Diplomatic Agent thus accredited shall respectively enjoy all the prerogatives, privileges and immunities accorded by international law to such Agents and they shall also in all respects be entitled to the treatment extended to similar Agents of the most favoured nation.

Their persons, families, suites, establishments, residences and correspondence shall be held inviolable. They shall be at liberty to select and appoint their own officers, courtiers, interpreters, servants and attendants without any kind of molestation.

ARTICLE III

His Majesty the Emperor of Japan may appoint Consuls-General, Consuls, Vice-Consuls and Consular Agents to reside at such of the ports, cities and towns of China, which are now, or may hereafter be, opened to foreign residence and trade, as the interests of the Empire of Japan may require.

These officers shall be treated with due respect by the Chinese Authorities, and they shall enjoy all the attributes, authority, jurisdiction, privileges and immunities which are, or may hereafter be, extended to similar officers of the nation most favoured in these respects.

His Majesty the Emperor of China may likewise appoint Consuls-General, Consuls, Vice-consuls and Consular Agents to reside at any or all of those places in Japan, where Consular officers of other nations are now, or may hereafter be, admitted, and, saving in the matter of jurisdiction in respect of Chinese subjects and property in Japan, which is reserved to the Japanese Judicial Courts, they shall enjoy the rights and privileges that are usually accorded to such officers.

ARTICLE IV

Japanese subjects may, with their families, employés and servants, frequent, reside and carry on trade, industries and manufactures, or pursue any other lawful avocations in all the ports, cities, and towns of China, which are now, or may hereafter be, opened to foreign residence and trade. They are at liberty to proceed to or from any of the open ports with their merchandise and effects, and within the localities at those places which have already been, or may hereafter be, set apart for the use and occupation of foreigners, they are allowed to rent or purchase houses, rent or lease land, and to build churches, cemeteries and hospitals, enjoying in all respects the same privileges and immunities as are now, or may hereafter be, granted to the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE V

Japanese vessels may touch for the purpose of landing and shipping passengers and merchandise in accordance with the existing Rules and Regulations concerning foreign trade there at all those places in China, which are now ports of call, namely, Nganching, Tatung, Hu-kow, Wusueh, Lu-chi-kow and Woosung and such other places as may hereafter be made

ports of call also. If any vessel should unlawfully enter ports other than open ports and ports of call in China or carry on clandestine trade along the coast or rivers, the vessel with her cargo shall be subject to confiscation by the Chinese Government.

ARTICLE VI

Japanese subjects may travel, for their pleasure or for purposes of trade, to all parts of the interior of China, under passports issued by Japanese Consuls and countersigned by the Local Authorities. These passports, if demanded, must be produced for examination in the localities passed through. If the passports be not irregular, the bearers will be allowed to proceed and no opposition shall be offered to their hiring of persons, animals, carts or vessels for their own conveyance or for the carriage of their personal effects or merchandise. If they be without passports or if they commit any offence against the law, they shall be handed over to the nearest Consul for punishment, but they shall only be subject to necessary restraint and in no case to ill-usage. Such passports shall remain in force for a period of thirteen Chinese months from the date of issue. Any Japanese subject travelling in the interior without a passport shall be liable to a fine not exceeding three hundred Taels. Japanese subjects may, however, without passports go on excursions from any of the ports open to trade, to a distance not exceeding one hundred Chinese li and for a period not exceeding five days. The provisions of this Article do not apply to crews of ships.

ARTICLE VII

Japanese subjects residing in the open ports of China may take into their service Chinese subjects and employ them in any lawful capacity without restraint or hindrance from the Chinese Government or Authorities.

ARTICLE VIII

Japanese subjects may hire whatever boats they please for the conveyance of cargo or passengers and the sum to be paid for such boats shall be settled between the parties themselves, without the interference of the Chinese Government or officers. No limit shall be put upon the number of boats, neither shall a monopoly in respect either of the boats or of the porters or coolies engaged in carrying goods be granted to any parties. If any smuggling takes place in them the offenders will of course be punished according to law.

ARTICLE IX

The Tariffs and Tariff Rules now in force between China and the Western Powers shall be applicable to all articles upon importation into China by Japanese subjects or from Japan, or upon exportation from China by Japanese subjects or to Japan. It is clearly understood that all articles, the importation or exportation of which is not expressly limited or prohibited by the Tariffs and Tariff Rules existing between China and the Western Powers, may be freely imported into and exported from China, subject only to the payment of the stipulated import or export duties. But in no case shall Japanese subjects be called upon to pay in China other or higher imports or exports duties than are, or may be, paid by the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nation; nor shall any article imported into China from Japan or exported from China to Japan be charged upon such importation or exportation other or higher duties than are now, or may hereafter be, imposed in China on the like article when imported from or exported to the nation most favoured in those respects.

ARTICLE X

All articles duly imported into China by Japanese subjects or from Japan shall, while being transported, subject to the existing Regulations, from one open port to another, be wholly exempt from all taxes, imposts, duties, lekin, charges and exactions of every nature and kind whatsoever, irrespective of the nationality of the owner or possessor of the articles, or the nationality of the conveyance or vessel in which the transportation is made.

ARTICLE XI

It shall be at the option of any Japanese subject desiring to convey duly imported articles to an inland market to clear his goods of all transit duties by payment of a commutation transit tax or duty, equal to one-half of the import duty in respect of dutiable articles, and two and half per cent upon the value in respect of duty free articles; and no payment thereof a certificate shall be issued, which shall

exempt the goods from all further inland charges whatsoever. It is understood that this Article does not apply to imported opium.

ARTICLE XII

All Chinese goods and produce purchased by Japanese subjects in China elsewhere than at an open port thereof and intended for export abroad, shall in every part of China be freed from all taxes, imposts, duties, lekin, charges and exactions of every nature and kind whatsoever, saving only export duties when exported, upon the payment of a commutation transit tax or duty calculated at the rate mentioned in the last preceding Article substituting export duty for import duty, provided such goods and produce are actually exported to a foreign country within the period of twelve months from the date of the payment of the transit tax; all Chinese goods and produce purchased by Japanese subjects at the open ports of China and of which export to foreign countries is not prohibited shall be exempt from all internal taxes, imports, duties, lekin, charges and exactions of every nature and kind whatsoever, saving only export duties upon exportation and all articles purchased by Japanese subjects in any part of China, may also, for the purposes of export abroad, be transported from open port to open port, subject to the existing Rules and Regulations.

Merchandise of a bona fide foreign origin, in respect of which full import duty shall have been paid, may at any time within three years from the date of importation be re-exported from China by Japanese subjects to any foreign country, without the payment of any export duty; and the re-exporters shall, in addition, be entitled forthwith to receive from the Chinese Customs drawback certificates for the amount of import duty paid thereon, provided that the merchandise remains intact and unchanged in its original packages. Such drawback certificates shall be immediately redeemable in ready money by the Chinese Customs Authorities at the option of the holders thereof.

ARTICLE XIV

The Chinese Government consents to the establishment of Bonded Warehouses at the several open ports of China. Regulations on the subject shall be made hereafter.

ARTICLE XV

Japanese merchant vessels of more than one hundred and fifty tons burden entering the open ports of China, shall be charged tonnage dues at the rate of four mace per registered ton; if of one hundred and fifty tons and under, they shall be charged at the rate of one mace per registered ton. But any such vessel taking its departure within forty-eight hours after arrival, without breaking bulk, shall be exempt from the payment of tonnage dues.

Japanese vessels having paid the above specified tonnage dues shall thereafter be exempt from all tonnage dues in all the open ports and ports of call of China for the period of four months from the date of clearance from the port where the payment of such tonnage dues is made. Japanese vessels shall not, however, be required to pay tonnage dues for the period during which they are actually undergoing repairs in China.

No tonnage dues shall be payable on small vessels and boats employed by Japanese subjects in the conveyance of passengers, baggage, letters, or duty free articles between any of the open ports of China. All small vessels and cargo boats however, conveying merchandise which is, at the time of such conveyance, subject to duty, shall pay tonnage dues once in four months at the rate of one mace per ton.

No fee or charges other than tonnage dues shall be levied upon Japanese vessels and boats, and it is also understood that such vessels and boats shall not be required to pay other or higher tonnage dues than the vessels and boats of the most faboured nation.

ARTICLE XVI

Any Japanese merchant vessel arriving at an open port of China shall be at liberty to engage the services of a pilot to take her into port. In like manner, after she has discharged all legal dues and duties and is ready to take her departure, she shall be allowed to employ a pilot to take her out of port.

ARTICLE XVII

Japanese merchant vessels compelled on account of injury sustained or any other cause to seek a place of refuge, shall be permitted to enter any nearest port of China, without being subject to the payment of tonnage dues or duties upon goods landed in order that repairs to the vessel

may be effected, provided the goods so landed remain under the supervision of the Customs Authorities. Should any such vessel be stranded or wrecked on the coast of China, the Chinese Authorities shall immediately adopt measures for rescuing the passengers and crew and for securing the vessel and cargo. The persons thus saved shall receive friendly treatment, and, if necessary, shall be furnished with means of conveyance to the nearest Consular station. Should any Chinese merchant vessel be compelled on account of injury sustained or any other cause to seek a place of refuge in the nearest port of Japan, she shall likewise be treated in the same way by the Japanese Authorities.

ARTICLE XVIII

The Chinese Authorities at the several open ports shall adopt such means as they may judge most proper to prevent the revenue suffering from fraud or smuggling.

ARTICLE XIX

If any Japanese vessel be plundered by Chinese robbers or pirates, it shall be the duty of the Chinese Authorities to use every endeavour to capture and punish the said robbers or pirates, and to recover and restore the stolen property.

ARTICLE XX

Jurisdiction over the persons and property of Japanese subjects in China is reserved exclusively to the duly authorized Japanese Authorities, who shall hear and determine all cases brought against Japanese subjects or property by Japanese subjects, or by the subjects or citizens of any other Power, without the intervention of the Chinese Authorities.

ARTICLE XXI

If the Chinese Authorities or a Chinese subject make any charge or complaint of civil nature against Japanese subjects or in respect of Japanese property in China, the case shall be heard and decided by the Japanese Authorities.

In like manner all charge and complaints of a civil nature brought by Japanese Authorities or subjects in China against Chinese subjects or in respect of Chinese property, shall be heard and determined by the Chinese Authorities.

ARTICLE XXII

Japanese subjects charged with the commission of any crimes or offences in China shall be tried, and, if found guilty, punished by the Japanese Authorities according to the laws of Japan.

In like manner Chinese subjects charged with the commission of any crimes or offences against Japanese subjects in China, shall be tried and if found guilty, punished by the Chinese Authorities according to the laws of China.

ARTICLE XXIII

Should any Chinese subjects fail to discharge debts incurred to a Japanese subject, or should he fraudulently abscond, the Chinese Authorities will do their utmost to effect his arrest, and enforce recovery of the debts. The Japanese Authorities will likewise do their utmost to bring to justice any Japanese subject who fraudulently absconds or fails to discharge debts incurred by him to a Chinese subject.

ARTICLE XXIV

If Japanese subjects in China, who have committed offences or have failed to discharge debts and fraudulently abscond, should flee to the interior of China or take refuge in houses occupied by Chinese subjects or on board of Chinese ships, the Chinese Authorities shall at the request of the Japanese Consul, deliver them to the Japanese Authorities.

In like manner if Chinese subjects in China, who have committed offences or have failed to discharge debts and fraudulently abscond, should take refuge in houses occupied by Japanese subjects in China or on board of Japanese ships in Chinese waters, they shall be delivered up, at the request of the Chinese Authorities made to the Japanese Authorities.

ARTICLE XXV

The Japanese Government and its subjects are hereby confirmed in all privileges, immunities and advantages conferred on them by the Treaty stipulations between Japan and China, which are now in force; and it is hereby expressly stipulated that the Japanese Government and its subjects will be allowed free and equal participation in all privileges, immunities and advantages that may have been, or may be hereafter, granted by His Majesty the Emperor of China to the

Government or subjects of any other nation.

ARTICLE XXVI

It is agreed that either of the High Contracting Parties may demand a revision of the tariffs and of the Commercial Articles of this Treaty at the end of ten years from the date of the exchange of the ratifications; but if no such demand be made on either side and no such revision be effected, within six months after the end of the first ten years, then the Treaty and Tariffs, in their present form, shall remain in force for ten years more, reckoned from the end of the preceding ten years, and so it shall be at the end of each successive period of ten years.

ARTICLE XXVII

The High Contracting Parties will agree upon Rules and Regulations necessary to give full effect to this Treaty. Until such Rules and Regulations are brought into actual operation, the Arrangements, Rules and Regulations subsisting between China and the Western Powers, so far as they are applicable and not inconsistent with provisions of this Treaty, shall be binding between the Contracting Parties.

ARTICLE XXVIII

The present Treaty is signed in the Japanese, Chinese and English languages. In order, however, to prevent future discussions, the Plenipotentiaries of the High Contracting Parties have agreed upon that in case of any divergence in the interpretation between the Japanese and Chinese texts of the Treaty, the difference shall be settled by reference to the English text.

SUPPLEMENTARY TREATY OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION

Signed at Shanghai, October 8, 1903

ARTICLE I

Whereas China, with the object of reforming fiscal system, proposes to levy a surtax in excess of the tariff rates on all goods passing through the Custom Houses, whether maritime or inland and frontier, in order to compensate in a measure for the loss incurred by the complete abolition of likin, Japan consents to pay the same surtax as is agreed upon between China and all the Treaty Powers. With regard to the production tax, consumption tax and excise, and the taxes on native opium and salt, leviable by China, Japan also consents to accept the same arrangements as are agreed upon between all the Treaty Powers and China. It is understood however that the commerce, rights and privileges of Japan shall not, on account of the above, be placed at any disadvantage as compared with the commerce, rights and privileges of other Powers.

ARTICLE II

The Chinese Government agree to permit Japanese steamship-owners to erect, at their own expense, appliances for hauling through the rapids of that part of the Yang-tze-kiang between Ichang and Chungking. But as the interests of the Provinces of Szechuen, Hunan and Hupeh are involved, it is therefore necessary that the approval of the Imperial Maritime Customs be obtained before such appliances may be so erected.

These appliances, which shall be at the disposal of all vessels both steamers and junks, shall not obstruct the water-way nor interfere with the free passage of junks or of persons on the banks of the river. Such appliances shall be subject to special regulations to be drawn up by the Imperial Maritime Customs.

ARTICLE III

The Chinese Government agree that any Japanese steamer capable of navigating the inland waterways, upon reporting at the Imperial Maritime Customs, may proceed for the purpose of trade from a treaty port to places inland, so reported, on complying with the Original and Supplementary Regulations for Steam Navigation Inland.

ARTICLE IV

In case Chinese subjects conjointly with Japanese subjects organize a partnership

or company for a legitimate purpose, they shall equitably share the profits and losses with all the members according to the terms of the agreement or memorandum and articles of association and the regulations framed thereunder, and they shall be liable to the fulfilment of the obligations imposed by the said agreement or memorandum and articles of association and the regulations framed thereunder as accepted by Japanese Courts. Should they fail to fulfil the obligations so imposed and legal action be taken against them in consequence, Chinese Courts shall at once enforce fulfilment of such obligations.

It is understood that in case Japanese subjects conjointly with Chinese subjects organize a partnership or company, they shall also equitably share the profits and losses with all the members according to the terms of the agreement or memorandum and articles of association and the regulations framed thereunder. Should such Japanese subjects fail to fulfil any of the obligations imposed by the said agreement or memorandum and articles of association or by the regulations framed thereunder, Japanese Courts shall in like manner at once enforce fulfilment of such obligations by them.

ARTICLE V

The Chinese Government agree to make and faithfully enforce such regulations as are necessary for preventing Chinese subjects from infringing registered trade-marks held by Japanese subjects.

The Chinese Government likewise agree to make such regulations as are necessary for affording protection to registered copyrights held by Japanese subjects in the books, pamphlets, maps and charts written in the Chinese language and specially prepared for the use of Chinese people.

It is further agreed that the Chinese Government shall establish registration offices where foreign trade-marks and copyrights, upon application for the protection of the Chinese Government, shall be registered in accordance with the provisions of the regulations to be hereafter framed by the Chinese Government for the purpose of protecting trade-marks and copy-rights.

It is understood that Chinese trade marks and copy-rights properly registered according to the provisions of the laws and regulations of Japanese will receive similar protection against infringement in Japan.

This Article shall not be held to protect against due process of law any Japanese or Chinese subject who may be the author, proprietor or seller of any publication calculated to injure the well-being of China.

ARTICLE VI

China agrees to establish itself, as soon as possible, a system of uniform national coinage and provide for a uniform national currency which shall be freely used as legal tender in payment of all duties, taxes and other obligations by Japanese subjects as well as by Chinese subjects in the Chinese Empire. It is understood, however, that all Customs duties shall continue to be calculated and paid on the basis of the Haikwan tael.

ARTICLE VII

As the weights and measures used by the mercantile and other classes for general and commercial purposes in the different provinces of China vary and do not accord with the standards fixed by the Imperial Government Boards, thus resulting in detriment to the trade of Chinese and foreigners, the Governor-General and Governors of all the provinces, after careful inquiry into existing conditions, shall consult together and fix upon uniform standards which, after a Memorial to the Throne for sanction, shall be adopted and used in all transactions by officials and people throughout all the Empire. These standards shall be first used in the places opened to foreign trade and gradually extended to inland places. Any differences resulting from divergence between the new weights and measures and those now in vogue shall be equitably settled, whether, by way of increase or decrease according to the amount of such difference.

ARTICLE VIII

The Regulations for Steam Navigation Inland of the fifth moon of the twenty-fourth year of Kuang-shü and the Supplementary Rules of the seventh moon of the same year having been found in some respects inconvenient in working, the Chinese Government hereby agree to amend them and to annex such new Rules to this Treaty.

These Rules shall remain in force until altered by mutual consent.

ARTICLE IX

The provisions of all treaties and engagements now subsisting between Japan and China, in so far as they are not modified or repealed by this Act, are hereby confirmed; and it is hereby expressly stipulated in addition that the Japanese Government, Officers, Subjects, Commerce, Navigation, Shipping, Industries and Property of all kinds shall be allowed free and full participation in all privileges, immunities and advantages which have been or may hereafter be granted by His Majesty the Emperor of China or by the Chinese Government or by the Provincial or Local Administrations of China, to the Government, Officers, Subjects, Commerce, Navigation, Shipping, Industries or Property of any other nation.

The Japanese Government will do its utmost to secure to Chinese Officers and Subjects resident in Japan the most favourable treatment compatible with the laws and regulations of the Empire.

ARTICLE X

The High Contracting Parties hereto agree that, in case of and after the complete withdrawal of the foreign troops stationed in the province of Chihli and of the Legation guards, a place of international residence and trade in Peking will be forthwith opened by China itself. The detailed regulations relating thereto shall be settled in due time after consulation.

The Chinese Government agree to open to foreign trade, within six months from the exchange of the Ratifications of this Treaty, Ch'angshafu in the province of Hunan on the same footing as the ports already opened to foreign trade. Foreigners residing in this open port are to observe the Municipal and Police Regulations on the same footing as Chinese residents, and they are not to be entitled to establish a municipality and Police of their own within the limits of this treaty port, except with the consent of the Chinese authorities.

The Chinese Government agree that, upon the exchange of the Ratifications of this Treaty, Mukden and Tatungkow, both in the province of Shengking, will be opened by China itself as places of international residence and trade. The selection of suitable localities to be set apart for international use and occupation and the regulations for these places set apart for foreign residence and trade shall be agreed upon by the Governments of Japan and China after consultation together.

ARTICLE XI

The Government of China having expressed a strong desire to reform its judicial system and to bring it into accord with that of Japan and Western nations, Japan agrees to give every assistance to such reform, and will also be prepared to relinquish its extraterritorial rights when satisfied that the state of the Chinese laws, the arrangements for their administration and other considerations warrant it in so doing.

ARTICLE XII

The present Treaty is signed in the Japanese, Chinese and English languages. In order, however, to prevent future discussions, the Plenipotentiaries of the High Contracting Parties have agreed that in case of any divergence in the interpretation between the Japanese and Chinese Texts of the Treaty, the difference shall be settled by reference to the English Text.

ANNEX I

INLAND WATERS STEAM NAVIGATION (ADDITIONAL RULES)

Shanghai, October, 1903.

1. Japanese steamship-owners are at liberty to lease warehouses and jetties on the banks of waterway from Chinese subjects for a term not exceeding twenty-five years, with option of renewal on terms to be mutually arranged. In cases where Japanese merchants are unable to secure warehouses and jetties from Chinese subjects on satisfactory terms, the local officials, after consultation with the Governor-General or Minister of Commerce, shall arrange to provide these on renewable lease, as above mentioned, at current equitable rates.

2. Jetties shall only be erected in such positions that they will not obstruct the inland waterway or interfere with navigation, and with the sanction of the nearest Commissioner of Customs; such sanction, however, shall not be arbitrarily withheld.

3. Japanese merchants shall pay taxes and contributions on these warehouses and jetties on the same footing as Chinese proprietors of similar properties in the neighbourhood. Japanese merchants may only employ Chinese

agents and staff to reside in warehouses so leased at places touched at by steamers engaged in inland traffic to carry on their business; but Japanese merchants may visit these places from time to time to look after their affairs. The existing rights of Chinese jurisdiction over Chinese subject shall not by reason of this clause be diminished or interfered with in any way.

4. Steam vessels navigating the inland waterways of China shall be responsible for loss caused to riparian proprietors by damage which they may do to the banks or works on them, and for the loss which may be caused by such damage.

In the event of China desiring to prohibit the use of some particular shallow waterway by launches, because there is reason to fear that the use of it by them would be likely to injure the banks and cause damage to the adjoining country, the Japanese Authorities, when appealed to, shall, if satisfied of the validity of the objection, prohibit the use of that waterway by Japanese launches, provided that Chinese launches are also prohibited from using it.

Both Foreign and Chinese launches are prohibited from crossing dams and weirs at present in existence on inland waterways where they are likely to cause injury to such works, which would be detrimental to the water service of the local people.

5. The main object of the Japanese Government in desiring to see the inland waterways of China opened to steam navigation being to afford facilities for the rapid transport of both foreign and native merchandise, they undertake to offer no impediment to the transfer to a Chinese company and the Chinese flag of any Japanese steamer which may now or hereafter be employed on the inland waters of China, should the owner be willing to make the transfer.

In the event of a Chinese company registered under Chinese law being formed to run steamers on the inland waters of China, the fact of Japanese subjects holding shares in such a company shall not entitle the steamers to fly the Japanese flag.

6. Registered steamers and their tows are forbidden, just as junks have always been forbidden, to carry contraband goods. Infraction of this rule will entail the penalties prescribed in the treaties for such an offence, and cancellation of the Inland Waters Navigation Certificate carried by the vessels, which will be prohibited from thereafter plying on inland water.

7. As it is desirable that the people living inland should be disturbed as little as possible by the advent of steam vessels to which they are not accustomed, inland waters not hitherto frequented by steamers shall be opened as gradually as may be convenient to merchants and only as the owners of steamers may see prospect of remunerative trade.

In cases where it is intended to run steam vessels on waterways on which such vessels have not hitherto run, intimation shall be made to the Commissioner of Customs at the nearest open port, who shall report the matter to the Ministers of Commerce. The latter, in conjunction with the Governor-General or Governor of the province, after careful consideration of al the circumstances of the case, shall at once give their approval.

8. A registered steamer may ply within the waters of a port, or from one open port or ports to another open port or ports, or from one open port or ports to places inland, and thence back to such port or ports. She may, on making due report to the Customs, land or ship passengers or cargo at any recognized places of trade passed in the course of the voyage; but may not ply between inland places exclusively except with the consent of the consent of the Chinese Government.

9. Any cargo and passenger boats may be towed by steamers. The helmsman and crew of any boat towed shall be Chinese. All boats, irrespective of ownership, must be registered before they can proceed inland.

10. The above Rules are supplementary to the Regulations published in the fifth and seventh moons of the twenty-fourth year of Kuang-hsü, which remain in full force and effect in so far as they are not modified by the Rules now agreed upon.

The present Rules and the Regulations of the fifth and seventh moons of the twenty-fourth year of Kuang-hsü may hereafter be modified, as circumstances require, by mutual consent.

ANNEXES II AND III

EXCHANGE OF NOTES BETWEEN THE JAPANESE AND CHINESE COMMISSIONERS FOR TREATY REVISION REGARDING THE INLAND WATERS NAVIGATION OF THE JAPANESE STEAMERS

FROM JAPANESE COMMISSIONERS TO CHINESE COMMISSIONERS

October 8, 1903

Gentlemen,

According to Article III of the Present Treaty the Chinese Government agree that any Japanese steamer capable of navigation Inland Waterways, upon reporting at the Imperial Maritime Customs, may proceed for the purpose of trade from a treaty port to places inland, so reported, on complying with the Original and Supplementary Regulations for Steam Navigation Inland.

It is understood that all classes of Japanese steamers, whatever their size, provided they are capable of navigating the Inland Waterways, may on complying with the Regulations receive an Inland Waters Certificate and carry on trade with inland places, and the Chinese Government will in no case raise difficulties and stop such steamers from plying to and from inland places.

We have the honour, in order to prevent future misunderstandings, to address this despatch to Your Excellencies and to request that instructions be sent to the Inspector General of Maritime Customs to act in accordance with this understanding. We have further the honour to request a reply from Your Excellencies.

We have the honour to be, etc.

FROM CHINESE COMMISSIONERS TO JAPANESE COMMISSIONERS

Shanghai, August 19, 1903

(Chinese Calendar)

Gentlmen,

We have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellencies' despatch of this date, written with a view to preventing future misunderstandings, to the effect that, in accordance with the provisions of Article III of the present Treaty, all classes of Japanese steamers, whatever their size, provided they are capable of navigating the Inland Waterways, may on complying with the Regulations receive an Inland Waters Certificate and ply to and from inland places, and that the Chinese Government will in no case raise difficulties and stop them.

During the negotiations of this Article, we received a list from Your Excellencies of the Japanese steamers viz., Sanyo Maru, Setagawa Maru, Hiuga Maru, Urato Maru, Neisei Maru, Heian Maru, Taiko Maru, Yoshino Maru, Meiko Maru, Fukuju Maru, Hijikawa Maru, Nagata Maru, Kyodo Maru, Horai Maru, Kwanko Maru, Keiko Maru, Kinriu Maru, Zensho Maru and Kohei Maru, ranging from one hundred and twenty-one tons to four hundred and ten tons register—plying from Chefoo to inland places in Manchuria, under Inland Waters Certificate and in accordance with the Regulations for Steam Navigation Inland, which vessels have not been prevented from doing so on account of their class.

At that time we instructed the Deputy Inspector General of Customs to make inquiries into the records of the Custom Houses, and he reported that the circumstances were in accordance with Your Excellencies' statement.

In consequence of the receipt of Your Excellencies' despatch we shall communicate with the Wai-wu Pu and request that instructions be sent to the Inspector General of Customs to take these circumstance into consideration and to act accordingly, and we have the honour to write this despatch for purposes of record.

We have the honour to be, etc.

ANNEXES IV AND V

EXCHANGE OF NOTES BETWEEN THE JAPANESE AND CHINESE COMMISSIONERS FOR TREATY REVISION REGARDING THE APPOINTMENT OF AN OFFICER FOR COLLECTING DUES AND DUTIES PROVIDED IN NO. 9 OF THE SUPPLEMENTARY RULES FOR STEAM NAVIGATION INLAND

FROM JAPANESE COMMISSIONERS TO CHINESE COMMISSIONERS

October 8, 1903

Gentlemen,

The provision contained in No. 9 of the

Supplementary Rules governing steam navigation on Inland Waters published in the seventh moon of the twenty-forth year of Kuang-hsü, regarding the appointment of an officer to collect dues and duties, not having in all cases been given effect to, we have the honour to request that Your Excellencies' Government will again issue instructions to all provinces to give strict effect to this provision, as it is a matter of importance.

We trust that Your Excellencies will comply with the request contained in this despatch and that you will favour us with a reply.

We have the honour to be, etc.

FROM CHINESE COMMISSIONERS TO JAPANESE COMMISSIONERS

Shanghai, August 18, 1903
(Chinese Calendar)

Gentlemen,

We have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellencies' despatch of this date to the effect that, the provision contained in No. 9 of the Supplementary Rules governing steam navigation on Inland Waters published in the seventh moon of the twenty-forth year of Kuang-hsü, regarding the appointment of an officer to collect dues and duties, not having in all cases been given effect to, you request that instructions be again issued to all provinces to give strict effect to this provision, as it is a matter of importance.

We have noted the above and have communicated with proper authorities in order that action may be taken, and have now the honour to write this reply for Your Excellencies' information.

We have the honour to be, etc.

ANNEXES 6 AND 7

EXCHANGE OF NOTES BETWEEN THE JAPANESE AND CHINESE COMMISSIONERS FOR TREATY REVISION REGARDING THE OPENING OF THE CITY OF PEKING

FROM CHINESE COMMISSIONERS TO JAPANESE COMMISSIONERS

Shanghai, August 10, 1903
(Chinese Calendar)

Gentlemen,

According to the provision of Article X of this Treaty, regarding the establishment in Peking of a place of international residence and trade, it is agreed that in case of and after the complete withdrawal of the foreign troops, now guarding the Legations and Communications, a place in Peking outside the Inner City, convenient to both parties and free from objections, shall be selected and set apart as a place where merchants of all nationalities may reside and carry on trade. Within the limits of this place merchants of all nationalities shall be at liberty to lease land, build houses and warehouses, and establish places of business; but as to the leasing of houses and land belonging to Chinese private individuals, there must be willingness on the part of the owners and the term thereof must be equitably arranged without any force or compulsion. All road and bridges in this place will be under the jurisdiction and control of China. Foreingers residing in this place are to observe the Municipal and Police Regulations on the same footing as Chinese residents, and they are not to be entitled to establish a Municipality and Police of their own within its limits except with the consent of the Chinese authorities. When such place of international residence and trade shall have been opend and its limits properly defined, the foreigners who have been residing scattered both within and without the city walls, shall all be required to remove their residence thereto and they shall not be allowed to remain in separate places and thereby cause inconvenience in the necessary supervision by the Chinese authorities. The value of the land and buildings held by such foreigners shall be agreed upon equitably and due compensation therefore shall be paid. The period for such removal shall be determined in due time, and those who do not remove before the expiry of this period shall not be entitled to compensation.

We have considered it to be our mutual advantage to come to the present basis of understanding in order to avoid future unnecessary negotiations, and we beg that Your Excellencies will consider and agree to it and will favour us with a reply.

We have the honour to be, etc.

FROM JAPANESE COMMISSIONERS TO CHINESE COMMISSIONERS

Shanghai, October 8, 1903

Gentlemen,

We have the honour to acknowledge the

receipt of Your Excellencies' despatch of this date in which you state that—

"According to the provision of Article X of this Treaty, regarding the establishment in Peking of a place of international residence and trade, it is agreed that in case of and after the complete withdrawal of the foreign troops, now guarding the Legations and Communications, a place in Peking outside the Inner City, convenient to both parties and free from objections, shall be selected and set apart as a place where merchants of all nationalities may reside and carry on trade. Within the limits of this place merchants of all nationalities shall be at liberty to lease land, build houses and warehouses, and establish places of business; but as to the leasing of houses and land belonging to Chinese private individuals, there must be willingness on the part of the owners and the terms thereof must be equitably arranged without any force or compulsion. All roads and bridges in this place will be under the jurisdiction and control of China. Foreigners residing in this place are to observe the Municipal and Police Regulations on the same footing as Chinese residents, and they are not to be entitled to establish a Municipality and Police of their own within its limits except with the consent of the Chinese authorities. When such place of international residence and trade shall have been opened and its limits properly defined, the foreigners who have been residing scattered both within and without the city walls, shall all be required to remove their residence thereto and they shall not be allowed to remain in separate places and thereby cause inconvenience in the necessary supervision by the Chinese authorities. The value of the land and buildings held by such foreigners shall be agreed upon equitably and due compensation thereof shall be paid. The period for such removal shall be determined in due time, and those who do not remove before the expiry of this period shall not be entitled to compensation.

"We have considered it to be to our mutual advantage to come to the present basis of understanding in order to avoid future unnecessary negotiations, and we beg that Your Excellencies will consider and agree to it and will favour us with a reply."

In reply we beg to inform you that we agree generally to all the terms contained in the despatch under acknowledgement. As to the detailed regulations, these shall in due time be considered and satisfactorily settled in accordance with Article X of this Treaty; but it is understood that such regulations shall not differ in any respect to our prejudice from those which may be agreed upon between China and other Powers. We have the honour to send Your Excellencies this communication in reply and for your information.

We have the honour to be, etc.

AGREEMENT CONCLUDED BETWEEN THE EMPIRE OF JAPAN AND THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA

Signed at Nanking, May 6, 1930

The Government of Japan and the National Government of the Republic of China have, through their respective representatives, agreed upon and concluded the following Articles:—

ARTICLE I

The Japanese and the Chinese Governments agree that all matters relating to rates of duty on the import and export of articles, drawbacks, transit dues and tonnage dues in the territories of Japan and the territories of China shall be regulated exclusively by the laws of Japan and of China respectively.

ARTICLE II

The Governments of Japan and of China shall reciprocally grant to each other and to the nationals of the other country, in customs duties, drawbacks and transit dues and all other similar internal charges, applied to the import and export of articles, and in tonnage dues, as well as in all matters connected therewith, treatment not less favourable than that accorded or to be accorded to its own nationals or to the Government and nationals of any other foreign country.

Articles produced or manufactured in the territories of Japan or of China and imported into the territories of the other

from whatever place arriving, shall receive, in import duties, drawbacks and transit dues and all other similar internal charges, and in all matters connected therewith, treatment not to be accorded to the like articles produced or manufactured in any other foreign country.

Articles produced or manufactured in the territories of Japan or of China and exported to the territories of the other shall receive, in export duties, drawbacks and transit dues and all other similar internal charges, and in all matters connected therewith, treatment not less favourable than that accorded to the like articles produced or manufactured in the same territories and exported to any other foreign country.

In regard to tonnage dues and all matters connected therewith vessels of Japan and of China shall each receive in the territories of the other treatment not less favourable than that accorded or to be accorded to the vessels of any other foreign country.

ARTICLE III

The stipulations contained in the foregoing Articles as well as in the exchanged Notes annexed to the present Agreement shall be incorporated in, and form part of, a Treaty of Commerce and Navigation to be negotiated and concluded as soon as possible between the Empire of Japan and the Republic of China.

ARTICLE IV

The Japanese, Chinese and English texts of this Agreement have been carefully compared and verified; but in the event of there being any difference of meaning between them, the sense as expressed in the English text shall be held to prevail.

ARTICLE V

The present Agreement shall enter into force on the tenth day following the date of the signature thereof.

ANNEX I

Nanking, May 6th, 5 Showa (1930)

Monsieur le Ministre,

With reference to the Agreement which we signed to-day I have the honour to state that it is the understanding of the Japanese Government:

1. That, beginning from the date of the coming into force of the above-mentioned Agreement, the Chinese Government will maintain: for a period of three years the rates of duty leviable under Items 1, 2 and 3 in Part I of the Schedule attached hereto, and will also maintain for a period of one year the rates of duty leviable under Item 4 in Part I of the said Schedule, as the maximum rates of Import Duty leviable during the respective periods on articles falling within such Items produced or manufactured in the territories of Japan and imported into the territories of China, subject, however, to the reservation made in the said Schedule by the Chinese Government concerning the increase of rates; and

2. That the Japanese Government will maintain for a period of three years from the date of the coming into force of the above-mentioned Agreement, the rates of duty leviable under the three Items in Part II of the Schedule attached hereto, as the maximum rates of Import Duty leviable during the said period on articles falling within such items produced or manufactured in the territories of China and imported into the territories of Japan.

I shall be much obliged if Your Excellency will be good enough to confirm the foregoing understanding.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurances of my highest consideration.

(Signed) M. Shigemitsu,

His Excellency

Dr. Chengting T. Wang

SCHEDULE

Part I

No. of Item	Description of articles	Nos. in Chinese Customs Import Tariff of 1929
1	Cotton goods	1 to 10, 12 to 14, 22 to 24, 26 to 32, 37, 38, 40, 43, 46, 47, **51**, 53, 58, 59
2	Fishery and sea products	196 to 199, 202, **205**, 206, 213, 216, **217**, **218**, 231
3	Wheat flour	**280**
4	Miscellaneous goods	**302**, 567, 568, 603 to 605 (a), 612, **647** **652**, (b), 666 (b), 677 (c), **685**, 706, **709** (f), **709** (g), 710, 715

The numbers which appear in Part I of this Schedule indicate the same articles as are mentioned under the corresponding numbers in the Chinese Customs Import Tariff of 1929, with the exception of the following numbers which cover only such articles as are enumerated thereunder:

652 (b) Rubber shoes and boots, as also footgear made wholly or partly of rubber.

666 (b) Clocks and movements assembled as a unit, value not over Hk. Tls. 40 per doz.

677 (c) Hats and caps, of felt made with other materials than beaver or hair, value not over Hk. Tls. 15 per doz.

706 Thermostatic containers and parts thereof, value not over Hk. Tls. 15 per doz.

709 (f) Electrical machinery and parts thereof.

710 Toys and games.

715 Vehicles: velocipedes (e. g., bicycles, etc.), not otherwise enumerated, value not over Hk. Tls. 40 per piece.

The rates of duty on articles mentioned in Part I of this Schedule shall remain the same as those stated under the corresponding numbers in the aforesaid Tariff, it being understood that, as regards the rates of duty on articles covered by the numbers not underlined, the Chinese Government reserves the right to increase the rates specified above by not more than two and a half per cent. ad valorem. In the case of specific rates of duty, the increase above provided for will be based either uniformly upon the original duty paying value by which the rates in the aforesaid Tariff were determined or uniformly upon the duty paying value which was adopted by the Tariff Valuation Commission in 1928.

The Chinese Government reserves the right to levy an excise on imported Cotton Yarn (No. 51) in addition to the Customs Import Duty.

Part II

No. of Item	Description of articles	Nos. in existing Japanese Import Tariff
1	Grass cloth	299. 5, (over 48 centimetres in width excepted) C-1, a-1 to a-4, C-2, a-1 to a-4
2	Silk piece goods	303. 3, A, a, b.
3	Embroidered tissues	308 (Hand-work only)

Unless otherwise specified, the numbers which appear in Part II of this Schedule indicate the same articles as are mentioned under the corresponding numbers in the Japanese Import Tariff at present in force.

The rates of duty on articles mentioned in Item 1 in Part II of this Schedule shall remain the same as those stated under the corresponding numbers in the Japanese Import Tariff at present in force, and the rates of duty on articles mentioned in Items 2 and 3 in Part II of this Schedule shall be thirty per cent less than those now levied under the Law relating to Import Duties on Luxuries and Similar Articles.

Nanking, May 6th, 19th Year R. C. (1930).

Monsieur le Chargé d'Affaires.

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your Note of to-day's date which reads as follows:

"With reference to the Agreement which we signed to-day I have the honour to state that it is the understanding of the Japanese Government:

1. That, beginning from the date of the coming into force of the above-mentioned Agreement, the Chinese Government will maintain for a period of three years the rates of duty leviable under Items 1, 2 and 3 in Part I of the Schedule attached hereto, and will also maintain for a period of one year the rates of duty leviable under Item 4 in Part I of the said Schedule, as the maximum rates of Import Duty leviable during the respective periods on articles falling within such Items produced or manufactured in the territories of Japan and imported into the territories of China, subject, however, to the reservation made in the said Schedule by the Chinese Government concerning the increase of rates; and

2. That the Japanese Government will maintain for a period of three years from

the date of the coming into force of the above-mentioned Agreement the rates of duty leviable under the three Items in Part II of the Schedule attached hereto, as the maximum rates of Import Duty leviable during the said period on articles falling within such Items produced or manufactured in the territories of China and imported into the territories of Japan.

"I shall be much obliged if Your Excellency will be good enough to confirm the foregoing understanding."

I have the honour to confirm, on behalf of the National Government of the Republic of China, that the foregoing understanding is correct.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to you, Monsieur le Chargé d'Affaires, the assurance of my high consideration.

(Signed) Chengting T. Wang.

Mr. M. Shigemitsu, etc.

SCHEDULE

Part I

No. of Item	Description of articles	Nos. in Chinese Customs Import Tariff of 1929
1	Cotton goods	1 to 10, 12 to 14, 22 to 24, 26 to 32, 37, 38, 40, 43, 46, 47, **51**, 53, 58, 59
2	Fishery and sea products	196 to 199, 202, **205**, 206, **213**, 216 **217**, **218**, 231
3	Wheat flour	280
4	Miscellaneous goods	**302**, 567, 568, 603 to 605 (a), **612**, **647**, **652**, (b), 666 (b), 677 (c), 685, 706, **709** (f), **709** (g), 710, 715

The numbers which appear in Part I of this Schedule indicate the same articles as are mentioned under the corresponding numbers in the Chinese Customs Import Tariff of 1929, with the exception of the following numbers which cover only such articles as are enumerated thereunder:

652 (b) Rubber shoes and boots, as also footgear made wholly or partly of rubber.

666 (b) Clocks and movements assembled as a unit, value not over Hk. Tls. 40 per doz.

677 (c) Hats and caps, of felt made with materials other than beaver of hair, value not over Hk. Tls. 15 per doz.

706 Thermostatic containers and parts thereof, value not over Hk. Tls. 15 per poz.

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715 Vehicles: velocipedes (e. g., bicycles etc.), not otherwise enumerated, value not over Hk. Tls. 40 per piece.

The rates of duty on articles mentioned in Part I of this Schedule shall remain the same as those stated under the corresponding numbers in the aforesaid Tariff, it being understood that, as regards the rates of duty on articles covered by the numbers not under-lined, the Chinese Government reserves the right to increase the rates specified above by not more than two and a half per cent ad valorem. In the case of specific rates of duty, the increase above provided for will be based either uniformly upon the original duty paying value by which the rates in the aforesaid Tariff were determined or uniformly upon the duty paying value which was adopted by the Tariff Valuation Commission in 1928.

The Chinese Government reserves the right to levy an excise on imported Cotton Yarn (No. 51) in addition to the Customs Import Duty.

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3	Embroidered tissues	308 (Hand-work only)

Unless otherwise specified, the numbers which appear in Part II of this Schedule indicate same articles as are mentioned under the corresponding numbers in the Japanese Import Tariff at present in force.

The rates of duty on articles mentioned in Item 1 in Part II of this Schedule shall remain the same as those stated under the corresponding numbers in the Japanese Import Tariff at present in force, and the rates of duty on articles mentioned in Items 2 and 3 in Part II of this Schedule shall be thirty per cent less than those now levied under the Law relating to Import Duties on Luxuries and Similar Articles.

ANNEX II

Nanking, May 6th, 19th Year R. C (1930)

Monsieur le Chargé d'Affaires,

With reference to the Agreement signed this day between China and Japan, I have the honour to request that you will be good enough to confirm, on behalf of the Japanese Government, my understanding that on the expiration of four months after the coming into force of the said Agreement, the reduced rates of the Chinese Customs Tariff heretofore leviable on articles imported or exported across the land frontiers between China and Japan will be abolished and the Customs Tariff without reduction will apply to such articles.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to you, Monsieur le Chargé d'Affaires, the assurance of my high consideration.

(Signed) Chengting T. Wang.

Mr. M. Shigemitsu, etc.

Nanking, May 6th, 5 Showa (1930)

Monsieur le Ministre,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's Note of to-day's date which reads as follows :—

"With reference to the Agreement signed this day between China and Japan, I have the honour to request that you will be good enough to confirm, on behalf of the Japanese Government, my understanding that on the expiration of four months after the coming into force of the said Agreement, the reduced rates of the Chinese Customs Tariff heretofore leviable on articles imported or exported across the land frontiers between China and Japan will be abolished and the Customs Tariff without reduction will apply to such articles."

I have the honour to confirm, on behalf of the Japanese Government, that the above understanding is correct.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurances of my highest consideration.

(Signed) M. Shigemitsu.

His Excellency

Dr. Chengting T. Wang, etc.

ANNEX III

Nanking, May 6th, 5 Showa (1930).

Monsieur le Ministre,

I have the honour to remind Your Excellency that in the course of our negotiations regarding the Customs Tariff question, it was stated that the Chinese Government entertained the intention of abolishing as soon as possible all such taxes and charges detrimental to the promotion of trade in China as likin, native customs duties, coast-trade duty and transit dues and other like charges.

I shall be much obliged if Your Excellency will be good enough to inform me as to what measures have been or will be adopted by the Chinese Government with a view to carrying into effect the aforesaid intention of the Chinese Government.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurances of my highest consideration.

(Signed) M. Shigemitsu.

His Excellency

Dr. Chengting T. Wang, etc.

Nanking, May 6th, 19th Year R. C. (1930)

Monsieur le Chargé d'Affaires,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your Note of to-day's date which reads as follows :—

"I have the honour to remind Your Excellency that in the course of our negotiations regarding the Customs Tariff question, it was stated that the Chinese Government entertained the intention of abolishing as soon as possible all such taxes and charges detrimental to the promotion of trade in China as likin, native customs duties, coast-trade duty and transit dues and other like charges.

"I shall be much obliged if Your Excellency will be good enough to inform

me as to what measures have been or will be adopted by the Chinese Government with a view to carrying into effect the aforesaid intention of the Chinese Government."

I have the pleasure to inform you that the Chinese Government is endeavouring to abolish as soon and as far as possible all such duties and charges as are mentioned in your Note under acknowledgement.

The Chinese Government has already issued a Mandate ordering the abolition of likin as from the 10th of October, 1930, and instructed the Minister of Finance to take all necessary measures for carrying this order into effect.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to you, Monsieur le Chargé d'Affaires, the assurance of my high consideration.

(Signed) Chengting T. Wang.

Mr. M. Shigemitsu, etc.

ANNEX IV

Nanking, May 6th, 5 Showa (1930).

Monsieur le Ministre,

I have the honour to state that in view of the large number and amount of the unsecured and inadequately secured obligations of China due to Japanese creditors, a speedy consolidation thereof is considered highly desirable. It is suggested by my Government that for that purpose a conference of the representatives of creditors should be called by the Chinese Government at the earliest possible date.

I shall be much obliged if Your Excellency will be good enough to inform me as to what measures have been or will be adopted by the Chinese Government for effectuating consolidation.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurances of my highest consideration.

(Signed) M. Shigemitsu.

His Excellency
Dr. Chengting T. Wang, etc.

Nanking, May 6th, 19th Year R. C. (1930).

Monsieur le Chargé d'Affaires,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your Note of to-day's date which reads as follows:—

"I have the honour to state that in view of the large number and amount of the unsecured and inadequately secured obligations of China due to Japanese creditors, a speedy consolidation thereof is considered highly desirable, It is suggested by my Government that for that purpose a conference of the representatives of creditors should be called by the Chinese Government at the earliest possible date.

"I shall be much obliged if Your Excellency will be good enough to inform me as to what measures have been or will be adopted by the Chinese Government for effectuating the aforesaid consolidation."

I have the pleasure to inform you that the Chinese Government has already commenced to set aside annually the sum of $5,000,000 from the Customs revenues for the purpose of consolidating the domestic and foreign obligations of China and that it intends to call a conference of the representatives of creditors on or before October 1st of this year at which an adequate plan for consolidation will be presented and discussed with a view to devising means (including an increase of the sum above mentioned) for effectuating the consolidation in question.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to you, Monsieur le Chargé d'Affaires, the assurance of my high consideration.

(Signed) Chengting T. Wang.

Mr. M. Shigemitsu, etc.

TREATY OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION BETWEEN JAPAN AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Signed at Washington, February 1911

ARTICLE I The subjects or citizens of each of the High Contracting Parties shall have liberty to enter, travel and reside in the territories of the other to carry on trade, wholesale and retail, to own or lease and occupy houses, manufactories, warehouses and shops, to employ agents of their choice, to lease land for residential and commercial purposes, and generally to do anything incident to or necessary for trade upon the same terms as native subjects or citizens, submitting themselves to

the laws and regulations there established.

They shall not be compelled, under any pretext whatever, to pay any charges or taxes other or higher than those that are or may be paid by native subjects or citizens.

The subjects or citizens of each of the High Contracting Parties shall receive, in the territories of the other, the most constant protection and security for their persons and property, and shall enjoy in this respect the same rights and privileges as are or may be granted to native subjects or citizens, on their submitting themselves to the conditions imposed upon the native subjects or citizens.

They shall, however, be exempt in the territories of the other from compulsory military service either on land or sea, in the regular forces, or in the national guard, or in the militia; from all contributions imposed in lieu of personal service, and from all forced loans or military exactions or contributions.

ARTICLE II The dwellings, warehouses, manufactories and shops of the subject or citizens of each of the High Contracting Parties in the territories of the other, and all premises appertaining thereto used for purposes of residence or commerce, shall be respected. It shall not be allowable to proceed to make a domiciliary visit to, or a search of, any such buildings and premises, or to examine or inspect books, papers or accounts, except under the conditions and with the forms prescribed by the laws, ordinances and regulations for nationals.

ARTICLE III Each of the High Contracting Parties may appoint Consuls-General, Consuls, Vice-Consuls, Deputy Consuls and Consular Agents in all ports, cities and places of the other, except in those where it may not be convenient to recognize such officers. This exception, however, shall not be made in regard to one of the Contracting Parties without being made likewise in regard to all other Powers.

Such Consuls General, Consuls, Vice Consuls, Deputy Consuls and Consular Agents having received exequaturs or other sufficient authorizations from the Government of the country to which they are appointed, shall, on condition of reciprocity, have the right to exercise the functions and to enjoy the exemptions and immunities which are or may hereafter be granted to the consular officers of the same rank of the most favoured nation. The Government issuing exequaturs or other authorizations may in its discretion cancel the same on communicating the reasons for which it thought proper to do so.

ARTICLE IV There shall be between the territories of the two High Contracting Parties reciprocal freedom of commerce and navigation. The subjects or citizens of each of the Contracting Parties, equally with the subjects or citizens of the most favored nation, shall have liberty freely to come with their ships and cargoes to all places, ports and rivers in the territories of the other which are or may be opened to foreign commerce, subject always to the laws of the country to which they thus come.

ARTICLE V The import duties on articles, the produce or manufacture of the territories of one of the High Contracting Parties, upon importation into the territories of the other, shall henceforth be regulated either by special arrangements between the two countries or by the internal legislation of each.

Neither Contracting Party shall impose any other or higher duties or charges on the exportation of any article to the territories of the other than are or may be payable on the exportation of the like article to any other foreign country.

Nor shall any prohibition be imposed by either country on the importation or exportation of any articles from or to the territories of the other which shall not equally extend to the like article imported from or exported or any other country. The last provision is not, however, applicable to prohibitions or restrictions maintained or imposed as sanitary measures or for purposes of protecting animals and useful plants.

ARTICLE VI The subjects or citizens of each of the High Contracting Parties shall enjoy in the territories of the other exemption from all transit duties and a perfect equality of treatment with native subjects or citizens in all that relates to warehousing, bounties, facilities and drawbacks.

ARTICLE VII Limited-liability and other companies and associations, commercial, industrial, and financial, already or hereafter to be organized in accordance with the laws of either High Contracting Party and domiciled in the territories of such Party, are authorized, in the territories of the other, to exercise their rights and appear in the courts either as plaintiffs or defendants, subject to the laws of such other Party.

The foregoing stipulation has no bearing upon the question whether a company or association organized in one of the two countries will or will not be permitted to transact its business or industry in the

other, this permission remaining always subject to the laws and regulation enacted or established in the respective countries or in any part thereof.

ARTICLE VIII All articles which are or may be legally imported into the ports of either High Contracting Party from foreign countries in national vessels may likewise be imported into those in vessels of the other Contracting Party, without being liable to any other or higher duties or charges of whatever denomination than if such articles were imported in national vessels. Such reciprocal equality of treatment shall take effect without distinction, whether such articles come directly from the place of origin or from any other foreign place.

In the same manner, there shall be perfect equality of treatment in regard to exportation, so that the same export duties shall be paid, and the same bounties and drawbacks allowed, in the territories of each of the Contracting Parties on the exportation of any article which is or may be legally exported therefrom, whether such exportation shall take place in Japanese vessels or in vessels of the United States, and whatever may be the place of destination, whether a port of the other Party or of any third Power.

ARTICLE IX In all that the stationing, loading and unloading of vessels in the ports of the territories of the High Contracting Parties, no privileges shall be granted by either Party to national vessels which are not equally, in like cases, granted to the vessels of the other country; the intention of the Contracting Parties being that in these respects the respective vessels shall be treated on the footing of perfect equality.

ARTICLE X Merchant vessels navigating under the flag of Japan or that of the United States and carrying the papers required by their national laws to prove their nationality shall in the United States and in Japan be deemed to be vessels of Japan or of the United States, respectively.

ARTICLE XI No duties of tonnage, harbour, pilotage, lighthouse, quarantine, or other similar or corresponding duties of whatever denomination, levied in the name or for the profit of Government, public functionaries, private individuals, corporations or establishments of any kind shall be imposed in the ports of the territories of either country upon the vessls of the other which shall not equally, under the same conditions, be imposed on national vessels in general, or on vessels of the most favoured nation. Such equality of treatment shall apply reciprocally to the respective vessels from whatever place they may arrive and whatever may be their place of destination.

ARTICLE XII Vessels charged with performance of regular scheduled postal service of one of the High Contracting Parties, whether belonging to the State or subsidized by it for the purpose, shall enjoy, in the ports of the territories of the other, the same facilities, privileges and immunities as are granted to like vessels of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE XIII The coasting trade of the High Contracting Parties is excepted from the provisions of the present Treaty and shall be regulated according to the laws of Japan and the United States, respectively. It is however, understood that the subjects or citizens of either Contracting Party shall enjoy in this respect most-favoured-nation treatment in the territories of the other.

A vessel of one of the Contracting Parties, laden in a foreign country with cargo destined for two or more ports of entry in the territories of the other, may discharge a portion of her cargo at one of the said ports, and, continuing her voyage to the other port or ports of destination, there discharge the remainder of her cargo, subject always to the laws, tariffs and customs regulations of the country of destination; and, in like manner and under the same reservation, the vessels of one of the Contracting Parties shall be permitted to load at several ports of the other for the same outward voyages.

ARTICLE XIV Except as otherwise expressly provided in this Treaty, the High Contracting Parties agree that, in all that concerns commerce and navigation, any privilege, favour or immunity which either Contracting Party has actually granted, or may hereafter grant, to the subjects or citizens of any other States shall be extended to the subjects or citizens of the other Contracting Party gratuitously, if the concession in favour of that other State shall have been gratuitous, and on the same or equivalent conditions, if the concession shall have been conditional.

ARTICLE XV The subjects or citizens of each of the High Contracting Parties shall enjoy in the territories of the other the same protection as native subjects or citizens in regard to patents, trade-marks and designs, upon fulfillment of the formalities prescribed by law.

ARTICLE XVI The present Treaty shall, from the date on which it enters into operation, supersede the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation dated the 22nd day

of November, 1894; and from the same date the last-named Treaty shall cease to be binding.

ARTICLE XVII The present Treaty shall enter into operation on the 17th of July, 1911, and shall remain in force twelve years or until the expiration of six months from the date on which either of the Contracting Parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate the Treaty.

In case neither of the Contracting Parties shall have given notice to the other six months before the expiration of the said period of twelve years of its intention to terminate the Treaty, it shall continue operative until the expiration of six months from the date on which either Party shall have given such notice,

TREATY OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION BETWEEN JAPAN AND GREAT BRITAIN

Signed at London, April 3, 1911

ARTICLE I The Subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties shal have full liberty to enter, travel, and reside in the territories of the other, and, conforming themselves to the laws of the country—

1. Shall, in all that relates to travel and residence, be placed in all respects on the same footing as native subjects.

2. They shall have the right, equally with native subjects, to carry on their commerce and manufacture, and to trade in all kinds of merchandise of lawful commerce, either in person or by agents, singly or in partnerships with foreign or native subjects.

3. They shall in all that relates to the pursuit of their industries, callings, professions, and educational studies be placed in all respects on the same footing as the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nation.

4. They shall be permitted to own or hire and occupy houses, manufactories, warehouses, shops, and premises which may be necessary for them, and to lease land for residential, commercial, industrial, and other lawful purposes, in the same manner as native subjects.

5. They shall, on condition of reciprocity, be at full liberty to acquire and possess every description of property, movable or immovable, which the laws of the country permit or shall permit the subjects or citizens of any other foreign country to acquire and possess, subject always to the conditions and limitations prescribed in such laws. They may dispose of the same by sale, exchange, gift, marriage, testaments, or in any other manner, under the same conditions which are or shall be established with regard to native subjects. They shall also be permitted, on compliance with the laws of the country, freely to export the proceeds of the sale of their property and their goods in general without being subjected as foreigners to other or higher duties than those to which subjects of the country would be liable under similar circumstances.

6. They shall enjoy constant and complete protection and security for their persons and property, shall have free and easy access to the Courts of Justice and other tribunals in pursuit and defence of their claims and rights; and shall have full liberty, equally with native subjects, to choose and employ lawyers and advocates to represent them before such Courts and tribunals; and generally shall have the same rights and privileges as native subjects in all that concerns the administration of justice.

7. They shall not be compelled to pay taxes, fees, charges, or contributions of any kind whatever, other or higher than those which are or may be paid by native subjects or the citizens of the most favoured nation.

8. And they shall enjoy a perfect equality of treatment with native subject in all that relates to facilities for warehousing under bond, bounties, and drawbacks.

ARTICLE II The subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties in the territories of the other shall be exempted from all compulsory military services, whether in the army, navy, national guard, or militia; and from all forced loans and military requisitions or contributions unless imposed on them equally with native subjects as owners, lessees, or occupiers of immovable property.

In the above respects the subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties shall not be accorded in the territories of the other less favourable treatment than that which is or may be accorded to subjects or

citizens of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE III The dwellings, ware-houses, manufactories, and shops of the subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties in the territories of the other, and all premises appertaining thereto used for lawful purposes, shall be respected. It shall not be allowable to proceed to make a domiciliary visit to, or a search of, any such buildings and premises, or to examine or inspect books, papers, or accounts, except under the conditions and with the forms presented by the laws for native subjects.

ARTICLE IV Each of the High Contracting Parties may appoint Consuls-General, Consuls, Vice-Consuls, and Consular Agents in all the ports, cities, and places of the other, except in those where it may not be convenient to recognize such officers. This exception, however, shall not be made in regard one of the High Contracting Parties without being made likewise in regard to all other Powers.

Such Consuls-General, Consuls, Vice-Consuls, and Consular Agents, having received exequaturs or other sufficient authorizations from the Government of the country to which they are appointed, shall have the right to exercise their functions, and to enjoy the privileges, exemptions, and immunities which are or may be granted to the Consular officers of the most favoured nation. The Government issuing exequaturs or other authorizations has the right in its discretion to cancel the same on explaining the reasons for which it thought proper to do so.

ARTICLE V In case of the death of a subject of one of the High Contracting Parties in the territories of the other, without leaving at the place of his decease any person entitled by the laws of his country to take charge of and administer the estate, the competent Consular officer of the State to which the deceased belonged shall, upon fulfilment of the necessary formalities, be empowered to take custody of and administer the estate in the manner and under the limitations prescribed by the law of the country in which the property of the deceased is situated.

The foregoing provision shall also apply in case of a subject of one of the High Contracting Parties dying outside the territories of the other, but possessing property therein, without leaving any person there entitled to take charge of and administer the estate.

It is understood that in all that concerns the administration of the estates of deceased persons, any right, privilege, favour, or immunity which either of the High Contracting Parties has actually granted, or may hereafter grant, to the Consular officers of any other foreign State shall be extended immediately and unconditionally to the Consular officers of the other High Contracting Party.

ARTICLE VI There shall be between the territories of the two High Contracting Parties reciprocal freedom of commerce and navigation. The subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties shall have liberty freely to come with their ships and cargoes to all places, ports, and rivers in the territories of the other, which are or may be opened to foreign commerce, and conforming themselves to the laws of the country to which they thus come, shall enjoy the same rights, privileges, liberties, favours, immunities, and exemptions in matters of commerce and navigation as are or may be enjoyed by native subjects.

ARTICLE VII Articles, the produce or manufacture of the territories of one High Contracting Party, upon importation into the territories of the other, from whatever place arriving, shall enjoy the lowest rates of customs duty applicable to similar articles of any other foreign origin.

No prohibition or restriction shall be maintained or imposed on the importation of any article, the produce or manufacture of the territories of either of the High Contracting Parties, into the territories of the other, from whatever place arriving, which shall not equally extend to the importation of the like articles, being the produce or manufacture of any other foreign country. This provision is not applicable to the sanitary or other prohibitions occasioned by the necessity of securing the safety of persons, or of cattle, or of plants useful to agriculture.

ARTICLE VIII The articles, the produce or manufacture of the United Kingdom, enumerated in Part 1 of the Schedule annexed to this Treaty, shall not, on importation into Japan, be subjected to higher customs duties than those syecified in the Schedule.

The articles, the produce or manufacture of Japan, enumerated in Part 2 of the Schedule annexed to this Treaty, shall be free of duty on importation into the United Kingdom.

Provided that if at any time after the expiration of one year from the date this Treaty takes effect either of the High Contracting Parties desires to make a modification in the Schedule it may notify its desire to the other High Contracting Party,

and thereupon negotiations for the purpose shall be entered into forthwith. If the negotiations are not brought to a satisfactory conclusion within six months from the date of notification, the High Contracting Party which gave the notification may, within one month, give six months' notice to abrogate the present Article, and on the expiration of such notice the present Article shall cease to have effect, without prejudice to the other stipulations of this Treaty.

ARTICLE IX Articles, the produce or manufacture of the territories of one of the High Contracting Parties, exported to the territories of the other, shall not be subjected on export to other or higher charges than those paid on the like articles exported to any other foreign country. Nor shall any prohibition or restriction be imposed on the exportation of any article from the territories of either of the two High Contracting Parties to the territories of the other which shall not equally extend to the exportation of the like article to any other foreign country.

ARTICLE X Articles, the produce or manufacture of the territories of one of the High Contracting Parties, passing in transit through the territories of the other, in conformity with the laws of the country, shall be reciprocally free from all transit duties, whether they pass direct, or whether during transit they are unloaded, warehoused, and reloaded.

ARTICLE XI No internal duties levied for the benefit of the State, local authorities, or corporations which affect, or may affect, the production, manufacture, or consumption of any article in the territories of the High Contracting Parties shall for any reason be a higher or more burdensome charge on articles, the produce or manufacture of the territories of the other, than on similar articles of native origin.

The produce or manufacture of the territories of either of the High Contracting Parities imported into the territories of the other, and intended for warehousing or transit, shall not be subjected to any internal duty.

ARTICLE XII Merchants and manufacturers, subjects of one of the High Contracting Parties, as well as merchants and manufacturers domiciled and exercising their commerce and industries in the territories of such party, may, in the territories of the other, either personally or by means of commercial travellers, make purchases or collect orders, with or without samples, and such merchants, manufacturers, and their commercial travellers, while so making purchases and collecting orders, shall, in the matter of taxation and facilities, enjoy the most-favoured-nation treatment.

Articles imported as samples for the purpose above mentioned shall, in each country, be temporarily admitted free of duty on compliance with the Customs regulations and formalities established to assure their re-exportation or the payment of the prescribed customs duties if not re-exported within the period allowed by law. But the foregoing privilege shall not extend to articles which, owing to their quantity or value, cannot be considered as samples, or which owing to their nature, could not be identified upon re-exportation. The determination of the question of the qualification of samples for duty-free admission rests in all cases exclusively with the competent authorities of the place where the importation is effected.

ARTICLE XIII The marks, stamps, or seals placed upon the samples mentioned in the preceding Article by the Customs authorities of one country at the time of exportation, and the officially attested list of such samples containing a full description thereof issued by them, shall be reciprocally accepted by the Customs officials of the other as establishing their character so far as may be necessary to establish that the samples produced are those enumerated in the list. The Customs authorities of either country may, however, affix a supplementary mark to such samples in special cases where they may think this precaution necessary.

ARTICLE XIV The Chambers of Commerce, as well as such other Trade Associations and other recognized Commercial Associations in the territories of Contracting Parties as may be authorized in this behalf, shall be mutually accepted as competent authorities for issuing any certificates that may be required for commercial travellers.

ARTICLE XV Limited liability and other companies and associations, commercial, industrial, and financial, already or hereafter to be organized in accordance with the laws of either High Contracting Party, and registered in the territories of such Party, are authorized, in the territories of the other, to exercise their rights and appear in the Courts either as plaintiffs or defendants, subject to the laws of such other Party.

ARTICLE XVI Each of the High Contracting Parties shall permit the importation or exportation of all merchandise which may be legally import edor exported, and also the carriage of passengers

from or to their respective territories, upon the vessels of the other; and such vessels, their cargoes and passengers shall enjoy the same privileges as, and shall not be subjected to any other or higher duties or charges than, national vessels and their cargoes and passengers.

ARTICLE XVII In all that regards the stationing, loading, and unloading of vessels in the ports, docks, roadsteads, and harbours of the High Contracting Parties, no privileges or facilities shall be granted by either Party to national vessels which are not equally, in like cases, granted to the vessels of the other country; the intention of the High Contracting Parties being that in these respects also the vessels of the two countries shall be treated on the footing of perfect equality.

ARTICLE XVIII All vessels which according to Japanese law are to be deemed Japanese vessels, and all vessels which according to British law are to be deemed British vessels, shall, for the purpose of this Treaty, be deemed Japanese and British vessels respectively.

ARTICLE XIX No duties of tonnage, harbour, pilotage, lighthouse, quarantine, or other analogous duties or charges of whatever nature, or under whatever denomination, levied in the name or for the profit of Government, public functionaries, private individuals, corporations, or establishments of any kind, shall be imposed in the ports of either country upon the vessels of the other which shall not equally, under the same conditions, be imposed in like cases on national vessels in general, or vessels of the most favoured nation. Such equality of treatment shall apply to the vessels of either country from whatever place they may arrive and whatever may be their destiantion.

ARTICLE XX Vessels charged with performance of regular scheduled postal service of one of the High Contracting Parties shall enjoy in the territorial waters of the other the same special facilities, privileges, and immunities as are granted to like vessels of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE XXI The coasting trade of the High Contracting Parties is excepted from the provisions of the present Treaty, and shall be regulated according to the laws of Japan and the United Kingdom respectively. It is, however, understood that the subjects and vessels of either High Contracting Party shall enjoy in this respect most-favourd-nation treatment in the territories of the other.

Japanese and British vessels may, nevertheless, proceed from one port to another, either for the purpose of landing the whole or part of their passengers or cargoes brought from abroad, or of taking on board the whole or part of their passengers or cargoes for a foreign destination.

It is also understood that, in the event of the coasting trade of either country being exclusively reserved to national vessels, the vessels of the other country, if engaged in trade to or from places not within the limits of the coasting trade so reserved, shall not be prohibited from the carriage between two ports of the former country of passengers holding through tickets, or merchandise consigned on through bills of lading to or from places not within the above-mentioned limits, and while engaged in such carriage these vessels and their cargoes shall enjoy the full privileges of this Treaty.

ARTICLE XXII If any seaman should desert from any ship belonging to either of the High Contracting Parties in the territorial waters of the other, the local authorities shall, within the limits of law, be bound to give every assistance in their power for the recovery of such deserter, on application to that effect being made to them by the competent Consular officer of the country to which the ship of the deserter may belong, accompanied by an assurance that all expenses connected therewith will be repaid.

It is understood that this stipulation shall not apply to the subjects of the country where the desertion takes place.

ARTICLE XXIII Any vessel of either of the High Contracting Parties which may be compelled, by stress of weather or by accident, to take shelter in a port of the other shall be at liberty to refit therein, to procure all necessary stores, and to put to sea again, without paying any dues other than such as would be payable in the like case by a national vessel. In case, however, the master of a merchant-vessel should be under the necessity of disposing of a part of his merchandise in order to defray the expenses, he shall be bound to conform to the Regulations and Tariffs of the place to which he may have come.

If any vessel of one of the High Contracting Parties should run aground or be wrecked upon the coasts of the other, such vessel, and all parts thereof, and all furniture and appurtenances belonging thereunto, and all goods and merchandise saved therefrom, including any which may have been cast into the sea, or the proceeds thereof, if sold, as well as all papers found on board such stranded or wrecked vessel, shall be given up to the owners or their agents when claimed by them. If there are no such owners or agents on the spot, then

the same shall be delivered to the Japanese or British Consular officer in whose district the wreck or stranding may have taken place upon being claimed by him within the period fixed by the laws of the country, and such Consular officer, owners or agents shall pay only the expenses incurred in the preservation of the property together with the salvage or other expenses which would have been payable in the like case of a wreck or stranding of a national vessel.

The High Contracting Parties agree, moreover, that merchandise saved shall not be subjected to the payment of any customs duty unless cleared for internal consumption.

In the case either of a vessel being driven in by stress of weather, run aground, or wrecked, the respective Consular officers shall, if the owner or master or other agent of the owner is not present, or is present and requires it, be authorized to interpose in order to afford the necessary assistance to their fellow-country-men.

ARTICLE XXIV The High Contracting Parties agree that, in all that concerns commerce, navigation, and industry, any favour, privilege, or immunity which either High Contracting Party has actually granted, or may hereafter grant, to the ships, subjects, or citizens of any other foreign State shall be extended immediately and unconditionally to the ships or subjects of the other High Contracting Party, it being their intention that the commerce, navigation, and industry of each country shall be placed in all respects on the footing of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE XXV The stipulations of this Treaty do not apply to tariff concessions granted by either of the High Contracting Parties to contiguous States solely to facilitate frontier traffic within a limited zone on each side of the frontier, or to the treatment accorded to the produce of the national fisheries of the High Contracting Parties, or to special tariff favours granted by Japan in regard to fish and other aquatic products taken in the foreign waters in the vicinity of Japan.

ARTICLE XXVI The stipulations of the present Treaty shall not be applicable to any of His Britannic Majesty's Dominions, Colonies, Possessions, or Protectorates, beyond the Seas, unless notice of adhesion shall have been given on behalf of any such Dominion, Colony, Possession, or Protectrate by His Britannic Majesty's Representative at Tokio before the expiration of two years from the date of the exchange of the ratification of the present Treaty.

ARTICLE XXVII The present Treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications exchanged at Tokio as soon as possible. It shall enter into operation on the 17th July, 1911, and remain in force until the 16th July, 1923. In case neither of the High Contracting Parties shall have given notice to the other twelve months before the expiration of the said period, of its intention to terminate the Treaty, it shall continue operative until the expiration of one year from the date on which either of the High Contracting Parties shall have denounced it.

As regards the British Dominions, Colonies, Possessions, and Protectorates to which the present Treaty may have been made applicable in virtue of Article 26, however, either of the High Contracting Parties shall have the right to terminate it separately at any time on given twelve months' notice to that effect. It is understood that the stipulations of the present and of the preceding Article referring to British Dominions, Colonies, Possessions, and Protectorates apply also to the island of Cyprus.

TRAITÉ DE PAIX ENTRE LE JAPON ET LA RUSSIE

Signé á Portsmouth, en français et anglais, le 5 septembre, 1905 (38éme année de Meiji)

ARTICLE I

Il y aura à l'avenir paix et amitié entre Leurs Majestés l'Empereur du Japon et l'Empereur de toutes les Russies, ainsi qu'entre Leurs Etats et sujets respectifs.

ARTICLE II

Le Gouvernement Impérial de Russie, reconnaissant que le Japon possède en Corée des intérêts prédominants politiques, militaires et économiques, s'engage à ne point intervenir ni mettre d'obstacles aux mesures de direction, de protection et de controle que le Gouvernement Impérial du Japon pourrait considérer nécessaire de prendre en Corée.

Il est entendu que les subjects russes en Corée seront traités exactement de la même manière que les ressortissants des autres pays étrangers, à savoir qu'ils

seront placés sur le même pied que les ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée.

Il est de même convenu que pour éviter toute cause de malentendu, les deux Hautes Parties Contractantes s'abstiendront, sur la frontière russocoréenne, de prendre toute mesure militaire qui pourrait menacer la sécurité du territoire russe ou coréen.

ARTICLE III

Le Japon et la Russie s'engagent mutuellement:

1. A évacuer complètement et simultanément la Manchourie à l'exception du territoire sur lequel s'étend le bail de la presqu'île de Liaotung, conformément aux disposition de Liaotung, conformément aux dispositions de l'Article additionnel 1 annexé à ce Traité; et

2. A restituer entièrement et complètement à l'administration exclusive de la Chine toutes les parties de la Manchourie qui sont occupées maintenant par les troupes japonaises ou russes ou qui sont sous leur controle, à l'exception du territoire susmentionné.

Le Governement Impérial de Russie déclare qu'il n'a point en Manchourie d'avantages territoriaux ou concessions préférentielles ou exclusives de nature à porter atteinte à la souveraineté de la Chine ou incompatibles avec le principe d'opportunité égale.

ARTICLE IV

Le Japon et la Russie s'engagent réciproquement à ne mettre aucun obstacle aux mesures générales qui s'appliquent également à toutes les nations et que la Chine pourrait prendre pour le développement du commerce et de l'industrie en Manchourie.

ARTICLE V

Le Gouvernement Impérial de Russie cède au Gouvernement Impérial du Japon avec le consentement du Gouvernement de Chine, le bail de Port Arthur, de Talien et des territoires et eaux territoriales adjacents, ainsi que tous les droits, privilèges et concessions se rattachant à ce bail ou en faisant partie, et il cède de même, au Gouvernement Impérial du Japon, tous les travaux et propriétés publics dans le territoire sur lequel s'étend le bail susmentionné.

Les deux Hautes Parties Contractantes s'engagent mutuellement à obtenir du Gouvernement de Chine le consentement mentionné dans la stipulation ci-dessus.

Le Gouvernement Impérial du Japon donne, de sa part, l'assurance que les droits de propriété des sujets russes dans le territoire susmentionné seront parfaitement respectés.

ARTICLE VI

Le Gouvernement Impérial de Russie s'engage à céder au Gouvernement Impérial du Japon, sans compensation, avec le consentement du Gouvernement de Chine, le chemin de fer entre Tchan-Tchoun (Kouan-Tchen-Tsy) et Port Arthur et tous ses embranchements avec tous les droits, privilèges et propriétés y appartenant dans cette région, ainsi que toutes les mines de charbon dans ladite région, appartenant à ce chemin de fer ou en exploitation pour son profit.

Les deux Hautes Parties Contractantes s'engagent mutuellement à obtenir du Gouvernement de Chine le consentement mentionné dans la stipulation ci-dessus.

ARTICLE VII

Le Japon et la Russie s'engagent à exploiter leurs chemins de fer respectifs en Manchourie exclusivement dans un but commercial et industrial, mais nullement dans un but stratégique.

Il est entendu que cette restriction ne s'applique pas aux chemins de fer dans le territoire sur lequel s'étend le bail de la presqu'île de Liaotung.

ARTICLE VIII

Les Gouvernments Impériaux du Japon et de Russie, en vue de favoriser et de faciliter les relations et le traffic, concluront, aussitot que possible, une convention séparée pour le règlement de leurs services de raccordement de chemins de fer en Manchourie.

ARTICLE VIX

Le Gouvernement Impérial de Russie céde au Gouvernement Impérial du Japon en perpétuité et en pleine souveraineté la partie sud de l'île de Sahnaline et toutes les îles qui y sont adjacentes, ainsi que tous les travaux et propriétés publics qui s'y trouvent. Le cinquantième parallèle de latitude nord est adopté comme la limite du territoire cédé. La ligne frontière exacte de ce territoire sera détérminée conformément aux dispositions de l'Article additionnel 2 annexé à ce Traité.

Le Japon et la Russie conviennent mutuellement de ne construire dans leurs possessions respectives sur l'île de Sakhaline et sur les îles qui y sont adjacentes aucune fortification ni travaux militaires semblables. De même, ils s'engagent respectivement à ne prendre aucune mesure militaire qui pourrait entraver la libre navigation des Détroits de La Pérpose et de Tartarie.

ARTICLE X

Il est réservé aux sujets russes habitants du territoire cédé au Japon de vendre leurs propriétés immobilières et de se retirer dans leur pays; mais, s'ils, préfèrent rester dans le territoire cédé, ils seront maintenus et protégés dans le plein exercice de leurs industries et droits de propriété à la condition de se soumettre aux lois et à la jurisdiction japonaises. Le Japon aura la pleine liberté de retirer le droit de résidence dans ce territoire à tous les habitants se trouvant dans l'incapacité politique ou administrative, ou de les déporter de ce territoire. Il s'engage toutefois à ce que les droits de propriété de ces habitants soient pleinement respectés.

ARTICLE XI

La Russie s'engage à s'entendre avec le Japon pour concéder aux sujets japonais des droits de pêche le long des cotes des possessions russes dans les Mers du Japon, d'Okhotsk et de Behring.

Il est convenu que l'engagement susmentionné ne portera pas atteinte aux droits déjà appartenant aux sujets russes ou étrangers dans ces régions.

ARTICLE XII

Le Traité de Commerce et de Navigation entre le Japon et la Russie ayant été annulé par la guerre, les Gouvernements Impériaux du Japon et de Russie s'engagent à adopter comme base de leurs relation commercials, jusqu'à la conclusion d'un nouveau traité de commerce et de navigation sur la base du Traité qui était en vigueur antérieurement à la guerre actuelle, le système du traitement réciproque sur le pied de la nation la plus favorisée, y compris les tarifs d'importation, et d'exportation, les formalités de douane, les droits de transit et de tonnage et l'addmission et le traitement des agents, des sujets et des vaissaux d'un pays dans le territoire de l'autre.

ARTICLE XIII

Aussitôt que possible après la mise en vigueur du présent Traité, tous les prisonniers de guerre seront réciproquement restitués. Les Gouvernements Impériaux du Japon et de Russie nommeront, chacun de son coté, un Commissaire spécial qui se chargera des prisonniers. Tous les prisonniers se trouvant entre les mains de l'un des Gouvernements seront remis au Commissaire de l'autre Gouvernement, ou à son représentant dûment autorisé, qui les recevra en tel nombre et dans tels ports convenable de l'État remettant que ce dernier aurait notifié d'avance au Commissaire de l'État recevant.

Les Gouvernements du Japon et de Russie présenteront l'un à l'autre, le plus tôt possible après que la remise des prisonniers aura été achevée, un compte documenté des dépenses directes faites respectivement par eux pour le soin et l'entretien des prisonniers depuis la date de la capture ou de la reddition jusqu'à celle de la mort ou de la remise. La Russie s'engage à rembourser au Japon, aussitôt que possible après L'échange de ces comptes comme il est stipulé ci-dessus, la différence entre le montant réel ainsi dépensé par le Japon et le montant réel également déboursé, par la Russie.

THE CONVENTION EMBODYING BASIC RULES OF THE RELATIONS BETWEEN JAPAN AND THE UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS

Signed at Peking, January 20, 1925

ARTICLE I The High Contracting Parties agree that with the coming into force of the present Convention, diplomatic and consular relations shall be established between them.

ARTICLE II The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics agrees that the Treaty of September 5th, 1905, shall remain in full force.

It is agreed that the Treaties, Conven-

tions and Agreements, other than the said Treaty of Portsmouth, which were concluded between Japan and Russia prior to November 7, 1917, shall be re-examined at a Conference to be subsequently held between the Governments of the High Contracting Parties and are liable to revision or annulment as altered circumstances may require.

ARTICLE III The Governments of the High Contracting Parties agree that upon the coming into force of the present Convention, they shall proceed to the revision of the Fishery Convention of 1907, taking into considration such changes as may have taken place in the general conditions since the conclusion of the said Fishery Convention.

Pending the conclusion of a convention so revised, the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics shall maintain the practices established in 1924 relating to the lease of fishery lots to Japanese subjects.

ARTICLE IV The Governments of the High Contracting Parties agree that upon the coming into force of the present Convention, they shall proceed to the conclusion of a treaty of commerce and navigation in conformity with the principles hereunder mentioned, and that pending the conclusion of such a treaty, the general intercourse between the two countries shall be regulated by those principles.

(1) The subjects or citizens of each of the High Contracting Parties shall in accordance with the laws of the country: a / have liberty to enter, travel and reside in the territories of the other, and b / enjoy constant and complete protection for the safety of their lives and property.

(2) Each of the High Contracting Parties shall in accordance with the laws of the country accord in its territories to the subjects or citizens of the other, to the widest possible extent and on condition of reciprocity, the right of private ownership and the liberty to engage in commerce, navigation, industries, and other peaceful pursuits.

(3) Without prejudice to the right of each Contracting Party to regulate by its own laws the system of international trade in that country, it is understood that neither Contracting Party shall apply in discrimination against the other Party any measures of prohibition, restriction or impost which may serve to hamper the growth of the intercourse, economic or otherwise, between the two countries, it being the intention of both Parties to place the commerce, navigation and industry of each country, as far as possible, on the footing of the most favoured nation.

The Governments of the High Contracting Parties further agree that they shall enter into negotiations, from time to time as circumstances may require, for the conclusion of special arrangements relative to commerce and navigation to adjust ond to promote economic relations between the two countries.

ARTICLE V The High Contracting Parties solemnly affirm their desire and intention to live in peace and amity with each other, scrupulously to respect the undoubted right of a State to order its own life within its own jurisdiction in its own way, to refrain and restrain all persons in any governmental service for them, and all organizations in receipt of any financial assistance from them, from any act overt or covert liable in any way whatever to endanger the order and security in any part of the territories of Japan or the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

It is further agreed that neither Contracting Party shall permit the presence in the territories under its jurisdiction— (a) of organizations or groups pretending to be the Government for any part of the territories of the other Party, or (b) of alien subjects or citizens who may be found to be actually carrying on political activities for such organizations or groups.

ARTICLE VI In the interest of promoting economic relations between the two countries, and taking into consideration the needs of Japan with regard to natural resources, the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics is willing to grant to Japanese subjects, companies and associations concessions for the exploitation of minerals, forest and other natural resources in all the territories of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

ARTICLE VII The present Convention shall be ratified.

Such ratification by each of the High Contracting Parties shall, with as little delay as possible, be communicated. through its diplomatic representative at Peking, to the Government of the other Party, and from the date of the letter of such communications this Convention shall come into full force.

CONVENTION DE COMMERCE ET DE NAVIGATION ENTRE LE JAPON ET LA FRANCE

Signé à Paris, le 19 août, 1911

ARTICLE PREMIER

Les ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes auront pleine liberté, avec leurs familles, d'entrer et de séjourner dans toute l'étendue des territoires de l'autre. Sous la condition de se conformer aux lois du pays, ils jouiront des droits ci-après spécifiés:

1 Ils seront, en ce qui concerne le voyage et la résidence, traités sous tous rapports comme les nationaux;

2 Ils auront, comme les nationaux, le droit de se livrer au commerce ou à l'industrie manufacturière et de faire le trafic de tous articles de commerce licite, soit en personne, soit par des représentants, soit seuls, soit en association avec des étrangers ou des nationaux;

3 Ils seront, en ce qui concerne l'exercice de leur industrie, métier ou profession, la poursuite de leurs études ou investigations scientifiques, traités à tous égards, comme les ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée;

4 Ils pourront posséder ou louer et occuper les maisons, les manufactures, les magasins, les boutiques et les locaux qui peuvent leur être nécessaires et prendre à bail des terrains l'effet d'y résider ou de les utiliser dans un but licite commercial, industriel, manufacturier ou autre;

5 Ils pourront, sous la condition de la réciprocité, librement acquérir et posséder toute espèce de propriété mobilière ou immobilière, que la loi du pays permet ou permettra d'acquérir ou de posséder aux ressortissants de tout autre pays étranger. Ils pourront en disposer par voie de vente, échange, donation, mariage, testament, ou de toute autre manière sous les mêmes conditions qui sont ou seront établies à l'égard des nationaux eux-mêmes. Ils pourront aussi exporter librement le produit des ventes de leurs propriétés et tout ce qui leur appartient en général, sans pouvoir être soumis en tant qu'étrangers, à des droits autres ou plus élevés que ceux auxquels seraient soumis les nationaux dans les mêmes circonstances;

6 Ils jouiront d'une protection et sécurité constantes et complètes, pour leurs personnes et leurs propriétés; ils auront un accès libre et facile auprès des cours et tribunaux de justice pour la poursuite et la défense de leurs droits, et ils seront, en outre, comme les nationaux eux-mêmes, libres de choisir et d'employer des avocats, avoués et autres hommes de loi pour les représenter devant les cours et tribunaux, et d'une manière générale ils auront les mêmes droits et privilèges que les nationaux pour tout ce qui concerne l'administration de la justice;

7 Ils seront exempts de tout service militaire obligatoire, soit dans l'armée de terre ou de mer, soit dans la garde nationale ou la milice, ainsi que de toutes les contributions imposées en lieu et place du service personnel. Ils seront exempts également de tous emprunts forcée et de toutes réquisitions ou contributions militaires, sauf ceux qui leur seront imposés, comme aux nationaux eux-mêmes, en leur qualité de possesseurs, locataires ou occupants de biens immeubles. Pour ce qui précède, les ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes ne seront pas traités sur les territoires de l'autre moins bien que ne le sont ou ne le seront les ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée;

8 Ils ne seront contraints à subir des charges ou à payer des impôts, taxes ou contributions, de quelque nature que ce soit, autres ou plus élevés que ceux qui sont ou pourront être imposés aux nationaux ou ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée.

ARTICLE II

Les habitations, magasins, manufactures et boutiques des ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes dans les territoires de l'autre, ainsi que tous les locaux qui en dépendent, employés pour des buts licites, seront respectés. Il ne sera point permis d'y procéder à des visites domiciliaires ou perquisitions, non plus que d'examiner ou d'inspecter les livres, papiers ou comptes, sauf dans les conditions et formes prescrites par les lois à l'égard des nationaux eux-mêmes.

ARTICLE III

Les ressortissants des Parties Contractantes jouiront de la liberté réciproque de commerce, et de navigation; ils auront, de la même facon que les ressortissants de la

nation la plus favorisée, plein liberté de se rendre avec leurs navires et leurs cargaisons dans les lieux, ports et rivières des territoires de l'autre, qui sont ou pourront être ouverts au commerce extérieur; ils bénéficieront, en se conformant toujours aux lois du pays où ils arrivent, des mêmes droits, faveurs, libertés, immunités et exemptions en matière de commerce et de navigation, dont bénéficient ou bénéficieraient les nationaux eux-mêmes.

ARTICLE IV

Les sociétés anonymes ou autres et les associations commerciales, industrielles et financières qui sont ou seront constituées conformément aux lois de l'une des Parties Contractantes et qui ont leur domicile dans les territoires de cette Partie, sont autorisées, dans les territoires de l'autre, en se conformant aux lois de celle-ci, à exercer leurs droits et à ester en justice devant les tribunaux, soit pour intenter une action, soit pour y défendre.

ARTICLE V

Les droits de douane perçus à l'entrée au Japon et en France sur les produits de l'autre pays ne pourront être autres ou plus élevés que ceux imposés aux produits similaires originaires du pays le plus favorisé.

Les droits perçus à la sortie du Japon et de France sur les produits destinés à l'autre pays ne pourront également être autres ou plus élevés que ceux imposés aux mêmes produits destinés au pays le plus favorisé.

ARTICLE VI

Les Parties Contractantes s'engagent à n'entraver nullement le commerce réciproque des deux pays par des prohibitions ou restrictions à l'importation, à l'exportation ou au transit.

Des exceptions à cette règle, en tant qu'elles seront applicables à tous les pays ou aux pays se trouvant dans les mêmes conditions, ne pourront avoir lieu que dans les cas suivants:

1 Pour les approvisionnements et munitions de guerre, dans des circonstances extraordinaires;

2 Pour des raisons de sûreté publique;

3 Par égard à la police sanitaire ou en vue de la protection des animaux ou des plantes utiles contre les maladies ou les insectes et parasites nuisibles;

4 En vue de l'application aux marchandises étrangères des prohibitions ou restrictions édictées par des lois intérieure des marchandises similaires ou de la vente ou du transport à l'intérieur des marchandises similaires de la production nationale;

5 Pour les marchandises qui sont ou seront l'objet d'un monopole d'Etat.

ARTICLE VII

Les marchandises de toute nature originaires du territoire de l'une des deux Parties Contractantes et importées sur le territoire de l'autre Partie ne pourront être assujetties à des droits d'accise, d'octroi ou de consommation perçus pour le compte de l'Etat, des communes ou corporations, supérieurs à ceux qui grèvent ou grèveraient les produits similaires de la production nationale ou, à défaut de ces produits, ceux de la nation la plus favorisée.

Les produits du sol et de l'industrie de l'un des deux pays importés dans le territoires de l'autre, et destinés à l'entreposage ou au transit, ne seront soumis à aucun droit intérieur.

ARTICLE VIII

Les importateurs de marchandises japonaises ou françaises seront réciproquement dispensés de l'obligation de produire des certificats d'origine.

Toutefois, dans le cas où un pays tiers ne serait pas lié avec l'une ou l'autre des Parties Contractantes par la clause de la nation la plus favorisée, la production de certificats d'origine pourra être exceptionnellement exigée.

Dans ce cas, les certificats seront délivrés dans les lieux d'expédition, sièges d'un consulat, par le consul de carrière du pays dans lequel l'importation doit être faite, et, dans les autres lieux, par l'autorité douanière, et, à défaut de cette autorité, par les Chambres de commerce ou les autorités locales.

Lorsque la délivrance des certificats d'origine entraînera la perception de taxes quelconques dans l'un des pays, des taxes équivalentes pourront être établies par l'autre pays à l'occasion des certificats d'origine qu'il délivrera. Il en sera de même, le cas échéant, pour les factures consulaires.

ARTICLE IX

Les négociants et les industriels, ressortissants de l'une des Parties Contract-

antes, ainsi que les négociants et les industriels domiciliés et exercant leur commerce et industrie dans les territoires de cette Partie, pourront, dans les territoires de l'autre, soit en personne, soit par des commis voyageurs, faire des achats ou recueillir des commandes, avec ou sans échantillons et modèles. Ces négociants, industriels et leurs commis voyageurs, en faisant ainsi des achats et en recueillant des commandes, jouiront, en toute manière, du traitement de la nation la plus favorisée. Toutefois dans le cas où les voyageurs de commerce japonais en France ou français ou Japon viendraient à être assujettis à un droit de patente, les voyageurs de commerce français au Japon ou japonais en France pourront être soumis à des impôts équivalents.

Les articles importés comme échantillons et modèles dans les buts susmentionnés, seront, dans chacun des deux Pays, admis temporairement en franchise de droits, en conformité des règlements et formalités de douane établis pour assurer leur réexportaion ou le payment des droits de douane prescrits en cas de nonréexportation dans le délai prévu par la loi. Toutefois, ledit privilège ne s'étendra pas aux articles qui, à cause de leur quantité ou valeur, ne peuvent pas être considérés comme échantillons et modèles ou qui, à cause de leur nature, ne sauraient être identifiés lors de leur réexportation. Le droit de décider si un échantillon ou modèle est susceptible d'admission en franchise, appartient exclusivement, dans tous les cas, aux autorités douanières compétentes du lieu où l'importation a été effectuée.

Les Chambres de commerce existant sur les territoires des deux Parties Contractantes seront réciproquement reconnues comme les autorités compétentes pour délivrer tous certificats qui pourraient être requis par les voyageurs de commerce, en vue notamment d'affirmer leur identité.

ARTICLE X

Tous les articles qui sont où pourront être légalement importés dans les ports de l'une des Parties Contractantes, par des navires nationaux, pourront de même, être importés dans ces ports par des navires de l'autre Partie Contractante, sans être soumis à aucun droit ou charget, de quelque dénomination que ce soit, aures où plus élevés que ceux auxquels les mêmes articles seraient soumis s'ils étaient importés par des navires nationaux. Cette égalité réciproque de traitement sera appliquée sans distinction, que ces articles viennent directement du lieu d'origine où de tout autre pays étranger.

Il y aura de même parfaite égalité de traitement pour l'exportation, de façon que les méme droits de sortie seront payés et les mêmes primes où drawbacks seront accordés, dans les territoires de chacune des Parties Contractantes, à l'exportation d'un article quelconque qui peut ou pourra en être légalment exporté, que cette exportation se fasse par des navires japonais ou par des navires français et quel que soit le lieu de destination, soit un port de l'autre Partie, soit un port d'une tierce Puissance.

ARTICLE XI

En tout ce qui concerne le placement des navires, leur chargement, leur décharge ment dans les eaux territoriales des Parties Contractantes, il ne sera accordé, par l'une des Parties, aux navires nationaux, aucun privilège, ni aucune facilité qui ne le soit également, en pareil cas, aux navires de l'autre Pays, la volonté des Parties Contractantes étant que, sous ces rapports, leurs bâtiments respectifs jouissent d'une parfaite égalité.

ARTICLE XII

Les navires marchands naviguant sous pavillon japonais et français et ayant à bord les documents requis par leurs lois nationales pour établir leur nationalité, seront respectivement considérés, en France et au Japon, comme navires japonais et français.

ARTICLE XIII

Aucun droit de tonnage, de transit, de canal, de port, de pilotage, de phare, de quarantaine ou autres droits ou charges similaires ou analogues, de quelque dénomination que ce soit, levés-au nom ou au profit du gouvernement, de fonctionnaires publics, de particuliers, de corporations ou d'établissements quelconques, ne seront imposés dans les eaux territoriales de l'un des deux Pays sur les navires de l'autre sans qu'ils soient également imposés, dans les mêmes conditions, sur les navires nationaux en général; ou sur les navires de la nation la plus favorisée. Cette égalité de traitement sera appliquée réciproquement à leurs navires respectifs, de quelque endroit qu'ils arrivent et quel que soit le lieu de destination.

ARTICLE XIV

Les navires chargés d'un service postal régulier de l'une des Parties Contractantes qu'ils appartieunent à l'État ou à une compagnie subventionnée par lui à cet effet, jouiront dans les eaux territoriales de l'autre, des mêmes facilités, privilèges et immunités que ceux qui sont accordés aux navires similaires de la nation la plus favorisée.

ARTICLE XV

Il est fait exception aux dispositions de la présente Convention pour le cabotage dont le régime reste soumis à la législation du Japon et de la France respectivement; il est entendu toutefois, que les Japonais en France et les Français au Japon, jouiront pour tout ce qui concerne le cabotage, des droits et privilèges qui sont ou seront accordés par cette même législation aux ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée.

Tout navire de l'une des Parties Contractantes, chargé à l'étranger d'une cargaison destinée à deux ou plusieurs ports d'entrée des territoires de l'autre, pourra décharger une partie de sa cargaison dans l'un desdits ports, et en continuant son voyage pour l'autre ou les autres ports de destination, y décharger le reste de sa cargaison, toujours en se conformant aux lois, aux tarifs et aux règlements de douane du pays de destination. De la même manière et sous la même restriction, tout navire de l'une des Parties Contractantes pourra charger dans les divers ports de l'autre, au cours du même voyage pour l'étranger.

ARTICLE XVI

Les deux Hautes Parties Contractantes déclarent qu'elles sont adhérentes à la Convention d'Union de Paris du 20 mars 1883 pour la protection de la propriété industrielle; dans le cas où l'une d'entre elles cesserait d'adhérer à la Convention précitée, elles conviennent des stipulations suivantes:

Les ressortissants de chacune des Parties Contractantes jouiront, dans les territoires de l'autre Partie, des mêmes droits que les nationaux eux-mêmes, pour tout ce qui concerne la protection des brevets d'invention, des marques de fabrique ou de commerce, des dessins et modèles industriels et de fabrication de toute espèce, et noms commerciaux, et des indications de provenance, et pour tout ce qui concerne la répression de la concurrence déloyale, sous réserve de l'accomplissement des formalités et des conditions imposées par la loi.

Tout produit portant une fausse indication de provenance dans laquelle un des Pays Contractants, ou un lieu situé sur les territoires de l'un d'eux, serait directement ou indirectement indiqué comme pays ou comme lieu d'origine, sera saisi à l'importation à la requête des autorités douanières ou ministère public où d'une partie intéresée, si la législation de chaque Pays Contractant l'admet, ou bien, à défaut, sera soumis aux actions et moyens assurés en pareil cas par la loi aux nationaux.

ARTICLE XVII

Les Hautes Parties Contractantes convinnent que, pour tout ce qui concerne le commerce, l'industrie et la navigation, tout privilège, faveur ou immunité quelconque, que l'une d'elles a déjà accordés ou accorderait à l'avenir au commerce, à l'industrie et à la naqigation de tout autre État, seront étendus immédiatement et sans condition, au commerce, à l'industrie et à la navigation de l'autre Partie Contoractante, leur intention étant que le commerce, l'industrie et la navigation de chaque pays jouissent sous tous rapports du traitement de la nation la plus favorisée.

ARTICLE XVIII

Les stipulations de la présente Convention ne sont pas applicables:

1 Aux avantages particuliers actuellement accordés ou qui pourraient être ultérieurement accordés par l'une des Parties Contractantes à des États limitrophes pour faciliter le trafic frontière;

2 Aux faveurs spéciales résultant d'une union douanière;

3 Aux pêches assimilées à la pêche nationale;

4 Aux encouragements accordés ou qui pourraient être accordés à la marine marchande nationale.

ARTICLE XIX

Les dispositions de la présente Convention sont applicables à l'Algérie. Elles pourront être ultérieurement étendues en tout ou partie aux colonies, possessions françaises et pays de protectorat par une déclaration concertée entre les deux gouvernments.

Il est entendu en outre que la présente Convention est applicable à toutes les colonies et possessions du Japon.

ARTICLE XX

La présente Convention sera ratifiée et l'échange des ratifications aura lieu à Tokyo; les ratifications seront notifiées dans le plus bref délai possible aux Gouvernments du Japon et de la France par leurs Représentants respectifs; à partir de la date de la dernière de ces deux notifications, la présente Convention entrera en vigueur et demeurera exécutoire pendant une période de dix années.

Toutefois, l'article 5 en vertu duquel les droits de douane perçus en France sur les produits d'origine japonaise et au Japon sur les produits d'origine française ne seront autres ou plus élevés que ceux perçus sur les produits similaires originaires du pays le plus favorisé, pourra être dénoncé à toute époque par chacune des deux Parties Contractantes, et dans ce cas, il cessera d'être exécutoire un an après cette dénonciation.

Au cas où douze mois avant la date d'expiration de la présente Convention aucune des deux Parties Contractantes n'aurait notifié son intention d'en faire cesser les effets, cet acte demeurera obligatoire jusqu'à l'expiration d'une année à partir du jour où l'une ou l'autre Partie Contractante l'aura dénoncé.

TRAITÉ DE COMMERCE ET DE NAVIGATION ENTER LE JAPON ET L'ALLEMAGNE

Signé à Berlin, le 24 Juin, 1911

ARTICLE I

Les ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes auront pleine liberté d'entrer et de séjourner en tout lieu des territoires de l'autre.

A condition de se conformer aux lois du Pays, ils jouiront des droits spécifiés ci-dessous:

1. Ils seront, pour tout ce qui concerne la résidence, les études et investigations, l'exercice de leurs métiers et professions et l'exécution de leurs entreprises industrielles et manufacturières, placés, à tous égards, sur le même pied que les ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée;

2. Ils auront, comme les nationaux eux-mêmes, le droit de voyager dans toute l'étendue des territoires de l'autre et le droit de faire le trafic de tous articles de commerce licite;

3. Ils pourront posséder ou louer et occuper des maisons, fabriques, magasins, boutiques et les locaux qui en dépendent. De même ils pourront louer des terrains à l'effet d'y résider ou de les utiliser dans un but licite commercial, industriel, manufacturier ou autre;

4. En ce qui concerne la possession de biens mobiliers de quelque espèce que ce soit, la transmission, par succession testamentaire ou autre, des biens mobiliers de toute sorte qu'ils peuvent légalement acquérir entre vivants et en ce qui concerne le droit de disposer, de quelque manière que ce soit, des biens de toute sorte qu'ils auront acquis légalement, ils jouiront des mêmes privilèges, libertés et droits et ne seront soumis, sous ce rapport, à aucuns impots ou charges plus élevés que les nationaux ou les ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée;

5. Ils pourront, sous la réserve de la réciprocité, acquérir et posséder toute sorte dimmeubles qui, d'après les lois du Pays, peuvent ou pourront être acquis ou possédés par les ressortissants d'une autre nation étrangère quelconque, en se conformant toujours aux conditions et restrictions prescrites par lesdites lois;

6. Ils seront exempts de tout service militaire obligatoire, soit dans l'armée ou la marine, la garde nationale ou la milice, de même que de toutes taxes imposées en lieu et place du service personnel et de tous emprunts forcés, Ils ne pourront être assujettis à des réquisitions ou contributions militaires, quelles qu'elles soient, autrement que dans les mêmes conditions et sur le même pied que les nationaux ou les ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée;

7. Ils ne seront contraints, sous aucun prétexte, à subir des charges ou à payer des taxes autres ou plus élevées que celles qui sont ou seront imposées aux nationaux ou aux ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée.

ARTICLE II

Les habitations, magasins, fabriques et boutiques des ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes dans les territoires de l'autre ainsi que tous les lacaux qui en dépendent, seront respectée.

Il ne sera point permis d'y procéder à des visites domiciliaires ou perquisitions ou d'examiner ou d'inspecter les livres, papiers ou comptes, sauf dans les conditions et formes prescrites par les lois à l'égard des nationaux.

ARTICLE III

Il y aura entre les territoires des deux Hautes Parties Contractantes liberté réciproque de commerce et de navigation.

Les ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes auront pleine liberté de se rendre avec leurs navires et leurs cargaisons dans les lieux, ports et rivières des territoires de l'autre qui sont ou pourront être ouverts au commerce extérieur; ils sont, toutefois, tenus de se conformer toujours aux lois du Pays où ils arrivent.

ARTICLE IV

Les droits de douane perçus sur les articles, produits naturels ou fabriqués des territoires de l'une des Hautes Parties Contractantes, à leur importation dans les territoires de l'autre, seront réglés, soit par des arrangements spéciaux entre les deux Pays, soit par la législation intérieure de chacun d'eux.

Aucune des Parties Contractantes n'imposera à l'exportation d'un article quelconque à destination des territoires de l'autre des droits ou charges quelconques autres ou plus élevés que ceux qui sont ou pourront être imposés à l'exportation des articles similaires à destination de tout autre pays étranger.

ARTICLE V

Les Hautes Parties Contractantes s'engagent à n'entraver leurs relations commerciales réciproques par aucune prohibition d'importation, d'exportation ni de transit.

Des exception pourront toutefois être faites dans les cas suivants, en tant qu'elles sont appliquées à tous les autres pays ou du moins à tous les pays qui se trouvent dans les mêmes conditions:

1. Relativement aux approvisionnements de guerre, dans des circonstances exceptionnelles;

2. Pour des considérations affectant la sécurité publique;

3. Pour cause de salubrité publique et en vne d'assurer la protection des animaux et des plantes utiles contre les maladies et les parasites;

4. Dans le but d'appliquer à des marchandises étrangères des interdictions ou des restrictions établies par la législation intérieure à l'égard de la production, du placement ou du trafic de marchandises indigènes de même nature.

ARTICLE VI

Les ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes jouiront, dans les territoires de l'autre, d'une parfaite égalité de traitement avec les nationaux, quant à l'exemption de droits de transit et pour tout ce qui concerne le magasinage, les primes, les drawbacks ainsique les facilités touchant l'importation ou l'exportation des marchandises.

ARTICLE VII

Les négociants et les industriels que, par l'exhibition d'une carte de légitimation industrielle, délivrée par les autorités de l'une des Parties Contractantes, prouvent qu'ils sont autorisés à exercer leur commerce ou industrie dans les territoires de cette Partie, pourront, dans les territoires de l'autre, soit en personne, soit par des commis voyageurs, faire des achats ou recueillir des commandes, avec ou sans échantillons. Ces négociants, industriels et leurs commis voyageurs, en faisant ainsi des achats et en recueillant des commandes, jouiront, en matière d'impositions et de facilités du traitement de la nation la plus favorisée.

Les Parties Contractantes se donneront réciproquement connaissance des autorités chargées de délivrer les cartes de légitimation.

Les articles importés comme échantillons dans les buts mentionnés dans l'alinéa 1 seront, dans chacun des deux Pays, admis temporairement en franchise de droit, en conformité des règlements et formalités de douane, établis pour assurer leur réexportation ou le payement des droits de douane prescrits en cas de non-réexportation dans le délai prévu par la loi. Toutefois, ledit privilège ne s'étendra pas aux articles qui, à cause de leur quantité ou valeur, ne peuvent pas être considérés comme échantillons, ou qui, à cause de leur nature, ne sauraient être identifiés lors de leur réexportation. Le droit de décider si un échantillon est susceptible d'admission en franchise, appartient exclusivement dans tous les cas, aux autorités compétentes du lieu ou l'importation a été effectuée.

ARTICLE VIII

Les marques de reconnaissance, estampilles ou cachets apposés au moment de l'exportation par les autorités douanières de l'une des Parties Contractantes aux échantillons mentionnés dans l'article précédent ainsi que la liste de ces échantillons qui est officiellement attestée par elles et en contient la description détaillée, seront réciproquement acceptés par les autorités douanières de l'autre pour établir leur caractère d'échantillons et leur assurer l'exemption de toute inspection, sauf en tant que cette dernière est nécessaire pour constater que les échantillons présentés sont identiques avec ceux énumérés dans la liste. Les autorités douanières de chacune des Parties Contractantes pourront toutefois apposer une marque supplémentaire aux échantillons dans les cas spéciaux où elles jugent nécessaire de prendre cette précaution.

ARTICLE IX

Les sociétés par actions (anonymes) et autres sociétés et associations commerciales, industrielles ou financières, y compris les compagnies d'assurance, domiciliées dans les territoires de l'une des Parties Contractantes et ayant l'existence légale d'après les lois qui y sont en vigueur, seront reconnues comme ayant l'existence légale dans les territoires de l'autre et autorisées à y ester en justice devant les tribunaux, soit pour intenter une action, soit pour y défendre d'après les lois de cette autre Partie.

Leur admission à l'exercice de leur industrie ou de leur commerce ainsi qu'à l'acquisition de biens dans les territoires de l'autre Partie se règle d'après les prescriptions qui y sont en vigueur. En tout cas, lesdites sociétés, associations et compagnies jouiront, dans ces territoires, des mêmes droits que ceux qui sont ou pourront être accordés à des sociétés, associations et compagnies similaires de la nation la plus favorisée.

ARTICLE X

Tous les articles qui sont of pourront être légalement importés, dans les ports de l'une des Hautes Parties Contractantes, par des navires nationaux, pourront, de même, être importés dans ces ports par des navires de l'autre Partie Contractante, sans être soumis à aucuns droits ou charges, de quelque dénomination que ce soit, autres ou plus élevés que ceux auxquels les mêmes articles seraient soumis s'ils étaient importés par des navires nationaux. Cette égalité réciproque de traitement sera appliquée sans distinction, que ces articles viennent directement du lieu d'origine, ou de tout autre pays étranger.

Il y aura, de même, parfaite égalité de traitement pour l'exportation, de façon que les mêmes droits de sortie seront payés, et les mêmes primes et drawbacks seront accordés, dans les territoires de chacune des Parties Contractantes à l'exportation d'un article quelconque qui peut ou pourra en être légalement exporté, que cette exportation se fasse par des navires japonais ou par des navires allemands et quel que soit le lieu de destination, soit un port de l'autre Partie, soit un port d'une tierce Puissance.

ARTICLE XI

En tout ce qui concerne le placement des navires, leur chargement, leur déchargement, dans les eaux territoriales des Hautes Parties Contractantes, il ne sera accordé par l'une des Parties aux navires nationaux aucun privilège ni aucune facilité qui ne le soit également, en pareils cas, aux navires de l'autre Pays, la volonté des Parties Contractantes étant que, sous ces rapports, les bâtiments respectifs soient traités sur le pied d'une parfaite égalité.

ARTICLE XII

Tous les navires qui, conformément aux lois allemandes, sont considérés comme navires allemands et tous les navires qui, conformément aux lois japonaises, sont considérés comme navires japonais seront considérés respectivement en tout ce qui concerne l'application de ce Traité comme navires allemands et japonais.

ARTICLE XIII

Aucuns droits de tonnage, de transit, de canal, de port, de pilotage, de phare, de quarantaine ou autres droits ou charges similaires ou analogues, de quelque dénomination que ce soit, levés au nom ou au profit du Gouvernment, de fonctionnaires publics, de particuliers, de corporations ou d'établissements quelconques, ne seront imposés dans les eaux territoriales de l'un des deux Pays aux navires de l'autre, sans qu'ils soient également imposés, sous les mêmes conditions, aux navires nationaux en général ou aux navires de la nation la plus favorisée. Cette égalité de traitement sera appliquée réciproquement aux navires respectifs, de quelque endroit

qu'ils arrivent et quel que soit le lieu de destination.

ARTICLE XIV

Les navires chargés d'un service postal régulier de l'une des Haute Parties Contractantes jouiront, dans les eaux territoriales de l'autre, des mêmes facilités, privilèges et immunités que ceux qui sont accordées aux navires similaires de la nation la plus favorisée.

ARTICLE XV

Les cabotages sont exceptés des dispositions du présent Traité et reste réservé au pavillon national. Il est toutefois entendu que, sous ce rapport, chacune des deux Parties peut réclamer pour ses navires les mêmes droits ou privilèges qui sont ou seront accordés par l'autre Partie aux navires de tout autre pays en tant qu'elle accorde aux navires de l'autre Partie les mêmes droits ou privilèges.

Ne sera pas considéré comme cabotage:

1. Le trafic des navires passant d'un port dans un autre, soit pour y débarquer des passagers ou décharger tout ou partie de leur cargaison apportés de l'étranger, soit pour y embarquer des passagers ou charger tout ou partie de leur cargaison à destination étrangère,

2. Le transport, d'un port à l'autre, de passagers munis de billets directs, ou de marchandises expédiées avec connaissements directs délivrés à ou destinés pour l'étranger.

ARTICLE XVI

En cas de naufrage, avaries en mer ou relâche forcée, chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes devra donner aux navires de l'autre, qu'ils appartiennent à l'État ou à des particuliers, la même assistance et protection et les mêmes immunités que celles qui seront accordées en pareils cas aux navires nationaux. Les articles sauvés de ces vaisseaux naufragés ou avariés seront exempts de tous droits de douane, a moins qu'ils n'entrent dans la consommation intérieure, auquel cas ils seront tenus de payer les droits prescrits.

Les autorités locales devront, dés que faire se pourra, informer du naufrage ou des avaries le plus proche Consul de l'État du pavillon. Les Consuls des Pays Contractants sont autorisés à prêter l'aide nécessaire à leurs nationaux.

ARTICLE XVII

Réserve faite des cas où ce Traité en dispose autrement d'une manière expresse, les Hautes Parties Contractantes conviennent qu'en tout ce qui concerne le commerce, la navigation et l'industrie toutes sortes de privilèges, faveurs ou immunités que l'une ou l'autre des Parties Contractantes a déjà accordés ou accordera à l'avenir aux navires ou aux ressortissants de tout autre État, seront tention étant que, sauf les cas exception aux navires ou aux ressortissants de l'autre Partie Contractante, leur intention étant que, sauf les cas exceptionnels précités, le commerce, la navigation et l'industrie de chaque Pays soient placés, à tous égards, par l'autre sur le pied de la nation la plus favorisée.

ARTICLE XVIII

Les dispositions du présent Traité s'appliquent de même aux pays et territoires qui appartiennent à présent ou appartiendront à l'avenir au territoire douanier de l'une ou l'autre des Parties Contractantes.

ARTICLE XIX

Le présent Traité entrera en vigueur le 17 juillet 1911 avec la Convention speciale et réciproque de Douane, signée en date de ce jour. Il restera obligatoire jusqu'au 16 juillet 1923.

Dans le cas où aucune des Parties Contractantes n'aurait notifié douze mois avant l'échéance de ce dernier terme, son intention de faire cesser les effets du Traité, celui-ci continuera à être exécutoire jusqu'à l'expiration d'une année à partir du jour où l'une ou l'autre des Parties Contractantes l'aura dénoncé.

Les Parties Contractantes se réservent cependant la faculté de dénoncer, jusqu'au 31 mars 1912, le présent Traité. Ledit Traité cessera dans ce cas ses effets le 31 décembre 1912. Il est entendu que les Parties Contractantes ne feront pas usage de la faculté mentionnée sans dénoncer simultanément la Convention de Douane citée dans l'alinéa I du présent article.

ARTICLE XX

Le présent Traité sera ratifié et les ratifications en seront échangées à Tokio, aussitôt que faire se pourra.

SUMMARY OF TRADE AGREEMENT BETWEEN JAPAN AND INDIA,

January, 1934

1. Most favoured nation treatment: In respect of customs duties, Japan and India shall reciprocally accord the most favoured nation treatment to any articles, produce or manufacture of the other country.

2. Negotiations to be held concerning modification of customs tariff: Subject to reservation by both countries of the right to make such changes in their customs tariffs as may be necessary for the protection of their own interests, Japan and India agree that, should any modification of customs tariffs by either country result in trade interest being adversely affected in any appreciable mesure, they shall request of the country so affected enter into negotiations with the object of reconciling so far as possible trade interests of the two countries.

3. Measures to correct effects of exchange fluctuation: Nothing in this agreement shall be held to prohibit the imposition or the variation from time to time by the Government of India of special rates of customs duty on articles, the produce or manufacture of Japan, other or higher than those levied on similar articles produced or manufactured by any other country, at such rates as the Government of India may consider to be necessary to correct the effects of any variation of the exchange value of the yen relative to the rupee subsequent to December 31, 1933.

Imposing or varying, or on being requested by the Government of Japan to vary, such special rates of customs duty, the Government of India undertakes to give full consideration to relevant factors which tend to raise the export prices of Japanese goods, such as the purchase by Japan of raw materials in markets outside Japan and the adjustment of internal Japanese prices, and to limit such rates to what is necessary to correct the effect of the depreciation of the exchange value of the yen relative to the rupee on the duty-paid value of Japanese goods imported into India. Provided, that no charge in such rate shall be made until it has been in force for at least five weeks.

Reciprocally, the Government of Japan shall have the right of imposing or varying special rates of customs similar to those for which provision is made in paragraph 1 of this article (3), on articles, the produce or manufacture of India, under similar circumstances, and subject to ocnditions similar to those provided for in paragraphs 2 and 3 of this article (3). Provided, that the said right shall not accrue to the Government of Japan unless the exchange value of the rupee relative to the yen shall be depreciated below the value of 0.732 yen.

4. Customs duties on Japanese cotton piece-goods imported into the India: Without prejudice to agreements concerning the most favoured nation treatment, and the measures to correct the effects of exchange fluctuation, customs duties to be imposed by the Government of India on Japanese cotton piece-goods should not exceed the following rates:

Duty on plain greys. . . . . .50 per cent. ad. valorem or 5.25 annas per pound.

Duty on others. . . . . .50 per cent. ad. valorem.

It is understood that the Government of India shall not impose on Japanese cotton piece-goods other than plain greys a specific duty exceeding 5.25 annas per pound subject to agreement concerning the most favoured nation treatment.

5. Importation of Japanese cotton piece-goods into India:

(a) Calculation of the quota of Japanese cotton piece-goods to be exported to India in a period of one year beginning April 1 shall be fixed in accordance with quantity of Indian raw cotton exported to Japan in a period of one year beginning January 1 of the same year.

(b) It is to be noted that the period of one year for the purpose of fixing the quota of Japanese cotton piece-goods (or piece-goods year) shall be from April 1 to March 31 of the following year, while the period of one year for the purpose of calculating the quantity of Indian raw cotton to be exported to Japan (or cotton year) shall be from January 1 to December 31.

6. Basic quota and its modification: The basic quota of Japanese cotton piece-goods to be exported to India in a piece-goods year shall be 325,000,000 yards and it shall be liked with 1,000,000 bales of Indian raw cotton exported to Japan in the corresponding cotton year.

(a) In case the export of Indian raw cotton to Japan in any cotton year should fall below the 1,000,000 bales quota, the

Japanese cotton piece-goods for the corresponding piece-goods year shall be determined by reducing the above basic quota at the rate of 2,000,000 yards for every 10,000 bales of deficit.

(b) In case, however, such export in any cotton year should exceed the 1,000,000 bales quota, the Japanese cotton piece-goods for the corresponding piece-goods year shall be determined by increasing the above basic quota at the rate of 1,500,000 yards for every additional 10,000 bales, provided that quota should in no case exceed 400,000,000 yards.

(c) In case the export of Indian raw cotton to Japan in any cotton year should exceed 1,500,000 bales, the quantity thus exported in excess of 1,500,000 bales shall be for the purpose of determining the relevant quota of Japanese cotton piece-goods added to the quantity of raw cotton exported to Japan in the following cotton year.

(d) In respect of both cotton piece-goods and raw cotton re-exported the quantity shall be deducted from imported quantity.

(e) The year shall be divided into two half-yearly periods, the first half-yearly period running from April 1 to September 30 and the second half-yearly period from October 1 to March 31 of the following year.

(f) The quota for the second half-yearly period shall be provisionally fixed at the quantity which will be derived by deducting 200,000,000 yards from the yearly quota, calculate on the basis of estimated export of Indian raw cotton to Japan in the corresponding cotton year.

7. Adjustment: The adjustment of export of Japanese cotton piece-goods to India shall be made by the end of the said period on basis of exact quantity of Indian raw cotton exported to Japan in the corresponding cotton year, subject to rules of allowances between periods.

A transfer from the quota of the first half-yearly period to the quota of the second half-yearly period shall be permitted up to a maximum of 20,000,000 yards.

From the second half-yearly period to the first half-yearly period of the succeeding piece-goods year and vice versa, transfer up to a maximum of 20,000,000 yards shall be permitted,

8. Classification of quota into categories:

The quota of cotton piece-goods shall be classified into the following categories in conformity with the following percentages:

Plain greys.	.45 per cent.
Bordered greys. . .	.13 per cent.
Bleached	8 per cent.
Coloured and other .	.34 per cent.

The percentage allotted to each of the above categories may be modified subject to the following conditions:

Increase in category either of bordered greys or bleached shall not exceed 20 per cent, of quantity allotted to that category, and an increase in any other category shall not exceed 10 per cent of quantity allotted to that category.

9. Transfer: The quantity transferable from category either of bordered greys or bleached shall not exceed 20 per cent of quantity allotted to that category and the quantity transferable from any other category shall not exceed 10 per cent of quantity allotted to that category: and

The total quota of cotton piece-goods for any piece-goods year shall not be increased by the above modification of quantity allotted to each category.

10. The quota for the period intervening the enforcement of the arrangement and the commencement of the first piece-goods year:

(a) The quota of cotton piece-goods for the period between the date on which the present Indian customs on cotton piece-goods year begins shall be the proportionate fraction of the quantity that would have been allotted to the whole piece-goods year from April 11, 1933 to March 31, 1934, on the basis of the quantity of Indian raw cotton imported into Japan in the cotton year of 1933 (From January 1 to December 31).

(b) The quota for his period and the first half-yearly instalment of the first piece-goods year quota should be consolidated into one for the period of approximately nine months, ending at the end of September, 1934.

The treaty shall come into force immediately after an exchange of ratifications, and shall remain in force until March 31, 1937,

TREATY RESPECTING SOUTH MANCHURIA AND EASTERN INNER MONGOLIA

Signed at Peking, May 25, 1915

ARTICLE I The High Contracting Parties mutually agree to extend the term of the lease of Port Arthur and Dairen, and the term relating to the South Manchouria Railway and to the Antung-Mukden Railway, to a period of nine years respectively.

ARTICLE II The subjects of Japan shall be permitted in South Manchuria to lease land necessary either for erecting buildings for various commercial and industrial uses or for agricultural purposes.

ARTICLE III The subjects of Japan shall have liberty to enter, travel and reside in South Manchuria to carry on business of various kinds—commercial, industrial and otherwise.

ARTICLE IV The Government of China shall permit joint undertakings, in Eastern Inner Mongolia, of the subjects of Japan and citizens of China, in agriculture and industries auxiliary thereto.

ARTICLE V With respect to the three preceding Articles, the subjects of Japan shall produce before the local authorities the passports duly issued for the purpose of registration, and shall also submit themselves to the police laws and regulations and taxes of China.

In civil and criminal suit, the Japanese consular officer, where a Japanese subject is the defendant, and the Chinese official, where a Chinese citizen is the defendant, shall respectively try and decide the case, both the Japanese consular official and the Chinese official being permitted each to send his agent to attend the trial of the other to watch the proceeding: provided that in civil suits arising out of land disputes between Japanese subjects and Chinese citizens, the cases shall be tried and decided by the joint tribunal composed of the property authorized official of the two countries, in accordance with the laws and local usages of China.

In the future when the judicial system in the said regions shall have been completely reformed, all civil and criminal suites involving Japanese subjects shall be wholly tried and decided by the law-courts of China.

ARTICLE VI The Government of China engage to open of their own accord, as early as possible, cities and towns in Eastern Inner Mongolia, for the residence and trade of foreigners.

ARTICLE VII The Government of China agree to a speedy fundamental revision of various agreements and contracts relating to the Kirin-Changchun Railway, on the basis of the terms embodied in Railway loan agreements which China has heretofore entered into with various foreign capitalists.

If, in future, the Chinese Government grant to foreign capitalists, in matters that relate to railway loans, more advantageous terms than those in the various existing railway loan agreements, the abovementioned Kirin-Changchun Railway Loan Agreement shall, if so desired by Japan, be further revised.

ARTICLE VIII Except as otherwise provided in this Treaty, all existing treaties between Japan and China with respect to Manchuria shall remain in force.

ARTICLE IX The present Treaty shall take effect on the day of its signature.

DECLARATION CONCERNING THE NON-ALIENATION OF THE PROVINCE OF FUKIEN

The Tsung-Li Yamên to the Japanese Minister

Peking, April 26, 1898.

Prince Ch'ing and the Ministers of the Tsung-li Yamên have the honour to reply to a communication from the Minister of Japan dated 2nd day, 3rd intercalary month, 24th year Kuang-Hsü (April 22, 1898), which reads as follows:

" A telegram has just been received from the Minister of Foreign Affairs, which reads as follows:

" ' The Government of Japan has viewed with constant deep concern the difficulties with the Government of China has recently been confronted. The declaration made at the time of the evacuation of Weihaiwei is evidence of this. It is to be apprehended that trouble may arise with consequences disastrous to China. In all this there

is no mistaking what our real purpose is.

"'In view of the present state of affairs, the Government of Japan, mindful of its own interests, cannot act as if entirely in ignorance of passing events, but must take proper measures to meet any situation that may arise. You will ask the Government of China to make a declaration that it will not cede or lease to any other Power any portion of its territory within the Province of Fu-kien.'"

Referring to his oral statements made in a personal interview, the Minister of Japan requests that a reply be given to his communication.

The Princes and the Ministers have the honour to state that the Province of Fukien, with all the territory in the interior and along the sea-coast within its limits, which is an important part of China, China will never cede or lease to any other Power whatsoever; and to request that this reply be communicated to the Govermment of Japan.

The Princes and the Ministers avail themselves of this opportunity to renew to the Minister of Japan the assurances of their most distinguished consideration.

EXCHANGE OF NOTES*

From the Japanese Minister

Peking, the 25th day of May of the 4th year of Taisho.

Excellency,

A respect has reached me to the effect that the Chinese Government has the intention of permitting foreign nations to establish, on the coast of Fukien Province, dockyards, coaling stations for military use, naval bases, or to set up other military establishments; and also of borrowing foreign capital for the purpose of setting up the abovementioned establishments.

I have the honour to request that Your Excellency will be good enough to give me reply stating whether or not the Chinese Government really entertains such an intention.

I avail, etc.

From Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs

Peking, the 25th day of May of the 4th year of Republic of China.

Monsieur le Ministre,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's note of this day's date which I have noted.

In reply I beg to inform you that the Chinese Government hereby declares that it has given no permission to foreign nations to construct, on the coast of Fukien Province, dockyards, coaling stations for military use, naval bases, or to set up other military establishments; nor does it entertain an intention of borrowing foreign capital for the purpose of setting up the abovementioned establishments.

I avail, etc.,

* Translation from Chinese text as printed in Rockhill, p. 181. Printed also in Hertslet, p. 1154.

SINO-JAPANESE UNDERSTANDING ENTERED INTO IN 1905

Made Public, January 14, 1932

In 1905, when the Treaty concerning Manchuria and the supplementary agreement to it were concluded, the Japanese Government insisted on the insertion in the text of the Treaty definite engagements on certain matters. Since, however, the Chinese Government found it difficult for internal political reasons to consent to the publication of such engagements, it was agreed that these should be merely recorded in the Minutes of the Conference, which were drawn up both in Japanese and Chinese and signed by the Japanese and Chinese Plenipotentiaries. These unpublished understandings totalled sixteen in number. An English version summarising these provisions was submitted, in February, 1906, to the British and the United States Governments in strict confidence by the Japanese Government.

Inasmuch as there seems to be some doubt as to the existence of these understandings in the Minutes of the Conference, and as people even in positions of influence in China have openly denied it, the Government think the present a fit occasion to publish the abovementioned com-

munication made to the Governments of Great Britain and the United States.

Whereas the protocols of the Conference recently held between the Plenipotentiaries of Japan and China with regard to Manchuria are to be kept strictly secret in deference to the desire of the Chinese Government, only such portions of those Protocols as possess the character of executory agreements are given in the following summary:

1. The railway between Changchun an Kirin will be constructed by China with capital to be raised by herself. She however, agrees to borrow from Japan the insufficient amount of capital, which amount being about one-half of the total sum required. The contract concerning the loan shall, in due time, bconcluded, following, mutatis mutandis, the loan contract entered into between the board of the Imperial Railways of North China and the Anglo-Chinese Syndicate. The term of the loan shall be twenty-five years, redeemable in yearly instalments.

2. The military railway constracted by Japan between Mukden and Hsinmintun shall be sold to China at a price to be fairly determined in consultation by Commissioners appointed for the purpose by the two Governments. China engages to reconstruct the line, making it her own railway, and to borrow from a Japanese corporation or corporations one half of the capital required for the portion of the line east of Liao-ho for a term of eighteen years repayable in yearly instalments, and a contract shall be concluded, for the purpose following, mutatis mutandis, the loan contract entered into between the Board of the Imperial Railways of North China and the Anglo-Chinese Syndicate.

All the other military railways in different localities shall be removed with the evacuation of the regions.

3. The Chinese Government engage, for the purpose of protecting the interest of the South Manchuria Railway, not to construct, prior to the recovery by them of the said railway, any main line in the neighbourhood of and parallel to that railway, or any branch line which might be prejudicial to the interest of the abovementioned railway.

4. China declares that she will adopt sufficient measures for securing Russia's faithful observance of the Russo-Chinese treaties with regard to the railways which Russia continues to possess in the northern part of Manchuria, and that it is her intention, in case Russia acts in contravention of such treaty stipulations, to approach her strongly with a view to have such action fully rectified.

5. When in the future, negotiations are to be opened between Japan and Russia for regulation of the connecting railway services (Article VIII of the Treaty of Peace between Japan and Russia), Japan shall give China previous notice. China shall communicate to Russia her desire to take part in the negotiations through commissioners to be despatched by her on the occasion, and Russia consenting, shall participate in such negotiations.

6. With regard to the mines in the Province of Fengtien, appertaining to the railway, whether already worked or not, fair and detailed arrangements shall be agreed upon for mutual observance.

7. The affairs relating to the connecting services as well as those of common concern in respect of the telegraph lines in the Province of Fengtien and the cables between Port Arthur and Yentai shall be arranged from time to time as necessity may arise in consultation between the two countries.

8. The regulations respecting the places to be opened in Manchuria, shall be made by China herself, but the Japanese Minister at Peking must be previously consulted regarding the matter.

9, If no objection be offered on the part of Russia respecting the navigation of the Sungari (by Japanese vessels), China shall consent to such navigation after negotiations.

10. The Chinese Plenipotentiaries declare that immediately after withdrawal of the Japanese and Russian troops from Manchuria, China will proceed to take, in virtue of her sovereign right, full administrative measures to guarantee peace in that region and endeavour, by the same right, to promote good and remove evil as well as steadily to restore order, so that the residents of that region, natives and foreigners, may equally enjoy the security of life and occupation under the perfect protection of the Chinese Government. As to the means of restoring order, the Chinese Government are to take by themselves all adequate measures.

11. While relations of intimate friendship subsisted as at the present time between China and Japan, Japan and Russia had unfortunately engaged in war and fought in the territory of China. But peace has now been established and hostilities in Manchuria have ceased. And while it is undeniable that Japanese troops, before their withdrawal, have the power of exercising the rights occurring from military occupation, the Chinese Government de-

clare that certain Japanese subjects in Manchuria have recently been observed to sometimes interfere with the local Chinese administration and to inflict damage to public and private property of China.

The Japanese Plenipotentiaries, considering that, should such interference and infliction of damage have been carried beyond military necessity, they are not proper acts, declare that they will communicate the purport of the above declaration of the Chinese Government of Japan, so that proper steps may be taken for controlling Japanese subjects in the Province of Fengtien and promote the friendly relations between the two nations, and also for preventing them in future, from interfering with the Chinese administration or inflicting damage to public or private property without military necessity.

12. In regard to any public or private property of China which may have been purposely destroyed or used by Japanese subjects without any military necessity, the Governments of the two countries shall respectively make investigations and cause fair reparation to be made.

13. When the Chinese local authorities intend to despatch troops for the purpose of subduing native bandits in the regions not yet completely evacuated by Japanese troops, they shall not fail to previously consult with the Commander of the Japanese troops stationed in those regions so that all misunderstandings may be avoided.

14. The Japanese Plenipotentiaries declare that the Railway Guards stationed between Changchun and the boundary line of the leased territory of Port Arthur and Talien, shall not be allowed, before their withdrawal, to unreasonably interfere with the local administration of China or to proceed without permission beyond the limits of the railway.

15. Chinese local authorities, who are to reside at Yingkou, shall be allowed, even before the withdrawal of the Japanese troops, to proceed to that place and transact their official business. The date of their departure is to be determined, as soon as possible after the definite conclusion of this Treaty, by the Japanese Minister to China in consultation with the Waiwupu. As there is still in that place a considerable number of Japanese troops, quarantine regulations as well as regulations for the prevention of contagious diseases, shall be established by the authorities of the two countries in consultation with each other so that epidemics may be avoided.

16. The revenue of the Maritime Customs at Yingkou shall be deposited with the Yokohama Specie Bank and delivered to the Chinese local authorities at the time of evacuation. As to the revenue of the native Customs at that place and the taxes and imposts at all other places, which are to be appropriated for local expenditures, a statement of receipts expenditures shall be delivered to the Chinese local authorities at the time of evacuation.

DECLARATION ON THE ABOLITION OF EXTRATERRITORIALITY IN MANCHOUKUO, AUGUST 9, 1935

1. It was made clear in the Imperial Rescript issued in March, 1933, in connection with our decision to withdraw from the League of Nations, and also in the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol signed on September 15, 1932, that Japan's policy toward Manchoukuo is based on the principle of enabling that country to make wholesome progress as an independent state, while maintaining an inseparable and interdependent relationship with this country, thus advancing our national policy: to preserve the stability of Eastern Asia and to make known throughout the world our devotion to justice and righteousness.

Now, Manchoukuo has made steady and brilliant progress ever since its establishment. Internally, it has pursued constructive programmes along all lines—political, economic, administrative,—while externally it has striven to win the respect and confidence of the Powers. In the matter of extraterritoriality, Manchoukuo, following Japan's example, has been preparing for its abolition by setting up a judicial system and by effecting reforms in various departments, such as police and taxation. In fact, more than ¥8,000,000 is set aside in the budget of the Empire for the fiscal year 1934 for such purposes.

2. Japan has for many years enjoyed the privileges of extraterritoriality in Manchuria. Prior to the establishment of Manchoukuo, extraterritoriality was essential to the development of Japanese interests there. But extraterritoriality is gradually losing its importance which diminishes with the progress of the abovementioned Japan's policy toward Man-

choukuo. Indeed, it is now necessary to abolish extraterritoriality in Manchoukuo if we are to afford that Empire free scope for development, establish a closer union and co-operation between our two peoples, make possible the general advancement of Japanese interests in all directions, and, finally, strengthen permanently the inseparable and friendly relations between the two countries. The South Manchuria Railway zone, acquired by us in consequence of a war with Russia on which we staked our national fortunes, has for the past thirty years been under our assiduous administration. It has served as the base of operations for Japanese activities in Manchouria. But it is now deemed necessary to adjust and transfer our administrative rights in that area for reasons involved in the abolition of extraterritoriality, in order to meet the new situation arising from the establishment of Manchoukuo.

3. For these reasons, at the Cabinet meeting of August 9th, the Japanese Government decided on the following general principles concerning the abolition of extraterritoriality and the adjustment and transfer of administrative rights in the South Manchuria Railway Zone, according to which the authorities concerned will be instructed to devise concrete measure and to put these gradually into effect.

a. Concerning extraterritoriality in Manchoukuo, its abolition should be effected in keeping with the spirit of the treaties in force, in gradual stages, and to accord with the degree of completion of the governmental systems and organs of Manchoukuo, but especially with a view to avoid any sudden and violent changes in the life of Japanese communities in Manchoukuo, to insure more securely for Japanese throughout that Empire facilities for residence and safety and free development, and, in particular, to facilitate the smooth operation of Japan's policy toward the Empire.

b. The South Manchuria Railway zone will, of course, be retained by Japan as heretofore. But the administrative rights exercised by Japan in the zone will be adjusted and transferred, according to circumstances, keeping step with the gradual abolition of extraterritoriality, under similar considerations as above.

4. It should be added that Japan's rights in the leased territory of Kwantung as quite different from those in the South Manchuria Railway zone in their legal origin, their character, and various other respects. Thus it goes without saying that adjustment and transfer of administrative rights in the South Manchuria Railway zone has no connection with Japan's rights in the Kwantung Leased Territory.

TREATY BETWEEN JAPAN AND MANCHOUKUO CONCERNING THE RESIDENCE OF JAPANESE SUBJECTS, TAXATION, ETC.

Signed at Hsinking, June 10, 1936

Whereas the Government of Japan, in accordance with the principle of the protocol between Japan and Manchoukuo signed on the 15th day of September of the 7th Year of Showa, for the purposes of furthering the healthy development of Manchoukuo and also of promoting and perpetuating the intimate and inseparable relation between Japan and Manchoukuo, decided to abolish, by progressive stages, the right of extraterritoriality at present enjoyed in Manchoukuo by Japan and to adjust and transfer the administrative rights over the South Manchuria Railway Zone; and

Whereas the Government of Manchoukuo, appreciating this decision by the Government of Japan, have, in return, recognized the necessity of ensuring and enhancing the common prosperity of Japanese and Manchoukuo subjects within the territories of Manchoukuo:

Now, therefore, with reference to the right of extraterritoriality and the administrative rights over the South Manchuria Railway Zone enjoyed in Manchoukuo by Japan, the Governments of Japan and of Manchoukuo have agreed as the first step as follows concerning the residence of and the enjoyment of various rights and interests by Japanese subjects, and the application of the laws and ordinances of Manchoukuo concerning taxation, industries, etc.

ARTICLE I

Japanese subjects shall be free within the territories of Manchoukuo to reside and travel and engage in agriculture, commerce and industry, and to pursue callings and professions, whether public or private, and shall also enjoy all the rights relating to land.

Japanese subjects shall not, in respect of the enjoyment of all rights and interests with the territories of Manchoukuo, be accorded less favourable treatment than that which is or may be accorded to the subjects of Manchoukuo.

ARTICLE II

Subject to the stipulations of the supplementary agreement to the present treaty, Japanese subjects shall be governed within the territories of Manchoukuo by the provisions of the administrative laws and ordinances of Manchoukuo concerning taxation, industries, etc.

The Japanese Government agree that, subject to the stipulations of the aforesaid agreement, the laws and ordinances of Manchoukuo mentioned in the preceding paragraph shall be in force with the South Manchuria Railway Zone on the principle of statutas realia.

In respect of the application of present Article, Japanese subjects shall not, under any circumstances, be accorded less favourable treatment than that which is or may be accorded to the subjects of Manchoukuo.

ARTICLE III

The stipulations of the preceding two Articles shall, in so far as they are applicable to juridical persons, apply to Japanese juridical persons.

ARTICLE IV

The stipulations of the present treaty shall not prejudice the rights, privileges, immunities and exemptions of particular Japanese subjects or juridical persons based on special engagements entered into between Japan and Manchoukuo.

ARTICLE V

The present treaty shall come into force on July, 1, the 11th Year of Showa, corresponding to the July 1, the 3rd Year of Kangtê.

ARTICLE VI

The present treaty has been drawn up in the Japanese and Chinese texts, and, should any difference in interpretation arise between the two texts, the Japanese text shall prevail.

In witness whereof, the undersigned, duly authorized by their respective Governments, have signed the present treaty and affixed their seals thereto.

Done at Hsinking, in duplicate, this 10th day of the sixth month of the 11th Year of Showa, corresponding to the 10th day of the sixth month of the 3rd Year of Kangtê.

(L.S.) Kenkichi Ueda,
Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of Japan to Manchoukuo.

(L.S.) Chang Yen-ching,
Minister for Foreign Affairs of Manchoukuo.

Appended to the treaty is the following supplementary agreement:

Supplementary Agreement to the Treaty between Japan and Manchoukuo concerning the Residence of Japanese Subjects, Taxation, Etc., Manchoukuo:

In signing today the treaty between Japan and Manchoukuo concerning the residence of Japanese subjects, taxation, etc., in Manchoukuo, the respective plenipotentiaries of the two countries have agreed as follows:

ARTICLE I

The Government of Manchoukuo shall speedily take necessary steps in order that the rights of lease by negotiation hitherto possessed by Japanese subjects shall, in accordance with the different natures of such rights, be converted into landownership or other rights relating to land, as the case may be.

ARTICLE II

The scope of the administrative laws and ordinances of Manchoukuo concerning taxation, industries, etc., which govern Japanese subjects under Article 2 of the treaty and the manner of application thereof, shall previously be decided upon by consultation between the Japanese Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Manchoukuo and the Minister for Foreign Affairs of Manchoukuo.

In case the Government of Manchoukuo intend to make any important alterations in respect of the laws and ordinances of Manchoukuo which govern Japanese sub-

jects under the stipulations of the preceding paragraph, they shall, until such time as Japanese subjects come within the jurisdiction of the law courts of Manchoukuo, obtain the previous approval of the Japanese Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Manchoukuo.

The laws and ordinances of Manchoukuo, whereon a decision by consultation shall be made immediately after the coming into force of the treaty in accordance with the stipulations of the first paragraph of this Article, shall in the main be confined to laws and ordinances relating to the land tax, immovable-property contract tax, business tax, juridical person's business tax, crop-output tax, timber tax, mining registration tax, alcoholic drinks tax, cigarette tax, consolidated taxes, commercial registration tax, patent registration tax, utility-model registration tax and local taxes; and to administrative laws and ordinances relating to industrial property, weights and measures, measurement, mining, markets, stock-farming, finance and monopoly.

In levying upon Japanese subjects the business tax and juridical person's business tax of the various taxes enumerated in the preceding paragraph and the house tax and household income tax in the category of local taxes, the Government of Manchoukuo shall, for the time being after the coming into force of the treaty, apply reduced rates in accordance with a decision to be previously made by consultation between the Japanese Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Manchoukuo and the Minister for Foreign Affairs of Manchoukuo; and, of local taxes, the additional business tax shall be based on the amount of tax assessed at such reduced rates. It is provided that the reduced rates to be applied immediately after the coming into force of the treaty shall be one-fourth the original rates in respect of the business tax, household income tax and the house tax levied on individuals, and one-third of the orginal rates in respect of the juridical person's business tax and the house tax levied on juridical persons.

ARTICLE III

The application and execution, in respect of Japanese subjects, of the laws and ordinances of Manchoukuo, which govern Japanese subjects under Article 2 of the treaty, shall, in so far as such application and execution require judicial procedure, be effected by Japanese consular officers until such time as Japanese subjects come within the jurisdiction of the law courts of Manchoukuo.

In case referred to in the preceding paragraph, Japanese consular officers shall, subject to the general rules and principles of consular jurisdiction, apply the relevant laws and ordinances of Manchoukuo. It is provided that, of the punishments provided for in such laws and ordinances, 'yu-chi-tu-hsing' shall be regarded and applied as 'choeki' (imprisonment with hard labour) or 'kinko' (imprisonment without hard labour); 'chu-i' as 'cho-eki' (imprisonment with hard labour) 'kinko' (imprisonment without hard labour) or 'koryu' (detention), 'fa-chin' as 'bakkin' (fine) or 'karyo' (administrative penalty), and 'kuo-tai-chi,' as 'ka-ryo' (negligence penalty).

In case a fine, administrative penalty or negligence penalty is imposed or an article is confiscated, in accordance with the stipulations of this Article, the proceeds of such fine, administrative penalty and negligence penalty and the confiscated article shall come into the possession of the Treasury of the Government of Manchoukuo.

ARTICLE IV

In accordance with an agreement with the Government of Manchoukuo to be made separately from the present treaty, the Government of Japan shall abolish or transfer, not later than December 31, the 12th Year of Showa, corresponding to December 31, the 4th Year of Kangtê, the administrative police existing within the territories of Manchoukuo; and, of the laws and ordinances of Manchoukuo mentioned in Article 2 of the treaty, those which concern taxation and those which have a special bearing upon administrative police within the South Manchuria Railway Zone shall not, until the aforesaid abolish or transfer of administrative police within the territories of Manchoukuo is effected, be put in force within the said zone. The scope of those laws and ordinances of Manchoukuo which, as above referred to, have a special bearing upon administrative police within the South Manchuria Railway Zone shall previously be decided upon by consultation between the Japanese Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Manchoukuo and the Minister for Foreign Affairs of Manchoukuo.

The Government of Manchoukuo shall, in view of the stipulations of the preced-

ing paragraph, perfect their police system and make the preparations necessary for taking over the Japanese institutions and staffs concerned.

Untile the transfer of administrative police within the South Manchuria Railway Zone is effected and, in order to ensure the equality of the incidence of taxation upon Japanese subjects residing within and without the said zone the Japanese Government shall levy within this zone, from the date of the coming into force of the treaty, taxes which are as far as possible the same as the national taxes imposed by Manchoukuo upon Japanese subjects.

The Government of Manchoukuo shall not levy local taxes within the South Manchuria Railway Zone until after the institutions of the South Manchuria Railway Company concerning public works, education, sanitation, etc., existing within the said zone shall have been disposed of in accordance with an agreement to be reached between the Government of Japan and Manchoukuo apart from the present treaty.

ARTICLE V

Simultaneously with the coming into force within the South Manchuria Railway Zone of the laws and ordinances of Manchoukuo under Article 2 of the treaty, the Government of Manchoukuo shall take over, in the condition then existing, the Japanese institutions and staffs concerned, in accordance with a decision to be previously made by consultation between the Japanese Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Manchoukuo and the Minister for Foreign Affairs of Manchoukuo.

ARTICLE VI

If any Japanese subject makes a complaint against the administrative measures taken by the competent authorities of Manchoukuo with reference to the laws and ordinances of Manchoukuo which govern Japanese subjects under Article 2 of the treaty, the Government of Manchoukuo shall take appropriate steps to redress the grievance.

ARTICLE VII

Matters which have been decided upon by consultation between the Japanese Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Manchoukuo and the Minister for Foreign Affairs of Manchoukuo, and also matters in respect of which the approval of the said Japanese Ambassador has been obtained by the Government of Manchoukuo, in accordance with the stipulations of the present agreement, shall each be made known in the Official Gazettes of Japan and Manchoukuo.

ARTICLE VIII

The present agreement shall come into force simultaneously with the treaty.

In witness whereof, the Plenipotentiaries of Japan and of Manchoukuo have signed this agreement and affixed their seals thereto.

Attached is also the following:

Agreed Terms of Understanding between the Plenipotentiaries of Japan and of Manchoukuo, with Reference to the Treaty Between the Two Countries concerning the Residence of Japanese Subjects, Taxation, Etc., in Manchoukuo, also to the Supplementary Agreement to that Treaty:

I. Ad Article 1 of the treaty:

In case a Japanese subject desires to acquire any right concerning land in an unopened Mongol region, he shall be required to obtain the permission of the competent authorities of Manchoukuo.

II. Ad Article 2 of the treaty:

1. In view of the fact that within the territories of Manchoukuo Japanese communities are carrying on educational work for Japanese subjects, the Government of Manchoukuo shall, in accordance with a decision to be made by consultation between the Japanese Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Manchoukuo and the Minister for Foreign Affairs of Manchoukuo, pay each year a share of the expenses of educational work for Japanese subjects within the territories of Manchoukuo.

2. The Government of Manchoukuo shall further improve the existing system of taxation.

3. The Government of Manchoukuo shall, in applying the laws and ordinances of Manchoukuo which govern Japanese subjects under Article 2 of the treaty, take the steps necessary for the protection of the rights or interests which Japanese subjects now enjoy under the laws and ordinances of Japan, or by usage.

III. Ad Article 4 of the supplementary agreement to the treaty:

The imposition and collection of consumption tax on articles produced within and consumed without the South Man-

churia Railway Zone, and also on articles produced without and consumed within the said zone, shall be decided upon by consultation between the competent authorities of Japan and of Manchoukuo.

AGREEMENT CONCERNING THE TRANSFER OF THE NORTH MANCHURIA RAILWAY

Signed in Tokyo, March 23, 1935

ARTICLE I

The Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics shall cede to the Government of Manchoukuo all the rights they possess concerning the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway), in consideration of which the Government of Manchoukuo shall pay to the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics the sum of one hundred and forty million (140,000,000) yen in Japanese currency.

ARTICLE II

All the rights of the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics concerning the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) shall pass to the Government of Manchoukuo up onthe coming into force of the present Agreement, and at the same time the North Manchouria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) shall be placed under the complete occupation and the sole management of the Government of Manchoukuo.

ARTICLE III

1 Upon the coming into force of the present Agreement, the senior members of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) who are citizens of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics shall be released from their duties. The said senior members of the administration of the Railway shall hand over all the archives, records, papers and documents of whatever description in their charge to their respective successors in the new administration of the Railway.

It is understood that the term the "senior members of the administration of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway)" employed in the present Article indicates:

(A) All the members of the Board of Directors and of the Audit committee.

(B) The general manager and assistant manager of the Administration.

(C) The assistant chief controller.

(D) All the managers and submanagers of the Departments of the Board of Directors, the Audit Committee, the Control and the Administration. All agents for commission, engineers for commission. All the senior agents, advisers and chiefs of the sections and sub-sections.

2 With the aim of ensuring the normal functioning of the Railway, the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics agree to place at the disposal of the new administration the following persons from among the senior members of the administration of the Railway who are citizens of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics as advisers for one month from the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement:

(A) The general manager of the Administration.

(B) The manager of General Affairs Office of the Administration.

(C) The manager of the Motive Power Department of the Administration.

(D) The chief of the Financial Department of the Administration.

(E) The manager of the Commercial Department of the Administration.

3 At any time after the coming into force of the present Agreement, the Government of Manchoukuo may dismiss any or all of the following persons;

(A) All the chiefs of railway sections, stations and depots.

(B) The chiefs of all the following auxiliary enterprises of the Railway:

a Forest concession and lumbering.
b Coalmines.
c Power stations.
d Printing plant.
e Auxiliary enterprises of the Commercial Department.
f Nursery and green-houses in Harbin.
g Main workshops of the Ways Department.
h Wool-washing works and hydro-loading works.
i Water works in Harbin.
j Soft-drinks factory.
k Saw-mill.

l Gradations of beans.
m Waste-cleaning works.
n Grand Hotel.
o Health-resorts and sanatoria.
p Hospitals and clinics.
q Library.
r Economic Bureau.

4 The persons referred to in Section 1 of the present Article shall have the right to remain in Manchoukuo and to retain their railway lodgings for one month after the coming into force of the present Agreement.

The persons referred to in Section 2 of the present Article shall have the right to remain in Manchoukuo and to retain their railway lodgings for two months after the coming into force of the present Agreement.

Those persons who have been dismissed by virtue of Section 3 of the present Article shall have the right to receive their regular salary for one month from the date of their dismissal. They shall have the right to remain in Manchoukuo and to retain railway lodgings for two months from the date of their dismissal.

ARTICLE IV

The Government of Manchoukuo shall succeed to the assets and liabilities of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) in accordance with the list of assets and liabilities of the Railway as on December 31st, 1933, presented by the Delegation of the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics on March 22nd, 1934, to the Delegation of the Government of Manchoukuo through the Minister for Foreign Affairs of Japan, as supplemented by the lists which were made on March 17th and March 21st, 1935, in order to show the changes sustained by the assets and liabilities included in the first list from the date of the first list up to the date of the last list and also to show the new assets and liabilities which have arisen on and after January 1st, 1934.

It is agreed that the provisions of Section 4, Article IX of the Agreement on General Principles for the Settlement of the Questions between the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the Republic of China signed at Peking on May 31st, 1924, and those of Section 3, Article I of the Agreement between the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the Government as the Autonomous Three Eastern Provinces of the Republic of China signed at Mukden on September 20th, 1924, shall remain in force.

ARTICLE V

The Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics shall have the right to maintain the following property for the use of their Consulate General in Harbin in the form of a permanent and rent-free lease:

a The land and buildings now occupied by the said Consulate General:

Locality: Yio-Ching-Kai, Chin-Chia-Kang.
Area: 14,873.68 square metres.
Buildings:
Office, No. 1049; 2,174.90 square metres.
Residence, No. 1047; 685.37 square metres.
Residence, No. 1048; 1,447.61 square metres.
Garage and its annex, No. 1051; 245.88 square metres.
Guard-room, No. 1052; 38.90 square metres.

b The land and building now occupied by the officials of the said Consulate General:

Locality: Hai-Cheng-Kai, Chin-Chia-Kang.
Area: 2,530 square metres.
Building: No. 334; 258.51 square metres.

The following property shall be leased rent-free and sine die to the Consul General of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in Harbin on the day of the coming into force of the present Agreement, and shall immediately thereafter be placed and remain under the occupation and management of the community of the citizens of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in Harbin to be used solely for the purposes prescribed hereunder:

a The IVth School of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway), situated at No. 35, Shang-Wu-Kai, Tao-Li, Harbin, with all the buildings and property to be found there, to be used for the elementary and secondary education of the said community.

b The land known under No. 949, at the corner of Kao-Shi-Kai and Ching-Cha-Kai, Tao-Li, Harbin, with all the buildings on it, which are to be used in the future as a hospital.

Within one month from the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement, a library shall be selected, for the use of the above-mentioned IVth School, from the books of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) Library in Harbin, by mutual agreement between the local authorities of Manchoukuo and the Consul General of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in Harbin.

The books so selected shall be transferred to the said School.

ARTICLE VI

The properties occupied by the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) which are claimed by the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics as belonging to them and not to the Railway, and the properties existing in the territory of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics which are claimed by the Government of Manchoukuo as belonging to the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway), are regarded as having been mutually renounced by respective Governments in favour of the other Government, and neither Government shall in future raise against the other Government any demand concerning the said properties.

The above provisions shall not apply to the properties (buildings and their sites and other railway properties) of the Transbaikal Railway now existing at Manchuli, and the properties of the Ussuri Railway now existing at Suifenho, which are actually occupied respectively by the said two Railways and shall remain their property under their management.

ARTICLE VII

Out of the sum of one hundred and forty million (140,000,000) yen in Japanese currency referred to in Article I of the present Agreement, the sum of forty-six million seven hundred thousand (46,700,000) yen shall be paid in cash in accordance with the provisions of Article VIII of the present Agreement, and the settlement for the remaining sum of ninety-three million three hundred thousand (93,3000,-000) yen shall be effected in the form of payments made by the Government of Manchoukuo for goods delivered to the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in accordance with the provisions of Article IX of the present Agreement.

ARTICLE VIII

Out of the sum of forty-six million seven hundred thousand (46,700,000) yen to be paid in cash in accordance with the provisions of Article VII of the present Agreement, the sum of twenty-three million three hundred thousand (23,300,000) yen shall be paid simultaneously with the signing of the present Agreement.

The remaining sum of twenty-three million four hundred thousand (23,400,000) yen as well as the simple interest at the rate of three per cent per annum is to be paid by the Government of Manchoukuo to the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in the form of the Treasury Bonds of the Government of Manchoukuo. The said Treasury Bonds are to be issued of the following amounts and mature on the dates indicated hereunder: six million three hundred and seventy-six thousand five hundred (6,376,-500) yen maturing on December 23rd, 1935; six million two hundred and forty-four thousand eight hundred and seventy-five (6,244,875) yen maturing on September 23rd, 1936; six million one hundred and thirteen thousand two hundred and fifty (6,113,250) yen maturing on June 23rd, 1937; five million nine hundred and eighty-one thousand six hundred and twenty-five (5,981,625) yen maturing on March 23rd, 1938. The Treasury Bonds of the Government of Manchoukuo mentioned above are to be issued in favour of the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and are to be delivered by the Representative of the Government of Manchoukuo to the Representative of the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics simultaneously with the signing of the present Agreement, and shall be paid at the Industrial Bank of Japan, Ltd.

In case the exchange rate of the yen in terms of the Swiss franc calculated on the basis of the respective exchange rates of the yen and the Swiss franc in London on the day before the date of payment of any of the second and subsequent instalments provided for in the present Article should be lower or higher by eight per cent or more in comparison with exchange rate of the yen in terms of the Swiss franc as calculated on the basis of the respective exchange rates of the yen and the Swiss franc in London of the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement, the amount of the said instalment shall be increased or decreased, as the case may be, so that the value in Swiss francs of the instalment shall be the same as it is on the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement.

In case the present gold parity of the Swiss franc (one Swiss franc being equivalent to nine thirty-firsts of one gramme of fine gold) should be altered or in case the convertibility of the Swiss franc into gold should be suspended, the following method shall be adopted in place of the method provided for in the preceding

paragraph.

In case the weight of fine gold whose value, when calculated on the basis of the price of gold and the exchange rate of the yen in London on the day before the date of payment of any of the second and subsequent instalments provided for in the present Article, is equal to the instalment, should be less or more by eight per cent or more in comparison with the weight of fine gold whose value, when calculated on the basis of the price of gold and the exchange rate of the yen in London on the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement, is equal to the said instalment, the amount of the instalment shall be increased or reduced, as the case may be, so that the value in fine gold of the instalment shall be the same as it is on the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement.

ARTICLE IX

The settlment for the sum of ninety-three million three hundred thousand (93,300,000) yen, to be effected in the form of payments made by the Government of Manchoukuo for the goods delivered to the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, as provided for in Article VII of the present Agreement, shall be executed in the following manner:

1 The Trade Representation of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in Japan will make contracts for the purchase of goods produced or manufactured in Manchoukuo or Japan, with the subjects or juridical persons of either of these two countries, up to the sum of ninety-three million three hundred thousand (93,300,000) yen indicated in Article VII within the period of six months from the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement. The delivery of the goods thus purchased shall be effected to the Trade Representation in Japan by the above-mentioned subjects or juridical persons within the period of three years from the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement in accordance with the terms of the contracts concerned, it being understood that the goods so delivered in the course of each of the six equal periods of six months constituting the said three years shall not exceed in value the sum of thirty-one million one hundred thousand (31,100,000) yen and that the total amount of the goods delivered in the course of each of the three equal periods of the year constituting the said three years shall not exceed in value the sum of thirty-one million one hundred thousand (31,100,00) yen.

2 The terms of payment for the goods shall be arranged in such a way that for each such period of six months in the course of the said three years the Government of Manchoukuo shall make payment not exceeding the sum of fifteen million five hundred and fifty thousand (15,550,000) yen for the delivery of the goods mentioned in the foregoing Section and in case any balance of that sum shall for any reason remain unpaid at the end of any such period of six months, such balance shall be paid off during the next six months and so on, so that the whole sum of ninety-three million three hundred thousand (93,300,000) yen shall be paid off by the end of the said three years.

3 It it agreed that should the above-mentioned contracts not be concluded within the period of six months after the coming into force of the present Agreement, the Trade Representation shall have the right to make such contracts after the expiration of the said period of six months, and further that, should any of the parties other than the Trade Representation to the contracts concluded in accordance with the foregoing provisions of the present Article fail to carry out such contracts or to fulfil such contracts in a proper manner for which reason these contracts are abrogated, the Trade Representation shall in each case have the right to conclude fresh contracts with other subjects or juridical persons of Manchoukuo or Japan, in which case the latter contracts may provide for the payment for and the delivery of the goods to be effected after the three years' term above mentioned.

4 The contracts in the present Article shall be concluded either c.i.f. or f.o.b. at the choice of the Trade Representation and shall provide for payments in case for goods by the Government of Manchoukuo.

5 When the Trade Representation have concluded a contract for the purchase of goods with the subjects or juridical persons of Manchoukuo or Japan, the Trade Representation shall give the Financial Attaché to the Legation of Manchoukuo in Japan a résumé of the contract, mentioning the names of the parties to the contract, the description, place of origin and quantity of the goods, to be paid, the date and place of delivery of the goods and of the payment therefor, as well as any other terms of the payment and delivery, including any provisions for payment in advance, The said résumé

shall be attested by both parties to the contract. Besides this, so far as circumstance permit, certificates of origin issued by any chamber of commerce and industry in Manchoukuo or Japan in respect of the goods, or by any other organization authorized to issue such certificates by the Government of either of these two countries, shall be presented to the Financial Attaché by the seller of the goods.

The Financial Attaché, upon receipt of the résumé of the contract, provided its contents do not conflict with the provisions of the present Article, shall notify, not later than within seven days thereafter, the Trade Representation and the seller of the goods concerned to the effect that the Government of Manchoukuo undertake to effect payment for the goods in conformity with the said résumé of the contract.

For the purpose of obtaining a settlement of his accounts the seller of the goods shall hand to the Trade Representation the document entitling the Trade Representation to dispose of the said goods (bill of lading, invoice etc.).

The Financial Attaché, upon receipt of the notification given by the Trade Representation to the effect that the delivery of the goods referred to in the résumé of the contract has been accomplished, shall issue a cheque to order drawn with the Industrial Bank of Japan, Ltd. as payer, the seller of the goods as payee and the price of the goods as its face amount, and shall deliver it to the seller on the date of payment, and, in case the presentation of the certificates of origin of the goods above referred to shall have been prevented at the time of presentation of the résumé of the contract, against such certificates. The seller of the goods shall give a receipt for the said cheque. Payment in advance to the seller of the goods may be effected in a similar manner by the Financial Attaché in conformity with the résumé of the contract against the advice of the Trade Representation to the effect that such payment shall be made.

6 It is understood that in the present Article the term "goods manufactured in Manchoukuo or Japan" indicates goods manufactured within either of the said two countries from raw materials imported from any other countries as well as from raw materials produced in either and that the term "juridical persons of Manchoukuo or Japan" indicates the juridical persons which are or may be incorporated in accordance with the law of Manchoukuo or Japan respectively.

ARTICLE X

1 Three month's notice shall be given to each of the employees of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway), other than those included in the provisions of Article III of the present Agreement, who are citizens of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and whom Government of Manchoukuo may desire to dismiss from reasons of convenience on the part of the Government of Manchoukuo after the coming into force of the present Agreement.

2 Employees of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) who are citizens of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and who may be dismissed shall have the right to remain in Manchoukuo for two months after their dismissal in order to dispose of their personal affairs.

3 Employees of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) who are citizens of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics shall continue in the full enjoyment of their rights in movable and immovable property in accordance with the laws of Manchoukuo.

4 Employees of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) who are citizens of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics shall enjoy the full right to dispose of their property in accordance with the laws of Manchoukuo and to carry their property out of Manchoukuo either in its original form or in its money equivalent in any foreign currency.

5 Employees of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway), who are citizens of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and who have retired through dismissal or of their own accord and who leave for the territory of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics within two months after their retirement, shall be granted the privilege of free transport over the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) for themselves, their families, and their personal and household effects either to the station of Manchuli or to the station of Suifenho, at their own option.

ARTICLE XI

1 The various descriptions of retiring allowances and payments—(discharge allowances and other sums due to employees in respect of service on the Railway, employees' savings in the Relief Savings Association and the payments

additional thereto on the part of the Railway including interest, pensions and block grants in accordance with the regulations of the Relief Savings Association, as well as pensions and compensations for personal injuries according to the "Regulations of 1912 relating to the indemnification of persons who have met with accidents")—to employees of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) who are citizens of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and who may be dismissed or may retire of their own accord after the coming into force of the present Agreement, so far as such allowances and payments are in respect of the period before the coming into force of the present Agreement, shall be individually reckoned and paid out in accordance with the regulations of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) in force up to the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement, as modified by the provisions of the present Article.

Note. Discharge allowances for the period up to November 11th, 1930, are to be paid according to the rates existing up to November 11th, 1930.

2 Employees who are citizens of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and who are dismissed or retire of their own accord after the coming into force of the present Agreement shall be considered as employees who have been dismissed as the result of the abolition of offices, so far as concerns the calculation of the various descriptions of retiring allowances and payments.

3 Discharge allowances and other payments relative to service concerning the Railway, and compensations for injuries sustained in such service, as well as savings and the prescribed interest thereon, shall be paid within a fortnight from the day of dismissal or retirement, provided that in respect of persons who shall be dismissed, half the amount of such savings shall be paid within two months from the date of the notice of such dismissal.

The block grants to persons who have been in the service of the Railway for less than ten years as well as payments additional to savings together with the prescribed interest thereon shall be paid in four equal instalments within two years from the date of dismissal or retirement. The first instalment shall be paid within a fortnight, and the second instalment at the end of a year after the date of dismissal or retirement, and the third and the fourth instalments shall be paid at the end respectively of six and twelve months after the payment of the second instalment. As regards the last three of these instalments, the Government of Manchoukuo shall issue bonds for the amounts due drawn up in the name of the respective persons and maturing on the dates prescribed above. These bonds shall be delivered to the respective recipients simultaneously with the payment of the first instalment above referred to and shall not be transferred thereafter to any other person.

Persons who have been in the service of the Railway for ten years or more shall be deemed entitled to pensions without undergoing the examination of their working efficiency, and the said pensions, instead of being paid annually, shall be paid in a block grant, that is to say, a sum eight and a half times the sum payable annually in respect of a pension shall be paid to the recipient in four equal instalments in the course of two years, in accordance with the provisions of the preceding paragraph.

Note. 1 The examination of the working efficiency of employees who have been in the service of the Railway for less than ten years will be effected according to the regulations of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) in force up to the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement.

Note. 2 Pensions for personal injuries, instead of being paid annually, shall be paid in block grants, that is to say, a sum eight and a half times the sum payable annually shall be paid to the recipients in the same manner as for persons who have been in the service of the Railway for ten years or more.

4 Employees of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) who are in debt to the Railway shall have the sum of their indebtedness deducted from the various descriptions of retiring allowances and other payments due to them.

5 The various descriptions of retiring allowances and payments shall be paid in the currency of Manchoukuo at the exchange rate against the rouble of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railwey (existing at the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement and applied by the said Railway for settlements with their employees. The recipients of these retiring allowances and payments shall be allowed to remit the money they have received to other countries after having converted it into foreign currency.

6 The various descriptions of retiring allowances and payments and the bonds of the Government of Manchoukuo shall be paid or delivered to the legal recipients direct, but persons who have returned to the territory of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics can empower the Consul General of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in Harbin or any other person to receive them. Persons who have given such authority shall at the same time inform the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) to that effect.

7 Those persons who have retired before the coming into force of the present Agreement and are now being paid pensions shall continue to receive the pensions as previously in accordance with the regulations of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) in force up to the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement, irrespective of whether the said regulations shall remain in force, be modified or abrogated thereafter. In this case Section 5 of the present Article shall be applied as regards the exchange rate against the rouble of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway), and, in case the legal recipients should be returning or should have returned to the territory of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, as regards remittances to other countries.

8 The sums which are to be paid out by the Administration or the Relief Savings Association of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) to employees who are citizens of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and of which neither the legal recipients nor their proxies or successors have demanded payment up to the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement, shall be disposed of in accordance with the regulations of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) in force up to the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement.

9 Employees who have been dismissed or have retired after the coming into force of the present Agreement shall, during a period of one month from the date of their dismissal or retirement, retain their full rights with regard to their railway lodgings under the same conditions as before.

ARTICLE XII

It is understood that the term "North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway)" includes all the rights, enterprises and properties appurtenant thereto.

ARTICLE XIII

The Governments of Manchoukuo and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, with a view to promote and facilitate the intercourse and traffic between the two countries, shall conclude, within three months from the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement, a separate agreement, which will provide for the settlement of questions concerning the conveyance of passengers, luggage and goods in transit, direct service for passengers, luggage and goods between railway stations of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and those of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway), and also, technical conditions permitting, direct services without reloading of goods between the Ussuri Railway and the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) via the station of Suifenho.

Within the period of the said three months, the two Governments shall conclude another separate agreement which will provide for telegraphic connection between the telegraphic lines hitherto operated by the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) and those of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

ARTICLE XIV

The present Agreement shall come into force on the date of its signature.

NOTE GIVEN BY KOKI HIROTA, JAPANESE FOREIGN MINISTER, TO CONSTANTIN YOURENEFF, THE RUSSIAN AMBASSADOR TO JAPAN

Tokyo, March 23, 10 Showa (1935)

Monsieur l'Ambassadeur,

As the result of the guarantee given this day by the Japanese Government to the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics regarding the fulfilment by the Government of Manchoukuo of all the obligations of payment which the latter are under in favour of the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in accordance with the provisions of the Agreement for the Cession to Manchoukuo of the Rights of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics concerning the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway), signed this day by the Plenipotentiaries of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and Manchoukuo, I have the honour to inform Your Excellency as follows:

In case any difficulties should arise in connection with the execution of payments on the part of the Government of Manchoukuo, the Japanese Government will make every effort necessary under the given circumstances in order that the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics may receive all the payments due to them from the Government of Manchoukuo wholly and within the respective limits of time prescribed by the said Agreement, so that the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics may suffer absolutely no loss in connection with the said difficulties.

I avail myself, etc.

Koki Hirota

His Excellency Monsieur Constantin Youreneff.

ABKOMMEN GEGEN DIE KOMMUNISTISCHE INTERNATIONALE ZUWISCHEN JAPAN UND DEUTSCHLAND

(November 25, 1936)

Die regierung des Deutschen Reiches und die Kaiserlich-Japanese Regierung.

In der Erkenntnis, dass das Ziel der Kommunistischen Internationale, Komintern genannt, die Zersetzung und Vergewaltigung der bestehenden Staaten mit allen zu Gebote stehenden Mitteln ist,

In der Überzeugung, dass die Duldung einer Einmischung der Kommunistischen Internationale in die inneren Verhältnisse der Nationen nicht nur deren inneren Frieden und soziales Wohlleben gefährdet, sondern auch den Weltfrienden uberhaupt bedroht,

Sind in dem Wunsche, gemeinsam zur Abwehr gegen die kommunistische Zersetzung zusammenzuarbeiten, in folgendem übereingekommen:

ARTIKEL I Die Hohen Vertragschliessenden Staaten kommen überein, sich gegenseitig über die Tätigkeit der Kommunistischen Internationale zu unterrichten, über die notwendigen Abwehrmassnahmen zu beraten und diese in enger Zusammenarbeit durchzuführen.

ARTIKEL II Die Hohen Vertragschliessenden Staaten werden dritte Staaten, deren innerer Friede durch die Zersetzungsarbeit der Kommunistischen Internationale bedroht wird, gemeinsam einladen, Abwehrmassnahmen im Geiste dieses Abkommens zu ergreifen oder an diesem Abkommen teilzunehmen.

ARTIKEL III Für dieses Abkommen gelten sowohl der deutsche wie auch der japanische Text als Urschrift. Es tritt am Tage der Unterzeichnung in Kraft und gilt für die Dauer von fünf Jahren. Die Hohen Vertragschliessenden Staaten werden sich rechtzeitig vor Ablauf dieser Frist über die weitere Gestaltung ihrer Zusammenarbeit verständigen.

ZUSATZPROTOKOLL ZUM ABKOMMEN GEGEN DIE KOMMUNISTISCHE INTERNATIONALE.

Anlässlich der heutigen Unterzeichnung des Abkommens gegen die Kommunistische Internationale sind die Bevollmächtigten in folgendem übereingekommen:

(a) Die zuständigen Behörden der beiden Hohen Vertragschliessenden Staaten werden in bezug auf den Nachrichtenaustausch über die Tätigkeit der Kommunistischen Internationale sowie auf die Aufklärungs-und Abwehrmassnahmen gegen die Kommunistische Internationale in enger Weise zusammenarbeiten.

(b) Die zuständigen Behörden der beiden Hohen Vertragschliessenden Staaten werden im Rahmen der bestehenden Gesetze strenge Massnahmen gegen diejenigen ergreifen, die sich im Inland order Ausland direkt oder indirekt im Dienste der Kommunistischen Internationale betätigen oder deren Zersetzungsarbeit Vorschub leisten.

(c) Um die in (a) festgelegte Zusammenarbeit der zuständigen Behörden der beiden Hohen Vertragschliessenden Staaten zu erleichtern, wird eine ständige Kommission errichtet werden. In dieser Kommission werden die weiteren zur Bekämpfung der Zersetzungsarbeit der Kommunistischen Internationale notwendigen Abwehrmassnahmen erwogen und beraten.

ARRANGEMENT FOR MANCHOUKUO-GERMAN TRADE

Signed at Tokyo, April 30, 1936

The representatives of the competent authorities of Manchoukuo and Germany, having duly authenticated their powers, have, for the purpose of promoting the trade relations between the two countries, agreed as follows:

ARTICLE I

The German Administration of Foreign Exchange shall admit the importation of products of Manchoukuo to the amount of 100 million Yuan in value, calculated on the basis of c.i.f. prices, into Germany during the period of one year.

ARTICLE II

The payments in respect of the importation referred to in Article 1 shall be made as to three-fourths (75 million Yuan) in foreign exchange and as to one-fourth (25 million Yuan) in Reichsmarks, the latter to a special account at a bank designated by the authorities of Manchoukuo and to be utilized for the payments to be made in respect of products of Germany imported into Manchoukuo.

ARTICLE III

If, owing to unforeseen circumstances, the exchange situation in Germany should render it impossible for the German Administration of Foreign Exchange to make available foreign exchange to the amount of 75 million Yuan as provided for in Article 2 during the period of one year, the amount of importation provided for in Article 1 may be reduced to not less than 65 million Yuan in value, the payment of which shall be made as to three-fourths in foreign exchange and as to one-fourth in Reichsmarks.

In so far as the annual surplus of foreign exchange accruing to the Reichsbank from German trade with Japan during the period of one year exceeds the amount of 63,750,000 Yuan, such excess shall be made available for additional German importation from Manchoukuo payable in foreign exchange beyond the amount provided for in the preceding paragraph and the importation against payment in Reichsmarks shall be increased by one-third of such excess.

ARTICLE IV

The competent authorities of Manchoukuo shall take the necessary measures to ensure sufficient importation, calculated on the basis of c.i.f. prices, into Manchoukuo of products of Germany during the period of one year, to utilize the whole amount of Reichsmarks paid into a special account in accordance with Article 2 during the same period, which amount may be modified in accordance with Article 3.

ARTICLE V

Products of Germany shipped to Manchoukuo shall be accompanied by a copy of the invoice bearing a statement by the exporter to the effect that they are products of Germany and by a copy of the Export-Declaration through which the Reichsbank is notified by the exporter of the amount of the products invoiced in accordance with the German regulations for the control of foreign exchange. These documents shall be presented to the customs authorities of Manchoukuo. If the latter find any product of Germany unaccompanied by a copy of the Export-Declaration, they shall notify the authorities of Germany of the name of the exporter, the description of the products and the invoiced amount. The term "customs authorities of Manchoukuo" comprisee the customs authorities of Manchoukuo at Dairen, Seishin Rashin and Yuki.

ARTICLE VI

Products of Manchoukuo imported into Germany through a third country shall not fall under the present Arrangement, if the payments for such products are effected under a clearing or compensation agreement between Germany and such third country.

ARTICLE VII

Under the present Arrangement private clearing transactions in trade between Manchoukuo and Germany require the approval of the authorities of the two countries.

ARTICLE VIII

The amount of trade effected between

Manchoukuo and Germany shall be ascertained quarterly at Berlin by the competent representatives of the contracting parties. On such occasions questions arising out of the operation of Article 3 may be settled by consultation between the said representatives.

ARTICLE IX

If, at the end of the period of one year the present Arrangement is renewed and there exists in the total amount of imports from Manchoukuo to Germany or from Germany to Manchoukuo a deficit in or an excess over the amounts provided for in the present Arrangement, the amounts to be fixed for the following year shall be increased or decreased by the amount of such deficit or excess.

ARTICLE X

The organization of the special account in Reichsmarks referred to in Article 2 and the conditions of utilizing such account shall be determined by an agreement between the Reichsbank and the bank referred to in Article 2, which agreement shall be subject to the approval of the contracting parties.

ARTICLE XI

In so far as German exports to Manchoukuo are financed by banks, the competent authorities of Manchoukuo shall not take measures to prevent at least 25% of such financing from being handled by other banks than the bank referred to in Article 2.

ARTICLE XII

The amount of all transactions in the trade between Manchoukuo and Germany entered into prior to the coming into force of the present Arrangement shall be respectively included in the yearly amounts referred to in Articles 1 and 4, so far as payments resulting from such transactions are effected during the period of the present Arrangement.

ARTICLE XIII

For the purpose of the present Arrangement:

a. the term "period of one year" means one year beginning on the date of coming into force of the present Arrangement,

b. the term "products of Germany" means products either exclusively produced in Germany or subjected therein to an essential transformation effected in the course of an ultimate process which has an economic justification,

c. the term "products of Manchoukuo" means products either exclusively produced in Manchoukuo or subjected therein to an essential transformation effected as aforesaid, and,

d. products of the Leased Territory of Kwantung are regarded as products of Manchoukuo.

ARTICLE XIV

The present Arrangement shall come into force on the 1st June, 1936 and shall remain in force for one year from that date.

For the purpose of renewing the present Arrangement the contracting parties shall enter into negotiations not later than two months prior to the expiration thereof.

Done in Tokyo in duplicate, this 30th day of the fourth month of the 3rd year of Kangtê, corresponding to the 30th day of April, 1936.

CUSTOMS TARIFF LAW AMENDED AND REVISED TO JUNE, 1933

ARTICLE I Customs duties shall be levied upon articles imported from foreign countries in accordance with the annexed Tariff.

ARTICLE II Duties upon articles charged with ad valorem duty shall be levied on the value on arrival at the time of importation.

ARTICLE III With regard to articles, the produce or manufacture of territories not enjoying the benefit of a conventional arrangement, a benefit not exceeding the limits stipulated in such arrangement may, if necessary, be extended to such articles by means of Imperial Ordinance, specifying the territory and articles concerned.

ARTICLE IV With regard to the produce or manufactures or exports of, or articles passing through a country where Japanese vessels, produce or maunfactures, or articles passing through Japanese

territory are subject to a less favourable treatment than the vessels, produce or manufactures of, or articles passing through other countries, such articles may be designated by Imperial Ordinance so that special duties, not exceeding in amount their value, may be imposed upon them, in addition to the duties enumerated in the annexed Tariff.

ARTICLE V With regard to articles benefitting from export bounties in foreign countries, duties corresponding in amount to such bounties may be levied on them by Imperial Ordinance, in addition to the duties enumerated in the annexed Tariff.

ARTICLE V-2 When any important industry in this country is in danger of being injuriously affected by the importation of articles for the purpose of dumping or by the dumping of imported articles, such articles may be designated in accordance with the provisions of Imperial Ordinance after investigation by the Dumping Investigation Committee, and on such articles may be imposed during a specified period of time duties not exceeding in amount their proper value, in addition to the duties enumerated in the annexed Tariff.

In case the articles designated according to the provisions of the foregoing paragraph have already been imported and are owned by or in the possession of a dumper or his agent, the additional duty mentioned in the said paragraph may be collected from such dumper or agent.

The additional duty stipulated in the preceding paragraph shall be collected in the same way as a national tax.

ARTICLE VI The import duty on rice, hulled or unhulled, may in case of a famine be reduced by Imperial Ordinance for a specified period to a rate not lower than forty sen per hundred kin.

ARTICLE VII The following articles shall be exempt from import duties:—

1 Articles for the use of the Imperial Household.
2 Articles belonging to a foreign ruler and his family and suite, visiting Japan.
3 Arms, ammunition, and explosives imported by the Army or the Navy.
4 Mineral oils for fuel imported by the Government.
4-b Mineral oils for direct use as fuel, with a specific gravity exceeding 0.904 at 15° C., provided such oils are imported under Government permission according to the provisions of an Ordinance.
5 Warships.
6 Articles for the personal use of foreign Ambassadors and Ministers and other envoys of similar standing accredited to Japan, and articles for the official use of foreign Embassies and Legations in Japan, with the exception of those belonging to countries which enforce restrictions upon the free entry of articles for the personal use of the Japanese Ambassador, Minister or such other envoy, or of articles for the official use of the Japanese Embassy or Legation. In the case of such countries a reciprocal arrangement shall be applied.
7 Articles for the personal use of the staff of the Embassies or Legations in Japan of countries where similar courtesy is extended to the staff of the Japanese Embassy or Legation, and articles for the official use of the Consulates in Japan of countries where similar courtesy is extended to the Japanese Consulates.
8 Decorations, medals and badges presented to persons resident in this country.
9 Records and other documents.
10 Articles that are imported for use as specimens or objects of reference in the schools, museums, commercial museums and other institutions maintained by the Government or a municipality, or in private schools designated by Ordinance, and for the importation of which permission of the Minister of Finance has been obtained.
11 Supplies contributed for the purpose of charity or relief, or articles contributed to orphan asylums, asylums for the old, charity hospitals and such other charity institutions and which are used for the direct purpose of charity.
11-b Articles of use for ceremony or worship contributed to a shrine, temple, church or chapel.
12 Articles of Government monopoly imported by the Government.
13 Samples of merchandise only fit for use as such.
14 Personal effects of travellers, and their professional tools and implements, which the Customs authorities consider proper in view of the personal status of such travellers.
15 Articles sent home by the Imperial military forces, warships, or official missions abroad.
16 Personal effects and household articles in transportation on account of the change of residence, provided

such effects and articles have already been used.

17 Exported articles which are reimported within five years unaltered in character and form from what they were at the time of exportation, excepting alcohol, alcoholic liquors, sugar, and those articles which had been exempted from import duty or granted a rebate under the provisions of Article VIII or Article IX.

18 Receptacles specified by Ordinance for containing exports and which are reimported, excepting such as had been exempted from import duty under the provisions of Article VIII.

19 Fish, shell-fish, mollusca, sea animals, sea weeds and other aquatic products caught or gathered by vessels which set out from Japan, and manufactures thereof of a simple process, provided they are imported by such vessels or vessels attached thereto.

20 Articles for ship's use delivered to warships and mercantile vessels bound for foreign countries, except those mentioned in Article X.

21 Wreckage and fittings of shipwrecked Japanese vessels.

22 Articles exported on vessels clearing from Japan but which are brought back owing to the wreckage of such vessels, except those articles which had been exempted from import duty or granted a rebate under the provisions of Article VIII or Article IX.

23 Animals for breeding and protective serum or vaccine against animal plague, imported by the State, Do, Fu, Ken or other public bodies, by industrial juridical persons designated by the Government, or by persons under permission of the Government.

ARTICLE VIII The following articles are exempted from import duty in case they are to be re-exported within one year from the date of their importation, but the deposit of security corresponding to the amount of duty may be required at the time of importation:—

1 Articles designated by Ordinance and which are imported to have work done upon them.

2 Receptacles of imported articles, designated by Ordinance.

2-b Articles to be used as receptacles of export goods and designated by Ordinance.

3 Articles imported for repair.

4 Articles imported for the purpose of scientific research.

5 Articles imported for trial.

6 Samples imported for the purpose of procuring orders.

6-b Articles imported as samples of workmanship.

7 Articles for use in public performances imported by travelling public entertainers visiting Japan.

8 Articles imported for exhibiting at an exposition competition or prize show, etc.

ARTICLE IX Import duties on materials to be used for manufacturing export articles designated by Ordinance, may be exempted or refunded, wholly or partly, according to the provisions of the Ordinance.

Import duties on materials to be used for manufacturing lead foil for packing tea, zinc sheet not exceeding 0.17 millimetre, or oil or oil-cake designated by Ordinance may be exempted or refunded wholly or partly, according to the provisions of the Ordinance.

In case import duties are exempted according to the provisions of the foregoing two paragraphs, the deposit of security corresponding to the amount of duties may be required at the time of importation.

Any person who obtains or attempts to obtain by fraud or other illegal means the refundment mentioned in the first or second paragraph of this Article, shall be dealt with according to the provisions of Article LXXV of the Customs Law.

ARTICLE X Iron or steel materials, equipments, parts of equipments, engines or parts of engines, which are to be used for shipbuilding or repair, and which are designated by Ordinance, may be exempted from import duties according to the provisions of the Ordinance.

ARTICLE XI The importation of the articles mentioned below is prohibited:—

1 Opium and utensils for smoking opium, excepting those imported by the Government.

2 Counterfeit, altered or imitation coins, paper money, bank-notes and negotiable papers.

3 Books, pictures, carvings and other articles, liable to injure public security or morals.

4 Articles wich infringe rights in patents, utility-models, designs and trademarks, and copyrights.

IMPORT TARIFF OF THE PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES[1]

N. B. In the column of Conventional Tariff, F. denotes France, I. Italy and C. China. Where the duty number is marked *, it means that the articles in question are subject to the provisions of the Luxury Tariff Law.

The extra colume for "Specific Duty etc.," is due to the fact that on June, 16, 1932, a law was passed providing that, with certain exceptions, "Specific duties . . . . . shall for the time being be assessed at the rate of 135 per cent." The figures in this extra column are calculated on this basis.

Tariff rates were amended by Law No. 37,1935 as follows: 1 Under the item "Artificial musk" in No. 220 two subdivisions were made as under: Musk xylol 100 kin ¥125.00 others Ad val. 35%; 2 Precious stones under N. 412 were also subdivided as under: Precious stones, Precious stones specifically shaped for use in machines or for engineering purposes Ad val. 5%, others Ad val. 10%; 3 Magnesium in No. 463 (2) was altered so as to be read "Magnesium and magnesium alloy"; 4 No. 620 was amended so as to be read: "Platinum, vanadium or catalyzers containing its chemical compound free of duty"; 5 No. 631 concerning vulcanized fibres was amended and is to be read as under:

Vulcanized fibres (rods, plates, sheets, tubes, etc.) 100 kin ¥26.00.

Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	GROUP I			
	Plants and Animals (living)			
1	Plants, twigs, stems, stalks and roots (for planting or grafting)		free	
2	Fungi for culture:			
	1. Saccharifying fungi, known as "Koji"	ad val.	20%	
	2. Other		free	
3	Horses	,,	5%	
4	Bulls, oxen and cows	,,	10%	
5	Sheep		free	
6	Goats		free	
7	Swine	,,	20%	
8	Poultry		free	
9	Fish, shellfish and mollusca:			
	1. Fry; shellfish or mollusca, seed and breeding, and roe		free	
	2. Other	,,	20%	
10	Bees		free	
10–2	Silkworms' eggs		free	
11	Animals, not otherwise provided for	,,	20%	
	GROUP II			
	Grains, Flours, Starches and Seeds			
12	Rice and paddy[1]	100 kin	1.00	1.35
13	Barley	,,	0.60	0.81

1 The rates are variable by order of the Government subject to the Commerce Adjustment and Safeguarding Law, for which see p. 437.

2 According to the provisions of Article II of the Rice Law, the import duty on rice and paddy shall be 2 yen per 100 kin up to December 31st, 1933 (Amended by Imperial Ordinance No. 378 of 1932).

Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
16	Wheat	,,	2.50	
17	Oats	,,	0.65	0.87
17-2	Millet, (Setaria italica or Setaria italica var. germanica, Panicum Crus galli var, Frumentaceum)	,,	0.50	0.67
18	Millet, "Kao-liang" (Andropogon vulgaris)	,,	1.00	
19	Indian corn	,,	1.70	
20	Buckwheat	,,	0.50	0.67
21	Beans and pease:			
	1. Soy beans	,,	0.70	0.94
	2. Red or white beans, small (Phaseolus subtrilobata)	,,	0.55	0.74
	6. Ground nuts:			
	A. Unshelled	,,	1.25	1.68
	B. Other	,,	1.80	2.48
22	Flours, meals or groats of grains, and starches:			
	1. Wheat flour	,,	4.30	
	2. Oatmeal	,,	9.55	12.89
	5. Corn starch	,,	2.30	3.10
23	Sesame seed	,,	0.50	0.67
25	Rapeseed and mustardseed	,,	0.85	1.14
26	Linseed		free	
27	Cotton seed		free	
29	Seeds of clover and other pasture grasses		free	

GROUP III

Beverages, Comestibles and Tobacco

*31	Vegetables, fruits and nuts:			
	1. Preserved with sugar, molasses, syrup or honey	100 kin including receptacles	12.70	17.14
	2. Other:			
	A. Vegetables			
	A-1. preserved in tin	,,	7.90	10.66
	A-2. preserved in bottle	,,	7.60	10.26
	A-3. preserved in jar	,,	1.95	2.63
	A-4. Other	ad val.	30%	
	B. Other:			
	B-1. preserved in tin	100 kin including receptacles	7.25	9.78
	Convention:—			
	Fruits preserved in tin			
	B-2. preserved in bottle	,,	8.50	11.47
	B-3. preserved in jar	,,	3.20	4.32
	B-4. Other:			
	a. Fresh fruits	100 kin	4.00	5.40
	Convention:—			
	Citrons			
	b. Dried fruits	,,	6.90	9.31
	c. Nuts	,,	7.85	10.59
	d. Other.	ad val.	30%	
31-2	Cocoanuts	100 kin	2.10	2.83
32	Tea:			

Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	1. Black tea	,,	88.10	118.93
	2. Black dust tea	,,	29.50	39.82
	3. Pouchong tea	,,	6.00	8.10
	4. Other	,,	10.60	14.31
34	Coffee:			
	1. In the bean	,,	15.10	20.38
	2. Other.	,,	25.10	33.88
35	Chicory and other coffee substitutes	ad val.	35%	
36	Cocoa (not sugared):			
	1. In the bean	100 kin	6.00	8.10
	2. Other	100 kin including receptacles	26.00	35.10
37	Pepper:			
	1. In the seed	100 kin	7.30	9.85
	2. Other	,,	24.60	33.21
38	Curry:			
	1. In powder	,,	25.20	34.02
	2. Other	ad val.	30%	
39	Mustard:			
	1. In powder	100 kin including receptacles	23.30	36.45
	2. Other	ad val.	30%	
40	Sugar:[1]			
	1. Under No. 11 Dutch standard	100 kin	2.50	3.37
	2. Under No. 22 Dutch standard	,,	3.95	5.33
	3. Other	,,	5.30	7.15
	Rock candy sugar, cube sugar, loaf sugar, and similar sugar	,,	7.40	9.99
42	Molasses:[1]			
	1. Containing not more than 60 % by weight of sugar calculated as cane sugar	,,	1.30	1.75
	2. Other	,,	2.50	3.37
*45	Confectioneries and cakes	100 kin including receptacles	32.00	43.20
46	Jams, fruit jellies and the like	,,	26.30	35.50
47	Biscuits (not sugared)	,,	20.40	27.54
48	Macaroni, vermicelli and the like	100 kin	8.80	11.88
49	Fruit-juices and syrups:			
	1. Fruits-juices (sugared) and syrups:			
	A. In bottle or tin	100 kin including receptacles	15.30	20.65
	B. Other	100 kin	10.70	14.44
	2. Other	100 kin including receptacles	11.00	14.85
50	Sauces:			
	1. In cask	100 kin	11.80	15.93
	2. Other	100 kin including receptacles	10.80	14.58

1 On sugar, molasses and syrups taken delivery of from the factories or bonded districts for the purpose of being consumed in the Empire, consumption tax shall be imposed.

Nos.	Articles	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
51	Vinegar	100 litres	18.00	24.30
52	Meats, poultry and game:			
	Preserved in tin, bottle or jar	ad val.	25%	
52-2	Fish, shellfish and mollusca:	,,	10–20%	
	Sardines in oil	100 kin	28.20	38.07
	Other	ad val.	20%	
53	Butter, artificial butter and ghee	100 kin	50.00	
54	Cheese	,,	39.30	53.05
55	Condensed milk:			
	1. Dried	100 kin including receptacles	25.00	
	2. Other	,,	15.70	
56	Infant foods	,,	24.30	32.80
57	Meat extract	,,	86.80	117.18
*60	Mineral waters, soda water, and similar beverages, not containing sugar or alcohol	100 litres	16.00	21.60
*63	Beer, ale, porter and stout	,,	16.40	22.14
64	Wines, including port, sherry, vermouth, madeira, marsala, St. Raphael, etc.:			
	In bottle	,,	81.90	110.56
65	Champagne and other sparkling wines	,,	170.00	229.50
66-2	Salt		free	
68	Tobacco:			
	Cigars, cigarettes and cut tobacco	ad val.	355%	

GROUP IV

Skins, Hairs, Bones, Horns, Teeth, Tusks, Shells and Manufactures thereof

*70	Fur manufactures, not otherwise provided for	ad val.	50%	
*72	Leather:			
	1. A. Lacquered, japanned or enamelled:			
	a. Plain and black, tannin tanned	,,	40%	
	b. Other	,,	20%	
	B. Dyed or coloured, excluding roller leather	100 kin	145.00	195.75
	C-1, a. Sole leather: Back, bend, butt, strip	,,	27.10	36.58
	2. Of chamois including imitation chamois leather	,,	74.40	100.44
*73	Leather manufactures, not otherwise provided for:			
	Belts, belting and hoses, for machinery	,,	37.20	50.22
79	Bones, animal, excluding those for medicinal use		free	
86	Shell of mollusca		free	
87	Tortoise shells		free	
*91	Pearls	ad val.	5%	
92	Sponges	,,	20%	

Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	GROUP V			
	Oils, Fats, Waxes, and Manufactures thereof			
100	Ground nut oil	100 kin	4.60	6.21
101	Soy bean oil	,,	2.50	3.37
102	Cotton seed oil	,,	4.45	6.00
106	Cod-liver oil	ad val.	20%	
108	Animal fats:			
	1. Lard	100 kin	9.00	12.15
	2. Beef tallow	,,	1.20	1.62
112	Mineral oils:			
	1. Crude oil (including topping) and heavy oil (residual): Distillates to 275° C. by fractional distillation:			
	A. Not exceeding 20% by volume	100 American gallons	1.70	2.29
	B. Not exceeding 25% by volume	,,	2.05	2.76
	C. Not exceeding 30% by volume	,,	2.40	3.24
	D. Not exceeding 35% by volume	,,	2.75	3.71
	E. Not exceeding 40% by volume	,,	3.10	4.18
	F. Other	,,	3.45	4.65
	Note. — Those containing more than 45% are subject to an additional duty at the rate of 7 sen per 100 American gallons for every additional 1%		*	
	2. Other, including lubricating oils which contain animal and vegetable oils or fats, soap, etc.: The specific gravity at 15° C.:			
	A. Not exceeding 0.8762	100 American gallons	8.00	10.80
	B. Not exceeding 0.9218	,,	7.00	9.45
	C. Other	100 kin	1.60	2.16
113	Vaseline:			
	1. Each weighing not more than 1 kilogramme including receptacles	,,	15.90	21.46
	2. Other	,,	3.50	4.72
114	Paraffin wax:			
	1. Having melting point up to 45° C.:			

* The duty on articles under this category is equal to the sum of the general tariff and the additional duty for excess volume as mentioned above, multiplied by 135 per cent. in accordance with Law No. 4 of 1932. In assessing this duty, all fractional amounts less than one sen shall be discarded.

Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	A. In crude form, separated from shale oil		free	
	B. Other	,,	6.00	
	2. Other	,,	12.00	16.20
*117	Soaps:			
	1. Perfumed	100 kin including inner packings	28.60	38.61
	2. Other	100 kin	5.70	7.69

GROUP VI

Drugs, Chemicals, Medicines, Compounds or Preparations thereof, and Explosives

143	Crude india-rubber, crude guttapercha and substitutes thereof		free	
144	Gum arabic, shellac, rosin, and other gums and gum resins, not otherwise provided for excluding those for medicinal use		free	
164	Caustic soda and caustic potash:			
	1. Refined	100 kin	12.80	17.28
	2. Other	,,	1.50	2.02
165	Soda ash and natural soda	,,	0.35	0.47
168	Nitrate of soda (Chili saltpetre):			
	1. Refined	ad val.	20%	
	2. Other		free	
174	Nitrate of potash (saltpetre)	100 kin	3.05	4.11
175	Chloride of and sulphate of potash:			
	1. Refined	ad val.	20%	
	2. Other		free	
176	Chlorate of potash	100 kin	4.20	
177	Bichromate of potash and bichromate of soda	,,	5.10	6.88
189	Sulphate of ammonium:			
	1. Refined	ad val.	20%	
	2. Other		free	
190	Carbonate of ammonium and bicarbonate of ammonium	100 kin	3.45	4.65
193	Acetate of calcium	,,	0.41	0.55
195	Formalin	,,	5.10	6.88
196	Wood spirit or methyl alcohol		free	
197	Alcohol	1 litre	1.20	1.62
197-2	Denatured alcohol	,,	1.20	1.62
198	Glycerin	100 kin	18.00	24.30
200	Rongalite, blankit, decrolin and similar reducing agents	,,	23.70	31.99
202	Milk sugar	,,	11.20	15.12
204	Naphthalin		free	
208	Chemical products derived from coal-tar distillates (excluding carbolic acid, salicylic acid, bakelite, medicines and flavours other than benzaldehyde,			

Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	nitrobenzol and nitrotoluol):			
	1. Aniline and aniline-salt	,,	14.50	19.57
	2. Beta-naphthol	,,	18.70	25.24
	3. Oxynaphthoic acid and its derivatives	,,	100.00	135.00
	4. Other	ad val.	35%	
209-2	Antipyrin	100 kin.	82.00	110.70
209-3	Pyramidon	,,	161.00	217.35
212	Hydrochlorate of quinine	,,	135.00	182.25
212-2	Sulphate of quinine	,,	60.00	81.00
217	Casein		free	
*222	Tooth powders, tooth washes, toilet powders, and other prepared perfumeries, not otherwise provided for	,,	50%	
228	Gelatin capsules	100 kin including inner packings	90.20	121.77
228-2	Wafers	ad val.	30%	
229	Drugs, chemicals and medicines, not otherwise provided for	,,	20%	
230	Compounds or preparations of drugs, chemicals and medicines, not otherwise provided for	,,	30%	
231	Explosives:			
	1. Gunpowder	100 kin	29.50	39.82
	2. Dynamite	,,	11.00	14.85
	3. Detonators	100 kin including inner packings	37.00	49.95
	4. Fuses	100 kin	37.40	50.49
	5. Other	ad val.	30%	
232	Cartridges, loaded with explosives:			
	1. With bullets or shots:			
	A. Of metal shells	100 kin including inner packings	48.80	65.88
	B. Other	,,	27.10	36.58
	2. Other	ad val.	30%	
233	Projectiles, loaded with explosives	,,	30%	

GROUP VII

Dyes, Pigments, Coatings, and Filling matters

236	Indigo, natural:			
	1. Dry	100 kin	33.70	45.49
	2. In liquid or paste	ad val.	20%	
240	Logwood extract	100 kin	1.85	2.49
242	Artificial indigo	,,	40.00	54.00
243	Synthetic colours, not otherwise provided for:			
	1. Basic colours	,,	155.00	209.25
	2. Direct cotton colours	,,	107.00	144.45
	3. Acid colours	,,	135.00	182.25

Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	4. Mordant colours and acid mordant colours	,,	108.00	145.80
	5. Sulphide colours	,,	78.00	105.30
	6. Vat colours	,,	188.00	253.80
	7. Oil soluble colours	,,	100.00	135.00
	8. Other	ad val.	35%	
249	White lead, red lead and litharge	100 kin	2.80	3.78
255	Carbon black	,,	3.40	
256	Lacquer	,,	6.80	9.18
257	Varnishes	,,	19.40	26.19
258-2	Coal-tar		free	
259	Pitch and asphalt	,,	0.40	
259-2	Manufactures of coal-tar, of pitch or of asphalt for construction or repair of road	,,	0.40	
260	Shoe polishes	100 kin including receptacles	13.60	18.36
261	Pencils:			
	1. Not cased (slender strips of graphite or of colours)	ad val.	20%	
	2. Other, excluding those with metal sheaths:			
	A. Cased with wood or paper	1 gross	1.45	1.95
	B. Other	ad val.	25%	
262	Inks:			
	1. For copying or writing	100 kin including receptacles	8.35	11.27
	2. For printing:			
	A. In liquid or paste:			
	A-1. In barrel:			
	a. Black	100 kin	3.45	4.65
	b. Other	ad val.	25%	
	A-2. Other	100 kin including receptacles	21.50	29.02
	B. Solid	100 kin	111.00	149.85
	3. Other	ad val.	25%	
266	Paints:			
	1. Copper paints, international compositions, anticorrosive paints, and similar ship's bottom paints	100 kin	7.45	10.05

GROUP VIII

Yarns, Threads, Twines, Cordages, and Materials thereof

271	Cotton in the seed or ginned, including carded or combed cotten		free	
272	Cotton yarns (excluding special cotton yarns, otherwise provided for):			
	1. Single or two fold:			
	A. Gray, including gassed yarns:			
	a. Not exceeding No. 24 English	100 kin	3.75	5.06

Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	b. Not exceeding No. 42 English	,,	4.15	5.60
	c. Not exceeding No. 60 English	,,	6.15	8.30
	d. Not exceeding No. 80 English	,,	7.15	9.65
	e. Other	,,	7.35	9.92
	B. Bleached simply	Duty on gray yarn with an addition of 1 yen per 100 kin*		
	C. Other	Duty on gray yarn with an addition of 3 yen per 100 kin**		
	2. Other:			
	A. Gray, including gassed yarns	100 kin	39.20	52.92
	B. Other	,,	41.20	55.62
272-2	Special cotton yarns:			
	1. Unusually twisted yarns, including voile yarns, crape yarns exceeding No. 42 English, etc.		free	
	2. Mule cop yarns, single		free	
	3. Yarns exceeding No. 100 English		free	
273	Cotton twines not exceeding 3 grammes per 10 metres, and cotton threads:			
	1. In skein, gray	100 kin	39.20	52.92
	2. Reeled on wooden spool	100 kin including spools	7.10	94.63
	3. Other	ad val.	30%	
274	Flax, China-graas, ramie, hemp, jute, and other vegetable fibres not otherwise provided for		free	
375	Linen yarns:			
	1. Single:			
	A. Gray	100 kin	10.75	14.51
	B. Other	,,	11.40	15.39
	2. Other:			
	A. Gray	,,	40.90	55.21
	B. Other	,,	44.90	60.61
279	Hemp yarns	ad val.	10%	
280	Jute yarns	,,	10%	
282	Sheep's wool, goat's hair and camel's hair:			
	1. Carded or combed	100 kin	14.50	19.57
	2. Other:		free	

* The specific duty on articles under these two headings is equal to the sum of the general tariff for "Gray" and the additional amount respectivly mentioned above, multiplied by 135 per cent. in accordance with Law No. 4 of 1932. In assessing the duty, all fractional amounts less than one sen shall be discarded.

** The specific duty on articles under these two headings is equal to the sum of the general tariff for "Undyed or unprinted" and the additional amount respectively mentioned above, multiplied by 135 per cent. in accordance with Law No. 4 of 1932. In assessing the duty, all fractional amounts less than one sen shall be discarded.

Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
283	Woollen or worsted yarns:			
	1. Undyed or unprinted:			
	A. Yarns made by twisting woollen and worsted yarns together	,,	33.10	44.68
	B. Yarns made by twisting those of different number together and loop yarns	,,	33.10	44.68
	C. Other:			
	C-1. Worsted:			
	a. Not exceeding No. 32 metric	,,	27.70	37.39
	b. Other	,,	32.43	43.74
	C-2. Woollen	,,	22.50	30.37
	2. Other	Duty on undyed or unprinted yarns with an addition of 2.50 yen per 100 kin		
284	Mixed yarns of cotton and wool:	100 kin	17.50	23.62
	1. Undyed or unprinted	Duty on undyed or unprinted yarns with an addition of 3.00 yen per 100 kin		
	2. Other			
287	Raw silk, including thrown silk:			
	1. Wild silk		free	
	2. Other	ad val.	25%	
288	Spun silk yarns:			
	1. Of wild silk		free	
	2. Other	ad val.	30%	
289	Silk threads	,,	30%	
290	Artificial silk	100 kin	75.00	101.25

GROUP IX

Tissues and Manufactures thereof

298	Tissues of cotton:			
	1. Velvets, plushes and other pile tissues, piles cut or uncut	100 kin	83.10	112.18
	2. Tissues woven with chenille threads	ad val.	20%	
	3. Flannels and other raised tissues	100 kin	29.50	39.82
	4. Crêpes	ad val.	20%	
	5. Gauze tissues	,,	20%	
	6. Tissues interwoven with laces	,,	20%	
*301	Tissues of wool, and mixed tissues of wool and cotton, of wool and silk, or of wool, cotton and silk:			
	1. Velvets, plushes and other pile tissues, with piles, cut or uncut:			

Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	A. Partly of silk	100 kin	180.00	243.00
	B. Other	,,	50.00	67.50
	2. Other			
	A. Of wool			
	b. Weighing not more than 200 grammes per square metre	,,	97.50	131.62
	c. Weighing not more than 500 grammes per square metre	,,	90.00	121.50
	B. Of wool and cotton:			
	b. Weighing not more than 200 grammes per square metre	,,	52.50	70.87
	c. Weighing not more than 500 grammes per square metre	,,	60.40	81.54
*303	Silk tissues, and silk mixed tissues: 1–A Of silk	,,	520.00–	702.00–
*305	Stockinet and similar knitted tissues, raised or not:			
	1. Wholly or partly of silk	ad val.	45%	
307	Felts:			
	1. Of wool, or wool and cotton	100 kin	90.50	122.17
	2. Other	ad val.	25%	
*308	Embroidered tissues	,,	40%	
309	Bookbinders' cloth	100 kin	34.00	45.90
314	Leather cloth or oil cloth	,,	44.00	59.40
315	Oil cloth for floor, or linoleum	,,	11.40	15.39
318	Emery cloth, including glass cloth	,,	7.85	10.59
*319	Waterproof tissues coated or inserted with india rubber:			
	1. Wholly or partly of silk	ad val.	40%	
	2. Other	100 kin	58.20	78.57
323	Typewriter ribbons	ad val.	25%	
*324	Handkerchiefs, single:			
	1. Of cotton	100 doz.	48.70	65.74
	2. Of flax	,,	83.70	112.99
	3. Of flax and cotton	ad val.	25%	
	4. Wholly or partly of silk	,,	50%	
	5. Other	,,	25%	
325	Towels, single:			
	1. Of cotton	100 kin	78.10	105.43
	2. Other	ad val.	25%	
326	Blankets, single	100 kin	49.20	66.42
*327	Travelling rugs, single:			
	1. Wholly or partly of silk	,,	232.00	313.20
	2. Other	,,	139.00	187.65
332	Mosquito nets	ad val.	35%	
337	Woven belting for machinery and woven hoses:			
	1. Of cotton	100 kin	47.50	64.12
	2. Other	ad val.	20%	
339	Gunny bags	100 kin	2.55	3.44
341	Rags		free	

Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	GROUP X			
	Clothing and Accessories thereof			
*344	Raincoats:			
	1. Wholly or partly of silk	ad val.	50%	
	2. Other	100 kin	312.00	421.20
*345	Shirts, fronts, collars and cuffs	,,	134.00	180.90
*346	Undershirts and drawers:			
	1. Knitted:	,,	166.00	224.10
	A. Of cotton	ad val.	25%	
	B. Of wool, or wool and cotton	,,	50%	
	C. Wholly or partly of silk			
	D. Other	,,	25%	
	2. Other:			
	A. Wholly or partly of silk	,,	50%	
	B. Other	,,	35%	
*347	Gloves:			
	1. Of leather	100 kin	450.00	607.50
	2. Of leather and other materials except silk	,,	179.00	241.65
	3. Of cotton, of flax, of cotton and flax, of wool or of wool and cotton	,,	226.00	305.10
	4. Wholly or partly of silk	,,	949.00	1,281.15
	5. Of india rubber	ad val.	25%	
	6. Other	,,	40%	
*348	Stockings and socks:			
	1. Of cotton, of wool or of wool and cotton	100 kin	232 00	313.20
	2. Of flax or of cotton and flax	,,	138.00	186.30
	3. Wholly or partly of silk	ad val.	50%	
	4. Other	,,	40%	
*349	Shawls, comforters and mufflers:			
	1. Mufflers:			
	A. Of silk	100 kin	853.00	1,151.55
	B. Partly of silk	,,	530.00	715.50
	C. Other	ad val.	40%	
	2. Other:			
	A. Of cotton, of flax, of China grass, of wool or of wool and cotton	100 kin	159.00	214.65
	B. Of silk	,,	750.00	1,012.50
	C. Partly of silk excluding those combined with furs or feathers	,,	400.00	540.00
	D. Wholly or partly of furs or feathers	ad val.	50%	
	E. Other	,,	40%	
*350	Neckties:			
	1. Wholly or partly of silk	1 kin	11.40	15.39
	2. Other	,,	3.55	4.79
*354	Hats and hat bodies, caps, bonnets and hoods:			
	A-a. Silk hats and opera hats			
	C-1. Felt Hats	1 doz.	28.80	38.88
	a. Of sheep's wool	,,	7.50	10.12
	b. Other	,,	15.80	21.33

Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
*355	Boots, shoes, slippers, sandals, clogs, and the like:			
	1. Boots:			
	A. Of leather	100 kin	134.00	180.90
	B. Of india-rubber	,,	65.70	88.69
	C. Other	ad val.	40%	
	2. Shoes:			
	A. Of leather	100 kin	135.00	182.25
	B. Of canvas or duck:			
	a. With leather sole	,,	86.70	117.04
	b. Other	,,	57.80	78.03
	C. Wholly or partly of silk	ad val.	50%	
	D. Other	,,	40%	
	5. Slippers:			
	A. Of leather	,,	119.00	160.65
	B. Of tissues:			
	B-1. Wholly or partly of silk	,,	50%	
	B-2. Of felt:			
	a. With leather sole	100 kin	76.40	103.14
	b. Other	ad val.	40%	
	B-3. Other	,,	40%	
	C. Other	,,	40%	
357	Buttons, excluding those made of or combined with precious metals, metals coated with precious metals precious stones, semi-precious stones, pearls, corals, elephant's ivory or tortoise shells:			
	1. Buttons for cuffs or shirts	,,	35%	
	2. Other:			
	A. Covered	100 kin including inner packings	137.00	184.95
	B. Of metal	,,	54.50	73.57
	C. Of porcelain or glass	ad val.	35%	
	D. Of ivory nut, including imitations	,,	35%	
	E. Of bone or horn	,,	35%	
	F. Other	,,	35%	
*359	Jewellery for personal adornment	ad val.	50%	

GROUP XI

Pulp for paper making, Papers, Paper manufactures, Books, and Pictures

361	Pulp for paper making:			
	1. Mechanical pulp	100 kin	0.22	0.29
	2. Other	,,	0.27	0.36
362	Printing paper:			
	1. Art paper	,,	6.60	8.91
	2. Other:			
	A. Coloured in the paste	,,	1.55	2.09
	B. Other:			
	a. Weighing not more			

Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	than 58 grammes per square metre	,,	1.00	
	b. Other	,,	2.20	2.97
363	Writing paper	,,	4.55	6.14
364	Drawing paper	,,	7.50	10.12
365	Blotting paper	,,	4.90	6.61
367	Packing paper and match paper, excluding tissue paper	,,	2.40	3.24
370	Pasteboard or cardboard	,,	1.75	2.36
372	Imitation Japanese paper and tissue paper	,,	3.25	4.38
373	Imitation parchment, paraffin paper and wax paper			
	1. Covered with, or with application of metal foil or metal powder, embossed or printed	,,	3.85	5.19
	2. Other	,,	3.20	4.32
382	Note paper in box	100 kin including boxes	30.30	40.90
383	Envelopes:			
	1. In box, including those accompanying note paper	100 kin including boxes	31.60	42.66
	2. Other	ad val.	30%	
386	Baryta paper albuminized paper and sensitized papers for photograph:			
	1. Baryta paper	100 kin including inner packings	8.55	11.54
	2. Albuminized paper	,,	85.60	115.56
	3. Bromide paper and platinum paper	,,	134.00	180.90
	4. Other	ad val.	40%	
387	Carbon paper	100 kin	27.30	36.85
*390	Playing cards[1]	,,	113.00	152.55
391	Photographs	ad val.	50%	
393	Card calendars and block calendars	,,	50%	
*394	Picture post-cards	100 kin	52.40	70.74
*395	Christmas cards and the like	ad val.	50%	

GROUP XII

Minerals and Manufactures thereof

405-2	Carborundum, alundum and similar artificial mineral substances for grinding or polishing	100 kin	2.10	2.83
408	Grindstones or whetstones:			
	1. Artificial	,,	21.50	29.02

1 Playing cards are subject to a further tax of fifty sen per set according to the Playing Cards Tax Law.

	2-B. Other	ad val.	10%
*412	Precious stones (amended by		

Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	Law No. 37, 1935)			
	1. Precious stones specifically shaped for use in machines or for engineering purposes	ad val.	5%	
	2. Others	,,	10%	
*413	Semi-precious stones, and manufactures thereof not otherwise provided for:	,,	5–50%	
418	Asbestos, and manufactures thereof not otherwise provided for:			
	1. In lump, powder or fibre		free	
	2. Yarn	100 kin	15.00	
	3. Board:			
	A. Mixed with india-rubber	,,	15.00	
	B. Other	,,	4.05	5.46
	4. Other	,,	30.00	
429	Coal		free	
430	Cokes	10,000 kin	5.65	7.62
432	Portland cement, Roman cement, puzzolana cement, and similar hydraulic cements	100 kin	0.15	0.20
433	Manufactures of cement:			
	1. Board, for roofing or wall (including tiles)	ad val.	30%	
	2. Other			
	A. Unpolished, uncoated or uncoloured	,,	30%	
	B. Other	,,	35%	

GROUP XIII

Potteries, Glass and Glass Manufactures

436	Bricks, excluding cement bricks:			
	1. Fire bricks	100 kin	0.45	0.60
	2. Other:			
	A. Glazed or coloured	ad val.	20%	
	B. Other:			
	a. Perforated	,,	15%	
	b. Other	,,	15%	
437-2	Alundum tiles and the like	,,	20%	
443	Glass rods and glass tubes:			
	1. Of fused silica	,,	15%	
	2. Other	100 kin	18.00	24.30
444	Plate or sheet glass:	100 sq. metres	11.80–220.00	15.93–297.00
445	Plate glass having inlaid metal wire or net	,,	55.20	74.52
448	Spectacle glass, cast or cut	ad val.	30%	
449	Optical lenses or prisms, without frames or handles:			
	1. Unpolished	,,	20%	
	2. Other	,,	30%	
452	Dry plates for photographs:			
	1. Undeveloped	100 kin including inner packings	33.00	44.55

Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	2. Other	ad val.	30%	
*453	Spectacles and eyeglasses:		35–50%	
*454	Looking glasses or mirrors:		35–50%	
	GROUP XIV			
	Ores and Metals			
458	Ores (including those calcined), matte, bottom and slag		free	
459	Platinum, iridium, osmium, palladium, rhodium, indium and ruthenium		free	
460	Gold:			
	1. Ingots, slabs, grains, plates, sheets and bands		free	
	2. Tubes and wire	ad val.	20%	
	3. Foils	,,	25%	
	4. Waste or old, fit only for re-manufacturing		free	
461	Silver:			
	1. Ingots, slabs, plates, sheets and bands		free	
	2. Tubes and wire	,,	20%	
	3. Foils	,,	25%	
	4. Waste or old, fit only for re-manufacturing		free	
462	Iron (excluding special steel, otherwise provited for):			
	1. In lumps, ingots, blooms, billets and slabs:			
	A. Pig iron	100 kin	0.36	
	B. Spiegeleisen, ferro-manganese and other non-malleable iron alloys	ad val.	10%	
	C. Other:			
	C-1. Sheet bars, including tinplate bars	100 kin	0.50	0.67
	C-2. Other	ad val.	15%	
	2. Bars or rods, including those having such a shape, as T. angle, etc.	100 kin	1.10	1.48
	3. Rails (including fish-plates)	,,	0.95	1.28
	4. Wire rods, in coils	,,	1.30	
	5. Plates and sheets:			
	A. Not coated with metals:			
	A-1. Not exceeding 0.7 millimetre in thickness:			
	a. Silicon steel sheets, containing not less than 1% by weight of silicon	,,	0.30	0.40
	b. Other	,,	1.95	2.63
	A-2. Not exceeding 3 millimetres in thickness	,,	1.40	1.89
	A-3. Other	,,	1.10	1.48
	B. Coated with base metals:			

Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	B-1. Tinned (tinned iron sheets and tinned steel sheets)	,,	0.70	0.94
	B-2. Galvanized	,,	2.85	3.84
	B-3. Other	ad val.	20%	
	6. Wires, coated or not with base metals	,,	25%	
	11. Wire ropes and twisted wires, coated or not with base metals	100 kin	5.50	7.42
	13. Pipes and tubes, not otherwise provided for:			
	A. Not coated with metals;			
	A-1. Elbows and joints	ad val.	18%	
	A-2. Other:			
	a. Cast	100 kin	1.00	1.35
	b. Other:			
	b-1. Not exceeding 150 millimetres in inner diameter	ad val.	18%	
	b-2. Other	,,	15%	
	B. Coated with base metals	,,	20%	
	14. Waste or old, fit only for re-manufacturing		free	
462-2	Special steel:	,,	18%	
462-3	Pipes and tubes, of iron		free	
463	Aluminium:			
	1. Ingots, slabs and grains	100 kin	3.20	4.32
	2. Bars or rods, plates and sheets	,,	18.50	24.97
	3. Wires and tubes	ad val.	20%	
	4. Waste or old, fit only for re-manufacturing	,,	5%	
463-2	Magnesium and magnesium alloy	100 kin	49.50	
464	Copper	,,	7.00-21.20	9.45-28.62
465	Lead:			
	Ingots and slabs	ad val.	30%	
466	Tin:			
	Ingots and slabs	100 kin	0.40	0.54
467	Zinc:			
	Ingots, slabs and grains	,,	3.75	5.06
468	Nickel:			
	Ingots and grains	,,	3.00	4.05
471	Brass and bronze:			
	Ingots rnd slabs		free	
476	Aforementioned metals having a form not otherwise provided for, and metals not otherwise provided for:	,,	7.00	9.45
	5. Waste or old, fit only for re-manufacturing	ad val.	10%	

GROUP XV

Metal Manufactures

477	Nails, wood screws, bolts, nuts, rivets, and the like, excluding			

Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	those made of, or combined or coated with precious metals:			
	1. Iron nails:			
	Not coated with metals	100 kin	2.40	3.24
	2. Iron wood screws	„	5.85	7.89
	3. Brass wood screws and bronze wood screws	„	31.80	42.93
	4. Iron bolts, iron nuts and iron washers	„	3.70	4.99
	6. Iron rivets	„	3.65	4.92
477-2	Bearing balls	„	20.00	27.00
479	Metal nets or nettings	„	5.85-74.90	7.89-101.11
482	Materials for railway construction, not otherwise provided for:			
	1. Tie-plates and sleepers	„	2.15	2.90
	2. Other	ad val.	25%	
483	Posts and other materials for suspending electric lines, not otherwise provided for:			
	1. Posts and parts thereof	ad val.	18%	
	2. Other:			
	A. Of iron	100 kin	12.40	16.74
	B. Other	„	29.20	39.42
484	Materials for construction of buildings, bridges, vessels, docks, etc., not otherwise provided for:			
	1. Solely of iron including those coated with base metals	„	3.60	4.86
	2. Other	ad val.	25%	
485-2	Iron cylinders for filling compressed gases	100 kin	4.25	5.73
*491	Chains for watches, spectacles, eyeglasses or other personal adornment:			
	1. Of gold or platinum	„	50%	
	2. Gilt	1 kin	18.00	24.30
	3. Other	ad val.	50%	
496	Mechanics' tools, agricultural implements and parts thereof, not otherwise provided for:	100 kin	4.75-44.30	6.41-59.80
497	Drills, bits, reamers and screw taps, not having handles or frames	ad val.	24%	
*499	Cutlery, not otherwise provided for:			
	1. Made of, or combined or coated with precious metals	„	50%	
	2. Other:			
	A. Pocket knives:			
	a. With handles made of or combined with elephant's ivory, mother of pearl or tortoise shells, or enamelled	100 pieces	20.90	28.21
	b. Other	„	15.10	20.38
	B. Table knives:			

Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	a. With handles made of or combined with elephant's ivory, mother of pearl or tortoise shells, or enamelled	,,	47.40	63.99
	b. Other	,,	15.20	20.52
	C. Razors:			
	a. With handles	,,	40.40	54.54
	b. Other:			
	b-1. Safety-razor blades	,,	1.00	
	b-2. Other	ad val.	35%	
	D. Other	,,	35%	
*500	Table forks or spoons:			
	1. Made of, or combined or coated with precious metals	,,	50%	
	2. Other:			
	A. Forks	100 pieces	12.90	17.41
	B. Spoons	100 kin	158.00	213.30
505	Sewing or knitting needles, and pins, excluding those for personal adornment:			
	1. Hand-sewing needles	,,	191.00	257.85
	2. Sewing machine needles	,,	464.00	626.40
	3. Knitting machine needles	,,	249.00	336.15
	4. Other	ad val.	30%	
506	Pens:			
	1. Of gold	1 doz.	6.70	9.04
	2. Other	1 gross	0.25	0.33
515	Electric stoves, electric smoothing iron and similar electric heaters	ad val.	35%	
517	Bedsteads and parts thereof	100 kin	15.80	21.33
518	Safes and cash boxes	ad val.	35%	
522	Manufactures of copper, brass or bronze, not otherwise provided for:			
	1. Coated with base metals	,,	35%	
	2. Other	100 kin	127.00	171.45
524	Iron manufactures, not otherwise provided for:			
	1. Enamelled	,,	23.00	31.05
	2. Coated with base metals	ad val.	35%	
	3. Other:			
	A. Cast:			
	a. Each weighing not more than 5 kilogrammes	100 kin	19.60	26.46
	b. Each weighing not more than 50 kilogrammes	,,	10.20	13.77
	c. Other	,,	7.80	10.53
	B. Other:			
	a. Each weighing not more than 5 kilogrammes	,,	45.10	60.88
	b. Each weighing not more than 50 kilo-			

Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	grammes	,,	20.70	27.94
	c. Other	,,	14.00	18.90

GROUP XVI

Clocks, Watches, Scientific instruments, Fire arms, Vehicles, Vessels and Machinery

*526	Watches	1 piece	1.05-15.90	1.75-21.46
527	Parts of watches			
	1. Cases, including those having glasses	,,	0.40-15.00	0.54-20.25
*533	Binoculars and monoculars	1 kin	15.00-3.00	
534	Telescopes	,,	3.10	4.18
		ad val.	20%	
535	Microscopes ane parts thereof		20%	
537	Balances, with weights or not:			
	1. Platform balances	,,	15%	
	2. Other	,,	20%	
541	Thermometers			
	1. Clinical thermometers, in case or not:			
	A. With enclosed scale	1 kin including cases	2.30	3.10
	B. Other	,,	6.60	8.91
	2. Other	ad val.	20%	
542	Barometers:			
	1. Barographs	,,	20%	
	2. Aneroid barometers	100 kin	107.00	144.45
	3. Other	ad val.	20%	
550-3	Typewriters and parts thereof	100 kin	94.00	126.90
551	Philosophical instruments and parts thereof, not otherwise provided for	ad val.	20%	
552	Magic lanterns, cinematograph projectors and parts thereof	,,	40%	
*553	Photographic instruments:			
	1. For cinematographs	,,	40%	
	2. For microscopes or aircraft	,,	20%	
	3. Other	,,	50%	
*554	Parts of photographic instruments:			
	1. Lenses	,,	30%	
	2. Cameras:			
	A. For cinematographs	,,	40%	
	B. For microscopes or aircraft	,,	20%	
	C. Other	,,	50%	
	3. Screens for half-tone process	,,	20%	
	4. Other	,,	50%	
*555	Phonographs, gramophones and other talking machines	,,	50%	
*556	Parts and accessories of phonographs, gramophones and other talking machines:			

Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	1. Discs or cylinders for music:			
	A. With music record thereon	100 kin	74.30	100.30
	B. Other	,,	57.40	77.49
	2. Other	ad val.	50%	
557	Musical instruments:			
	1. Pianos:			
	A. Grand	100 kin	86.70	117.04
	B. Other	,,	60.90	82.21
	2. Organs	,,	57.40	77.49
	3. Harmonicas	100 pieces	25.00	33.75
	4. Other	ad val.	40%	
559	Telegraphic or telephonic instruments and parts thereof, not otherwise provided for:			
	1. Radio receiving sets and parts thereof	,,	40%	
	2. Other	,,	20%	
560	Fire-arms and parts thereof:			
	1. Rifles and sporting guns	ad val.	40%	
	2. Pistols or revolvers	1 piece	5.35	7.22
	3. Other	ad val.	40%	
561	Railway carriages and other vehicles, running on rails, not otherwise provided for	,,	30%	
563	Automobiles	,,	50%	
564	Parts of automobiles, excluding motive machinery	,,	42%	
565	Cycles:			
	1. Motor-cycles:			
	A. With motive machinery	1 piece	93.60	126.36
	B. Other	,,	77.63	104.76
	2. Other	,,	25.80	34.83
567	Vehicles and parts thereof, not otherwise provided for	ad val.	35%	
568	Vessels:			
	1. Propelled by mechanical power or sails, excluding those whose capacity is not to be measured by tonnage:			
	A. Not exceeding 20 years of ship's age	1 gross ton	15.00	20.25
	B. Other	,,	20.00	27.00
	2. Other	ad val.	15%	
569	Steam boilers (mechanical stokers are subject to the rate under No. 571):			
	1. Of cast iron	100 kin	5.00	6.75
	2. Other	,,	8.00	10.80
571	Mechanical stokers	,,	6.10	8.23
571-2	Fuel economizers	,,	3.35	4.52
573	Locomotives and tenders, running on rails:			
	1. Locomotives:			
	A. Propelled by steam power	,,	12.00	16.20
	B. Other	,,	15.90	21.46

Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932
			¥	¥
	2. Tenders	ad val.	20%	
574	Steam locomotives not running on rails and portable steam engines	100 kin	10.40	14.04
577	Internal combustion engines: For automobiles and cycles	ad val.	35%	
579	Dynamos, electric motors, rotary converters, frequency changers, rotary phase converters and armatures	100 kin	15.80–42.40	21.33–57.24
579-2	Transformers	,,	7.00–25.00	9.45–35.10
588	Sewing machines:			
	1. Without stands, including tops of sewing machines	,,	16.30	22.00
	2. Other	,,	11.10	14.98
591	Pumps, not otherwise provided for:	,,	10.10–18.70	13.63–25.24
596	Metal or wood working machinery, not otherwise provided for, including rolling machines, drawing machines, nail-making machines, moulding machines, flanging machines, revetting machines, etc.	,,	8.00–84.40	10.80–113.94
597	Spinning machines, preparatory machines for spinning or weaving, and yarn finishing or twisting machines, including ginning machines, scouring machines, bundling machines, etc.	,,	6.90	9.31
598	Weaving looms:			
	1. Of metal	,,	5.85	7.89
	2. Other	ad val.	15%	
599	Tissue finishing machines	100 kin	10.70	14.44
600	Knitting machines:			
	1. Each weighing not more than 500 kilogrammes	,,	43.80	59.13
	2. Other	,,	25.60	34.56
602	Paper making machines and preparatory machines for paper making	ad val.	20%	
603	Printing machines:			
	1. Each weighing not more than 250 kilogrammes	,,	20%	
	2. Other	100 kin	16.50	22.27

GROUP XVII

Miscellaneous Articles

*612	Wood:			
	A-2. Tagayasan (Baryxylum rufum, Lour), red or rose wood, red sandal wood and ebony wood (excluding ebony wood with white streaks)	100 kin	0.50	0.67

Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	D. Mahogany	ad val.	5%	
	E. Oak	,,	5%	
	F. Pine, fir, cedar, and other conifers:			
	F-2. Chamæcyparis (white cedar, yellow cedar, etc.)	1 cubic metre	5.40–9.85	7.29–13.29
	F-3. Thuja (red cedar, etc.) and Tsuga (hemlock, etc.)	,,	3.30–6.25	4.45–8.43
	F-4. Abies (todomatsu, etc.), Picea (ezo-matsu, spruce, etc.), Pinus (benimatsu, etc.), and Larix (karamatsu, etc.)	,,	2.70–4.45	3.64–6.00
	F-5. Other (Douglas fir, etc.)	,,	6.90–free	
619	Carbon for electrical use, not otherwise provided for:			
	1. In powder or granule	100 kin	8.30	11.20
	2. Other:			
	A. Each weighing not more than 300 grammes	ad val.	20%	
	B. Other	100 kin	8.30	11.20
*624	Umbrella sticks, walking sticks, whips and their handles	ad val.	40–50%	
*625	Umbrellas and parasols:			
	1. Wholly or partly of silk	,,	50%	
	2. Of paper	100 pieces	12.20	16.47
	3. Other	ad val.	35%	
630	Waste or old india-rubber and gutta-percha, fit only for re-manufacturing		free	
632	Celluloid and manufactures thereof, not otherwise provided for:			
	1. In lumps, bands, bars, or rods, plates, sheets, tubes, etc.	100 kin	56.00	75.60
	2. Combs	100 kin including inner packings	355.00	479.25
	3. Other	ad val.	35%	
632-2	Waste or old celluloid, fit only for re-manufacturing	100 kin	56.00	
*934	Brushes and brooms:	ad val.	50–35%	
635	Lamps, lanterns and parts thereof	,,	40–20%	
*636	Films for photographs:			
	1. Sensitized	1 kin including inner packings	1.00	1.35
	2. Developed	,,	8.25	11.13
	3. Other	ad val.	40%	
*640	Articles for billiards, tennis, cricket, chess and other games, and accessories thereof:			
	1. Articles for tennis, base-			

Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	ball, football and other outdoor exercises and accessories thereof	,,	25%	
	2. Other	,,	50%	
*641	Toys	,,	50%	
643	Fodder		free	
644	Wheat bran		free	
646	Manures, including oil cakes, unestable dried fish, bone dust, dried blood, guano, superphosphate of lime, calcium cyanamide, etc.		free	
647	Articles, not otherwise provided for:			
	1. Raw	,,	10%	
	2. Other			
	A.	,,	50%	
	B.	,,	35%	

LIST OF CLUBS, SOCIETIES, ASSOCIATIONS, ETC.

POLITICAL AND MILITARY

DAI ASIA KYOKAI (The Great Asia Association) General Sekkon Matsui and others are directors. The society works for the unification of Asiatic countries. Issues "Dai Asia Shugi" (Great Asianism). Address: Osaka Building, Uchisaiwaicho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KAIBOGIKAI (The Coastal Defence Volunteers' Association). Established in 1922; Otojiro Ito, president; membership 3,164. The object of the association is to study matters in connection with the coastal defence of Japan. Address: Shisei Kaikan, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KAIGUN KYOKAI (The Navy Association). Established in 1917; Chuichi Ariyoshi, M. H. P. president; The Association is trying to spread a knowledge of the navy of Japan. Address: Yusen Building Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KAIKOSHA (Military Club). Established in 1877; General Hisaichi Terauchi, president. The purpose is to keep friendly relations among army officers as well as to cultivate the spirit of patriotism. Address: Iidamachi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KOKUMIN BOKU KYOKAI (The National Aerial Defence Association). Kumataro Uyama, president. Address: 775 Sendagaya, 4-chomé Tokyo.

OSAKA TOSHI KYOKAI (The Association for the Study of Municipal Problems of Osaka). Established in 1925; Takéo Kagami, president; membership 3,000. The aim is to study every problem pertaining to cities. Address: Osaka City Hall, Nakanoshima, Kitaku, Osaka.

SUIKOSHA (The Naval Club). Established in 1876; Admiral Mitsumasa Yonai, president; membership 11,500. The purpose of the club is to study marine affairs and keep mutual friendship among members. Address: 13 Sakaecho, Shiba, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU ZAIGO GUNJINKAI (The Ex-service Men Association). Established in 1910; General Ikutaro Inouye, president; membership 3,000,000. The purpose is to keep up the spirit of the Japanese soldiery. Address: 5 Kudan 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOKYO SHISEI CHOSAKAI (The Tokyo Institute for Municipal Research). Baron Yoshio Sakatani, president. Address: 2 Hibiya Park, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOSHI KYOKAI (The Association for the Study of Municipal Problems). Established in 1917; Shigenosuké Ushio, president; membership about 5,000. Address: 1 Otemachi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

YOYOKAI Established in 1923; Saburo Momotaké, director. Social friendship among naval officers is the aim of the society. Address: Care of Usagawa, 22 Kasumicho, Azabu, Tokyo.

YUSHUKAI Established in 1913: Admiral Isamu Takeshita, president. The purpose of the Society is to study various problems of the Japanese navy. Issues "Yushu". Address: Care of the Suikosha, Sakaccho, Shiba, Tokyo.

ZENKOKU CHOSONCHO KAI (The All-Japan Town and Village Masters' Society). Tsutomu Okazaki, president. The aim of the society is to study every problem concerning town and village administration. Address: 8 Sankocho, Yotsuya, Tokyo.

INTERNATIONAL AND DIPLOMATIC

BERUGI KYOKAI (La Société Belgo-Japonaise). Established in 1912; Baron Sumizo Otera, president; membership 200. The purpose is to keep friendship between Japan and Belgium. Address: 60 Nagatacho 2-chomé, Kojimachi Tokyo.

KAIGAI IJU KUMIAI RENGOKAI (The Federation of Emigration Associations). Established in 1927; membership 32 local associations; Hatsusaburo Hirao, president. The aim is to serve as a means of connection among member associations, giving aids to promote their aspiration. Address: 7 Otemachi 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KAIGAI JIJO KENKYUKAI (The Overseas Affairs Research Association). Established in 1927; Masao Kanda, president; membership 2,500. Address: Care of the Faculty of Medicine of the Keio University, Shinanomachi, Yotsuya, Tokyo.

KAIGAI KYOKAI CHUOKAI (The Central Board of Overseas Associations). Established in 1923: Gosuké Imai, president: membership 27 local associations. The object is to encourage emigration. Address: The Sanshi Kaikan, Yurakucho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KANSAI NICHI-FUTSU KAIKAN (L'Institut Franco-Japonaise du Kansai). H. E. the Ambassador of France, president. Address: 8, Izumidono-cho, Yoshida, Kyoto.

KINTO BOEKI KYOKAI (The Near-

East Trade Association). Established in 1925; Heibei Mori, president; membership 130. The society aims at the development of trade between Japan and Turkey. Address: The Osaka Chamber of Commerce and Industry, Dōjima, Kitaku, Osaka.

KOBE NICHIBEI KYOKAI (The Kobé Japano-American Association). Established in 1920; Setsuro Miyagawa, director; membership about 220. The aim is to bring the Japanese and the Americans into closer relations. Address: 1 Akasakadori, 8-chomé, Nadaku, Kobé.

KOKUSAI BUNKA SHINKOKAI (The Society for International Cultural Relations). Established in 1934; Prince Fumimaro Konoyé, president. The aim is to introduce Japanese and Oriental culture to foreign countries. Address: Meiji-Seimeikan, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

MANSHU BUNKA KYOKAI (The Manchurian Culture Society). Established in 1920; Kingo Kaise, president; membership 2,500. Publishes "Mammo" (Manchuria and Mongolia) and others. Address: 91 Kiimachi, Dairen.

NANYO-KYOKAI (The South Sea Association). Established in 1915; Prince Fumimaro Konoyé, president; membership 1,400. The Society makes a study of the South Sea Islands and gives information about it. Address: 10 Marunouchi 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NICHI-BEI KYOKAI (The America-Japan Society). Prince Iyesato Tokugawa, president. The Society aims at the promotion of friendly relations between the peoples of Japan and of the United States of America. Address: Imperial Hotel, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NICHI-BOKU KYOKAI (La Sociedad Mexico Japonesa). Established in 1924; Admiral Keizaburo Moriyama, president; Takemaro Kobayashi, director general; membership 280. Address: 80 Yochomachi, Ushigomé, Tokyo.

NICHI-DOKU BUNKA KYOKAI (Das Japan-Deutsche Kultur-Institut). Established in 1927; Marquis Toshitaké Okubo, president; membership 100. Address: The Shisei Kaikan, Hibiya Park, Tokyo.

NICHI-DOKU KYOKAI (Der Deutsch-Japanische Verein). Established in 1921; Dr. Aihiko Sata, president; membership 510. The Association aims at contributing towards promotion of culture and industries in both countries. Address: 3 Hamadori, Dojima, Kitaku, Osaka.

NICHI-EI KYOKAI (The Japan-British Society), H. E. the British Ambassador, president; membership 307. Address: Care of Mr. John Gadsby, 12 Marunouchi 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NICHI-FUTSU GAKKAN (La Maison Franco-Japonaise). Established in 1927; French Ambassador, president; membership 107. The object is to bring the cultures of both countries into a closer touch. Address; 8 Izumidonochô, Yoshida, Sakyôku, Kyoto.

NICHI-FUTSU KAIKAN (La Maison Franco-Japonaise). Established in 1924; Baron Reijiro Wakatsuki, president; membership 496. The Institute aims at the development of the Japanese and the French cultures. Address: 3 Surugadai 2-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NICHI-FUTSU KYOKAI (La Société Franco-Japonaise). Viscount Sukekuni Soga, president: membership 885. Address: 3 Surugadai 2-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NICHI-GO KYOKAI (The Australia-Japan Society). Established in 1928; Baron Yoshio Sakatani, president; membership 120. The object is the promotion of the friendly relations and welfare of the two countries. Address: The Nippon Kogyo Club, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NICHI-HAKU KYOKAI (Associaçaõ Nippon-Brazileira de Kobé) Established in 1926; Shuzo Okada, Governor of Hyogo prefecture, president; membership 503. The Association serves to promote friendship between the two countries and acts as go-between in the matter of mutual understanding. Address: Kaigan-dori 1-chomé, Kobé.

NICHI-I BUNKA KYOKAI (The Japano-Italian Culture Association). Established in 1931; membership 382. The aim is the exchange of Japanese and Italian cultures. Address: 29 Fujimicho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NICHI-IN KYOKAI (The Indo-Japanese Association). Established in 1903; Marquis Nobutsuné Okuma, president; membership 1,000. The object is to promote the friendship between Japan and British India, Straits Settlements, Dutch East Indies, Siam, French Indo-China and the Philippines. Address: 1 Uchisaiwaicho 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NICHI-RO KYOKAI (The Japan Soviet Society). Established in 1906; Admiral Hiroharu Kato, acting president; membership 330. The object is to promote friendship and learning of the two countries. Issues reports. Address: 17 Uchisaiwaicho, 1-chome, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIKKA GAKKAI (The Japanese and Chinese Educational Association). Established in 1918; Marquis Moritatsu Hosokawa, president. The purpose is to help

the Chinese students in their studies in Japan. Address: 31 Nakasarugakucho, 1-chome, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIKKA KYOKAI (The Japan-Canada Society). Established in 1930; Baron Yoshio Sakatani, president; membership 100. Address: The Nippon Kogyo Club, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NIPPON IMIN KYOKAI (The Japan Emigration Society). Established in 1914; Sotaro Kato, director; membership 700. The object is to make general researches about matters concerning emigration and give such informations as may be needed by people. Address: 30 Maruyamacho, Koishikawa, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOKUSAI KYOKAI (The International Association of Japan). Established in 1920; Viscount Kikujiro Ishii, president; membership 12,000. Issues "Kokusai Chishiki" (International Knowledge) and "Sekai to Warera" (World and We.) Address: 12 Marunouchi 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON LATIN-AMERICAN ASSOCIATION (La Société Japonaise en Amérique Latine). Established in 1910; Prince Sanetaka Ichijo, president; membership 275. The purpose is to study the conditions of the North, Central, and South American countries. Address: 2 Nakadori 3-chomé, Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON-SWEDEN KYOKAI (The Japan-Sweden Society). Established in 1929; Ginjiro Fujiwara, president; membership 222. Address: The Nippon Kogyo Club, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NICHI-RO TSUSHINSHA (The Japan-Soviet Trading Agency). Established in 1918; Moriji Uyeda, director. Publication, "Nichiro Tsushin" (Japano-Russian Correspondence). Address: Nijuichi-go Kan of Mitsubishi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NISSO BUNKA KYOKAI (The Japano-Soviet Culture Association). Mantaro Hasegawa, director. Address: Sanma Building, Ginza, 3-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

OSAKA HAN TAIHEIYO CIUB (The Osaka Pan-Pacific Club). Established in 1927; the Governor of Osaka-fu, president; membership 100. The purpose is to cultivate international friendships among the countries around the Pacific.

OSAKA NICHI-RO BOEKI KYOKAI (The Osaka Japano-Russian Trading Association). Katsutaro Inahata, president. Address: The Osaka Municipal Office, Nakanoshima, Kitaku, Osaka.

SHAMU KYOKAI (The Siam Society). Established in 1913; Prince Fumimaro Konoyé, president; membership 188. Address: 1 Sannencho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOKYO HAN TAIHEIYO CLUB (The Tokyo Pan-Pacific Club). Established in 1923. Viscount Tadashiro Inouyé, president, membership 400. Promotion of friendship and goodwill among Pacific nations. Address: The House of Peers, Nagatacho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOYO KYOKAI (The Oriental Society). Rentaro Mizuno, president; membership 3,000. Address: The Osaka Building, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

LEGAL

AIKOKU HOSO RENMEI (The Patriotic Lawyers' Association). Established in 1932; Tomoyoshi Tsunoda, director. Address: The Taisho Building, 6 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

HOSOKAI (The Association of Legal Circles). Established in 1891; Raisaburo Hayashi, president; membership 15,000. Issues a journal Address: Nishihibiya, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

JIYU HOSO DAN (The Free-Legal Circles). Kesaya Yamazaki, director; membership 60. The purpose is to safeguard the rights of lower class peoples by dint of their cooperative actions. Address: 19 Shinsakurada, Shiba, Tokyo.

NIPPON BENGOSHI KYOKAI (The Japan Lawyers' Association). Established in 1921; 50 directors in charge of presidency; membership 4,000. The object is to facilitate cooperative work of lawyers. Address: 1 Nishi-Hibiya, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU BENGOSHIKAI (The Imperial Lawyers' Association). Dr. Senichiro Horiye, director membership 1,000. Address: Nishi-Hibiya, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOKYO BENGOSHI KAI (The Tokyo Lawyers' Association). Koitsu Sakuma, director. Address: 6 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

COMMERCIAL, INDUSTRIAL, AND AGRICULTURAL

BOEKI SHOREI KAI (The Trade Promotion Society). Established in 1927; Baron Takashi Masuda, president. Address: 1 Honcho 2-chomé, Nihonbashi, Tokyo.

CHUO CHIKUSAN KAI (The Central Association of Animal Industry of Japan). Established in 1915; Shigemasa Sunada, diredtor; membership 6,500. Issues "Chikusan" (Live-stock Breeding) Address: 3 Marunouchi 2-chomé, Tokyo.

CHUO DENKI CLUB (The Central Electric Enterprisers' Club). Yonejiro

Hiratsuka, director. Address: The Department of Home Affairs, Otemachi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON BEIKOKU KAI (The Japan Rice Association). Established in 1907: Baron Yoshio Sakatani, president; membership 10,500. Issues "Beikoku" (Rice). Address: 30 Sagacho 1-chomé, Fukagawa, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON BOSEKI RENGOKAI (The Japan Cotton Spinners' Association). Established in 1882; Otokichi Shōji, president; membership 72 companies. Address: Bingomachi 3-chomé, Higashiku, Osaka.

DAINIPPON KATSUDO SHASHIN KYOKAI (The Japan Cinematographic Association). Koichi Negishi, director. Address: The Department of Home Affairs, Otemachi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON ORIMONO KYOKAI (The Japan Textile Industry Association). Established in 1885; Saiichiro Shibata, president; membership 2,500. The Association aims at the progress of dyeing and textile industry. Issues "Senshoku Jiho" (Dyeing and Weaving Times). Address: The Chiyoda-Shoken Building, 2 Kyobashi 1-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON RENGO KASAI HOKEN KYOKAI (The Joint Fire Insurance Association of Japan). Seiichi Shinjo, director. membership 70 companies. Address: 6 Marunouchi 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON SANRIN KAI (The Japan Forestry Association). Established in 1882; Kunijiro Wada, president; membership 6,000. The object is to improve forestry enterprises in Japan. Publishes "San Rin" (Forestry). Address: Sankaido, Tameiké, Akasaka, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON SANSHI KAI (The Japan Silk-Yarn Industry Association). Established in 1892; Count Yorinaga Matsudaira, president; membership 300,395. The object is to improve silk industry in Japan. Issues "Sanshi Kaiho" (Silk World Review). Address: 1 Yurakucho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON SUISAN KAI (The Japan Marine Products Association). Established in 1882; Yonematsu Mitsui, president; membership 5,000. Publishes "Suisan Kai" (Marine World). Address: Sankaido, Tameiké, Akasaka, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON YOGYO KYOKAI (The Japanese Ceramic Association). Established in 1891; Otogoro Umeda, president; membership 1,850. Publishes a journal. Address: 5 Nishi Ginza 4-chomé, Tokyo.

DENKI FUKYU KAI (The Association for the Propagation of Electric Knowledge). Count Keigo Kiyoura, president. Address: 3 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DENKI KYOKAI (The Electric Enterprising Association). Yoshizo Ikeo, director. Address: 3 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

FUMIN KYOKAI Established in 1927; Minoru Oka, president. The object is to improve agricultural methods and encourage farming. Publishes reports. Address: Hagoromo, Takashi, in the suburbs of Osaka City.

JIYU TSUSHO KYOKAI (The Free-Trade Association). Tetsujiro Shidachi, director. The purpose is to advocate free trade. Address: 7 Nishi Ginza, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

KAGAKU KOGYO KYOKAI (The Chemical Industry Association). Established in 1917; Morio Nakamatsu, president; membership 780. Publishes a magazine, "Kagaku Kogyo" (Chemical Industry). Address: 2 Marunouchi, Tokyo.

KANTO SANGYO DANTAI RENGO-KAI (The National Confederation of Industrial Association of Japan). Established in 1931; Ginjiro Fujiwara, president; membership 39 associations. Address: Nippon Kogyo Club, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

KASAI HOKEN CLUB (The Fire Insurance Men's Club). Takashi Isaka, director. Address: 53 Takanawa-minamicho, Shiba, Tokyo.

KOWAN KYOKAI (The Port Problems Research Association). Rentaro Mizuno, director. Address: Care of Naimsho-Doboku-Kyoku, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KOZAN KONWAKAI (The Minerals Traders' Club). Ryuzo Tanaka, director. Address: Nippon Kogyo Club, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NANYO BOEKI SHINKOKAI (The Society for the Promotion of South Seas' Trade). Kamekichi Yamazaki, director. Address: The Tokyo Shokoshoreikan, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NIKKA JITSUGYO KYOKAI (The Japan-Chinese Businessmen's Association). Established in 1920; Kenji Kodama, president; membership 200. Address: 3 Marunouchi 7-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON BOEKI KYOKAI (The Japan Trade Association). Baron Ichizaemon Morimura, president. Address; 3 Nishi-Ginza 7-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON CHUO SANSHIKAI (The Japan Central Sericultural Society). Established in 1932: Count Yorinaga Matsudaira president; membership 8 organizations. Address: 7 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON DORYOKU KYOKAI (The Japan Metrological Society). Eitaro Okamoto president; membership 15,000. The purpose is to unify weights and measures available in Japan. Issues "Keiryokai" (Weights and Measures). Address: 17 Nishikubo-Meisencho, Shiba, Tokyo.

NIPPON JINKEN RENGOKAI (The Japan Rayon Industry Association). Established in 1927; Asahiko Karashima, president: Address: The Daini Nomura Building, Bingocho 2-chomé, Higashiku, Osaka.

NIPPON KANZUME KYOKAI (The Japan Packing Industry Association). Established in 1922, Yonematsu Mitsui president. Address: The Marunouchi Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KEIZAI RENMEIKAI (The Federation of Japan Commercial Associations). Baron Seinosuké Go, president. Address: Kogyo Club, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KENCHIKU KYOKAI (The Japan Architecture Association). Established in 1917; Dr. Yasushi Kataoka, president; membership 1,985 Issues "Kenchiku to Shakai" (Architecture and Society). Address: The Asahi Building, Nakanoshima, Kitaku, Osaka.

NIPPON KOGYO KAI (The Japan Mining Association). Established in 1885; Viscount Kyoshiro Inouyé, president; membership 1,667. Publishes a journal. Address: 7 Nishi-Ginza 8-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOZAN KYOKAI (The Japan Mineral Industry Association). Established in 1927; Chokuyo Murase, president; membership 500. Issues reports. Address: Kobikicho, 7-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON MENKA DOGYO KAI (The Japan Cotton Dealers' Association). Established in 1898; Shichirobei Nosé, president. Address: Bugomachi, Higashiku, Osaka.

NIPPON MEN-ORIMONO KOGYO KUMIAI (The Association of Cotton Fablics Export of Japan). Tsunejiro Miwa, president. Address: 2 Kyobashi 1-chomé, Tokyo.

NIPPON SANGYO KYOKAI (The Japan Industrial Association). Established in 1921; Count Sanji Kuroki, president. The purpose is to inquire into various industrial subjects. Address: 1 Uchiyamashitacho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON SEISHI RENGOKAI. (The League of Paper Manufacturers of Japan). Kikujiro Takashima, president. Address: 10 Marunouchi 2-chomé, Tokyo.

NIPPON SENSHU KYOKAI (The Japan Ship-Owner's Association). Established in 1894; Seizo Murata, president; membership 136. Issues a monthly report. Address: 32 Akashimachi, Kobé.

NIPPON SHIKKO KAI. (The Japan Lacquer Ware Industry Association). Established in 1890; Naohiko Masaki, president; membership 800. Issues "Urushi to Kogei" (Lacquer and Industrial Arts). Address: Kajicho 2-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON SOKO KYOKAI (The Japan Warehousing Association) Sinzo Mitsuhashi, president; membership, 162 companies. Address: The Mitsubishi Soko Kabushiki Kaisha, 1 Yodobashi 1-chomé, Nihonbashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON TEKKO KYOKAI (The Japan Iron and steel Industry Association). Yoshihiko Mizutani, president. The object is make a scientific study of iron and steel as well as of working-up techniques of manufacturing. Address: 10 Marunouchi 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON YOMO KOGYOKAI (The Japan Wool Industry Association). Established in 1920; Seibei Kawanishi, president. Address: 1 Marunouchi 2-chomé, Tokyo.

NOJI DENKA KYOKAI (The Association for the Electrification of Agriculture). Established in 1923; Viscount Dr. Masatoshi Okochi, president; membership 1,000. Issues "Noji Denka" (Electrification of Agriculture). Address: 3 Yurakucho, 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

OSAKA BOEKI DOMEIKAI (The Federation of Osaka Foreign Trade Associations). Nisaburo Nikawa, president. Address: 54 Kanzakimachi, Higashiku, Osaka.

OSAKA BOEKI KYOKAI (The Osaka Foreign Trade Association). Yakichi Ataka, president; membership 60. Address: the Osaka Chamber of Commerce and Industry, Nakanoshima, Kitaku, Osaka.

OSAKA JITSUGYO KUMIAI RENGOKAI (The Federation of the Osaka Commercial Societies). Heibei Mori, director. Address: Jitsugyokaikan, Higashiku, Osaka.

OSAKA KASHO SHOKAI (The Chinese Merchants' Association of Osaka). Masuzo Cho, director. Address: 211 Nibancho, Honda, Nishiku, Osaka.

OSAKA SANGYO CHOSAKAI (The Osaka Industrial Research Society). Eiji Yasui, director. Address: The Osaka Prefectural Office, Osaka.

OSAKA YUSHUTSU KYOKAI (The Osaka Exporters' Association). Muneji Sakama, president, membership 59. Address; Osaka Municipal Office, Kitaku, Osaka.

RORYO SUISAN KUMIAI (The Russian Waters Fishery Association). Established in 1908; Sukehidé Kabayama, president; membership 26 Address: The Marunouchi

Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

SANGYO CHOSA KYOKAI (The Industrial Research Society). Established in 1930; Usaburo Yanagitani, president: membership 26 organizations. The Association aims to investigate the business condition and management. Address: The Kaijo Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

SANGYO FUKURI KYOKAI (The Industrial Welfare Association). Established in 1929; membership 900. Publishes "Sangyo Fukuri" (Industrial Welfare). Address: The Social Bureau, Department of Home Affairs, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

SEIMEI HOKEN KAISHA KYOKAI (The Life Insurance Companies Association). Established in 1908; Tatsu Naruse, chairman of directors; membership 30 companies. Address: 4 Marunouchi, 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

SEKITAN KOGYO RENGOKAI (The Federation of Coal Mining Associations). Established in 1921; Kenjiro Matsumoto, president; membership 36. Issues "Sekitan Jiho" (Coal Miner's Times). Address: care of the Nihon Kogyo Club, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU KAIJI KYOKAI (The Imperial Marine Affairs Association). Established in 1899; Hanpei Fujishima, director. Issues a ship directory. Address: The Kaijo Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU BAHITSU KYOKAI (The Imperial Horse-breeding Association). Established in 1926; Count Yorinaga Matsudaira, president; membership 353. Address: The Toyo Building, Uchiyamashitacho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU GAS KYOKAI (The Imperial Gas-Work Society). Established in 1912; Takematsu Osoné, president; membership 900. Address: 2 Marunouchi 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU JIDOSHA KYOKAI (The Imperial Automobile Association). Established in 1931; Baron Yoshiro Sakatani, president; membership 80. Address: The Marunouchi Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU NOKAI (The Imperial Agricultural Association). Established in 1910; Count Tadamasa Sakai, president; membership 45 agricultural organizations. The object is to encourage agricultural pursuits. Address: 1 Marunouchi 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU SHINRINKAI (The Imperial Forestry Association). Established in 1919; Dr. Seiroku Honda, president; membership 127. Address: 1 Tameiké, Akasaka, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU SUISAN KAI (The Imperial Aquatic Institute). Established in 1922; Viscount Masuzo Nomura, president; membership 42 organizations. Issues "Teisui" (Imperial Fishery). Address: The Sankaido, Tameiké, Akasaka, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU TETSUDO KYOKAI (The Imperial Railway Association). Established in 1898; Dr. Sozaburo Sugiura, president; membership 2,500. Address: 4 Marunouchi 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TETSUDO DOSHIKAI (The Railway Men's Association). Established in 1913; Kaichiro Nezu, president; membership 310 organizations. Issues reports. Address: 4 Marunouchi 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOA KEIZAI CHOSA KYOKU (The East-Asiatic Economic Investigation Bureau). Yoshiaki Hatta, president. Issues "Toa" (East Asia) and "Manchurian Year Book." Address: The Toyo Building, 1 Uchiyamashitacho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOKO KAI (The Light House Keepers' Association). Established in 1923; Keiji Fukuhara, president; membership 569. Publishes "Toko" (Light). Address: Care of the Bureau of Light House, Yokohama.

TOKYO-FU SHOTENKAI RENMEI (The League of Tokyo Merchants). Eastablished in 1931; Hisomu Shimojima, president; membership 350 organizations. Address: Care of the Bureau of Commerce and Industry, Tokyo Prefectural Office, Tokyo.

TOKYO GINKO CLUB (The Tokyo Bankers' Club). Established in 1899; Teruo Akashi, director; membership 500. The purpose is to exchange banking knowledge among members. Address: 8 Marunouchi, Tokyo.

TOKYO JITSUGYO KUMIAI RENGOKAI (The Federation of Tokyo Businessmen's Societies). Seki Hoshino, director. Address: 2 Honcho 1-chomé, Nihonbashi, Tokyo.

TOKYO KOJO KONWAKAI (The Friendly Association of Factories in Tokyo). Estabilished in 1920; the Governor of Tokyo-Fu, president; membership 200. Address: Care of the Bureau of Commerce and Industry of the Tokyo Prefectural Office.

TOKYO KOJO KYOKAI (The Tokyo Factory Association). Established in 1930. The Superintendent General of the Metropolitan Police is in charge of presidency. Membership 14,000. The object is to improve factory administration. Address: care of the Bureau of Factories of the Metropolitan Police Office, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

YOKOHAMA BOEKI KYOKAI (The Yokohama Foreign Trade Association). Established in 1905; Nobuhiro Joko, president; membership 175 houses. The object is to promote foreign trade. Address: 1 Kaigandori, Nakaku, Yokohama.

ZENKOKU BEIKOKU HANBAI KOBAI KUMIAI RENGOKAI (The All-Japan Federation of Sale and Purchase Association of Rice). Established in 1931; Yoshio Udo, president; membership 51 organizations. Issues a daily paper. Address: Care of the Central Board of the Federation of Industrial Associations, 21 Agebacho, Ushigomé, Tokyo.

ZENKOKU CHOCHIKU GINKO KYOKAI (The Savings Banks' Association). Viscount Keizo Shibusawa, executive director. Address: 8 Marunouchi 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

ZENKOKU KEIZAI CHOSAKIKAN RENGOKAI (The All-Japan Federation of Economic Research Institutes). Established in 1920; Keizo Hirayama, president; membership 126 organizations. Issues reports. Address: The Toyo Building, Uchiyamashitacho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

ZENKOKU INSATSUGYO KUMIAI RENGOKAI (The All-Japan Federation Printers' Association). Established in 1921; Keiseki Hikima, president; membership 4,500. Address: 1 Kita-Jimbocho, Kanda, Tokyo.

ZENKOKU YOSANGYO KUMIAI RENGOKAI (The National Sericultural Society). Established in 1932; Baron Masatané Inada, president; membership 10,000 local guilds. Issues a journal. Address: 1 Yurakucho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

ZOSEN KYOKAI (The Ship-building Industry Association). Established in 1897; Koshiro Shiba, president; membership 2,195. The object is to make researches of shipbuilding and technical arts thereof. Issues reports. Address: 8 Marunouchi 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

MORAL AND EDUCATIONAL

BUNGEIKA KYOKAI (Literary Men's Association). Kan Kikuchi, president; membership 303. The purpose is to promote friendship among members and protect their rights. Address: 2 Tamuracho 5-chomé, Shiba, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON KISHO GAKKAI (The Japan Meteorological Society). Established in 1882: Dr. Takematsu Okada, president; membership 531. Publishes weather reports. Address: the Chuo-Kishodai, Otemachi 7-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON KOKUSHI KAI (The Japan Historical Association). Established in 1931; Iichiro (Soho) Tokutomi, president; membership 650. The purpose of the Association is to study Japanese history and guide the thoughts of the nation. Address: The Aoyama Kaikan, Aoyama, Akasaka, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON KYOFUKAI (The Japan Temperance Society). The Society aims at the guidance and enlightenment of people in their thoughts and life. Issues "Kyofu" (Moral Reform). Hisakichi Yamazaki, president; membership 1,000. Address: 31 Kikugawa 1-chomé, Honjo, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON RENGO SEINENDAN (The Japanese Young Men's Association). Established in 1924; Masayasu Kōsaka, director; membership local associations. Issues "Seinen Shimbun" (Young men's News). Address: Kasumigaoka, Yotsuya, Tokyo.

DAITO BUNKA KYOKAI (The Greater Oriental Culture Association). Established in 1923; Teijiro Yamamoto, vice-president. The purpose is to advance the Oriental culture and publishes "Nippon Shinron" (Neo-Review of Japan). Address: 7 Fujimicho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DENKI GAKKAI (The Electrological Society). Established in 1888; Dr. Takeshi Nishi, president; membership 3,982. Address: 3 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DENKI TUSHIN GAKKAI (The Institute of Electrical Communicating Engineers of Japan). Established in 1917; Dr. Hidetsugu Yagi, president; membership 6,100. Issues a magazine. Address: The Kaijo Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

DOBOKU GAKKAI (The Civil-Engineering Society). Established in 1913; Dr. Muneharu Okodo, president; membership 6,300. Issues "Doboku Gakkai." Address: 6 Marunouchi 3-chomé, Tokyo.

EISEI KOGYO KYOKAI (The Sanitary Industry Association). Established in 1927; Ihei Sugimura, president; membership 1,126. The purpose of the Association is to make researches of foodstuffs. Issues "Eisei Kogyo" (Sanitary Industry). Address: Kenchiku Kaikan, 1 Ginza 3-chomé, Tokyo.

GAKUSHI KAI (The Allumini Association of the Imperial University) Baron Yoshio Sakatani, president. Address: 1 Nishikicho, Kanda, Tokyo.

GAN KENKYUKAI (The Japanese Foundation for Cancer Research). Established in 1908: Dr. Mataro Nagayo, president; membership 1,200. The Association makes a study of cancer and issues a magazine "Gan" (Cancer). Address: 2615 Nishisugamo 2-chomé, Toshima, Tokyo.

HOGAKU KYOKAI (The Legal Research Society). Kotaro Tanaka, president. Address: the Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

HOKEN GAKKAI (The Insurance Association). Established in 1906; Dr. Kiyo-

suke Awazu, president; membership 450. The object is to study the theory and practice of insurance and publish "Hoken Gaku" (Insurance). Address: Care of the Life Insurance Companies Association, 3 Marunouchi 4-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

ISHIN SHIRYO HENSANKAI (The Editorial Office of the Restoration Period Meterials). Kentaro Kaneko, president. Address: Sannencho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KAGAKU CHISHIKI FUKYUKAI (The Association for tne Propagation of Scientific Knowledge). Established in 1921; Dr. Jinkichi Inouye, president. The Association issues "Kagaku Chishiki" (Scientific Knowledge). Address: 11 Nishikicho 1-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

KAHEI GAKKAI (Seminary for Research on Fire Arms). Dr. Shozo Arisaka, president. Address: Zoheigaku Kyoshitsu, the Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

KEIDAI KEIZAI GAKKAI (The Economics Institute of the Kyoto Imperial University). Dr. Masao Kanbé, supervisor. Address: the Kyoto Imperial University, Kujoyama, Kyoto.

KENCHIKU GAKKAI (The Architecture Institute). Dr. Shozo Uchida, president: membership 8,000. Issues a magazine, "Kenchiku Zasshi" (Architecture). Address: 1 Ginza Nishi 3-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

KIKAI GAKKAI (The Mechanics Research Institute). Established in 1897; Dr. Moichiro Uchimaru, president; membership 8,600. Issues "Kikai Gakkai" (Mechanics). Address: The Marunouchi Building, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KOGYO KAGAKUKAI (The Industrial Chemistry Institute). Established in 1898; Dr. Katsumoto Atsuki, president; membership 4,000. Publishes "Kogyo Kagaku" (Industrial Chemistry). Address: The Yurakukan, Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KOKKA GAKKAI (The Statecraft Society). Established in 1,888; Baron Yoshio Sakatani, president; membership 2,000. Address: Seminary-room of the bollege of Law, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

KOKUGO KYOKAI (The Japanese Language Research Society). Established in 1930; Prince Fumimaro Konoyé, president; membership 700. Address: The Daini Daidoseimeikan, 2 Kyobashi, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

KOKURITSUKOYEN KYOKAI (The National Park Association). Established in 1927; Marquis Moritatsu Hosokawa, president. Issues "Kokuritsu Koyen" (National Parks). Address: Care of the Bureau of Public Health, the Department of Home Affairs, Tokyo.

KOKUSAIHO GAKKAI (The Institute of International Law). Established in 1897; Dr. Saburo Yamada, president; membership 200. Address: the Seminary-room of the College of Law, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

KOKUSHI KAIKO KAI (The National History Retrospection Society). Established in 1929; Marquis Nobutsuné Okuma, president; membership 210. Issues "Kokushi Kaiko" (National History Retrospection). Address: Care of Marquis Okuma, Aoyama 9-chomé, Tokyo.

KOMIN KYOIKU KAI (The Civil Education Society). Established in 1925; Baron Yoshio Sakatani, president; membership 25,000. Issues "Komin" (Civics): Address: Yurakukan, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

KOSEIKAI (The Industrial Policy Association). Established in 1918; Viscount Dr. Tadashiro Inoue, president; membership 3,500. Issues "Kosei" (Industrial Policy). Address: Yurakucho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KOTEN KOKYUSHO (The Institute for the Japanese Classic Literature). Established in 1882; Marquis Yukitada Sasaki, president; membership 1,300. Issues an organ paper. Address: 9 Wakagicho, Shibuya, Tokyo.

MEIJI SEITOKU KINEN GAKKAI (The Memorial Institute of the Emperor Meiji). Count Hirotaro Hayashi, president. Address: 2 Maruyamacho, Koishikawa, Tokyo.

MITSUBISHI KEIZAI KENKYUSHO (The Mitsubishi Economics Research Institute). Kikuo Aoki, president. Issues reports. Address: 8 Marunouchi, 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NAKAYAMA BUNKA KENKYUSHO (The Nakayama Cultural Research Institute). Dr. Yū Fujikawa, president. Address: The Toyo Building, Uchiyamashitacho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NAWA KONCHU KENKYUSHO (The Nawa Entomological Laboratory). Umekichi Nawa, president. Address: 2 Omiyamachi, Gifu prefecture.

NENRYO KYOKAI (The Fuel Association). Established in 1927. Baron Toshiatsu Sakamoto, president; membership 2,500. The Association aims at the progress of fuel-power industries in Japan. Issues "Nenryo Kyokai," association paper. Address: care of the Imperial Fuel Research Institute, Kawaguchimachi, Saitama prefecture.

NIPPON BYORI GAKKAI (The Japan Pathological Society). Masaichi Fukushi, president. Address: the Tokyo Imperial University, Tokyo.

NIPPON CHIKUSAN GAKKAI (The Japan Livestock Breeding Society). Ryoji Iwazumi, president. Address: the Seminary-room of Agriculture, the Tokyo Imperial University, Tokyo.

NIPPON CHIRI GAKKAI (The Japan Geographical Society). Dr. Takeo Katô, president; membership, about 250. Address: the Seminary-room of Geography, the Tokyo Imperial University, Tokyo.

NIPPON DORYOKU KYOKAI (The Japan Power Association). Established in 1927; Keizaburo Hashimoto, president; membership 120 organizations & 100 individuals. Issues "Doryoku" (Motive Power). Address: The Yurakukan, 3 Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON EISEIKAI (The Japan Sanitation Society). Eiichi Baba, president; membership 600. Address: 6 Otemachi, 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON ESPERANTO GAKKAI (The Japan Esperanto Society). Established in 1919; Wasaburo Oishi, president; membership 1,350. Issues a magazine. Address: 13 Motomachi 1-chomé, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON GAKUJITSU KYOKAI Established in 1924; Rokuzô Takebe, president; membership 2,000. The Association aims at the advancement of every branch of sciences in Japan. Issues reports. Address: Care of the College of Medicine, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON GAKUSEI KOKU RENMEI (The Japan Students' Association of Aeronautics). Established in 1930; Kazuhiko Kawachi, acting-president; membership 350. Address: The Tokyo Asahi Shimbun, Tokyo.

NIPPON HAKUBUTSUKAN KYOKAI (The Japanese Association of Museums). Naohiko Masaki, president; membership 198. Address: Shakai Kyoikuka, the Department of Education, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON INSATSU GAKKAI (The Japanese Society of Printing Technology). Established in 1928 in Tokyo; Dr. Michiya Yano, president; membership 600. The institution has as its object study of printing techique, support the interest of printing industry by lectures and publications. Address: c/o The Tokyo Higher Industrial Art School, Nishi Shibaura, Shiba, Tokyo.

NIPPON ISHIKAI (The Japan Medical Association). Dr. Taichi Kitajima, president. Address: 5 Surugadai 2-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON JIDO GAKKAI (The Japan Puericulture Association). Established in 1897; Dr. Yu Fujikawa, president; membership 1,000. Publishes "Jido Kenkyu" Study on Children). Address: 25 Muramatsucho, Nihonbashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KAGAKU KAI (The Chemical Society of Japan). Bennosuke Kubota, president; membership about 1,700. Address: Faculty of Science, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo. Tokyo.

NIPPON KAGAKU KENKYUKAI (The Japan Chemistry Association). Established in 1926; Dr. Rikô Majima, president; membership 1,200. Issues "Nippon Kagaku" (Japrnese Chemistry). Address: 10 Komagafukurocho, Sendai.

NIPPON KAZAN GAKKAI (The Japan Volcanological Society). Established in 1932; Takuji Ogawa, president; membership 1,200. Issues reports. Address: Jimbocho, 1-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON KEKKAKUBYO GAKKAI (The Japanese Association for Tuberculosis). Established in 1928; Dr. Kanji Tsuji, president: membership 1,600. Issues a periodical "Kekkaku" (Tuberculosis). Address: The Tokyo Municipal Sanatorium, Egota, Nakano, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOGAKU KAI (The Japanese Engineering Association). Established in 1881: Dr. Bunji Mano, president; membership 12 associations. Address: 2 Marunouchi 1-chomé, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOTSU KYOKAI (The Japanese Traffic Association). Established in 1929; Baron Yoshiro Sakatani, president; membership 200 companies. The object is to provide means for the connection of traffic organs in Japan. Publishes Association reports. Address: The Yusen Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NIPPON MINZOKU GAKKAI (The Institute for the Study of Ancient Customs and Manners). Dr. Kurakichi Shiratori, president. Address: 8 Surugadai 1-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON MINZOKU EISEI GAKKAI (The Japan Race-Hygienics Society). Dr. Sen Nagai, president. Address: Medical Department, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON NOGEI KAGAKUKAI (The Japan Agricultural Chemistry Association). Dr. Umetaro Suzuki, president, membership 2,000. Address: Agricultural Department, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON RAJIO ASSOCIATION (The Japanese Radio Association). Established in 1925; Tsuyoshi Kajii, president; membership 3,000. The purpose of the Association is to spread a knowledge of electric wave and that of the application of it. Its organ is "Rajio no Nippon" (Japanese Ra-

dio). Address: Care of Denkikyokai, 3 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON ROMAJIKAI (The Japan Roman Letters Society). Established in 1921; Dr. Aikitsu Tanakadaté, president; membership 30,000. Publishes a periodical "Romaji Sekai" (Roman Letters World). Address: The Mitsugashi Building, 1 Yurakucho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON RODO KAGAKU KENKYUSHO (The Japanese Institute for Science of Labour). Established in 1937; Dr. Yoshihito Teruoka, president. Publishes "The Japanese Journal of Science of Labour." Address: Aoyama Kitamachi 5-chomé, Akasaka, Tokyo.

NIPPON SAKUMOTSU GAKKAI (The Japan Agricultural Products Society). Suketeru Kikkawa, president. Address: Faculty of Agriculture, the Tokyo Imperial University, Tokyo.

NIPPON SHAKAIGAKU KAI (The Japan Sociological Society). Dr. Teizo Toda, president. Adress: the Seminary-room of sociology, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON SHASHIN GAKKAI (The Society of Scientific Photography of Japan). Established in 1933; Lieutenant-General Hitoshi Omura, president; membership 318. The Society has its object study of the theory and practice of photography. Address: c/o The Tokyo Higher Industrial Art School, Nishi Shibaura, Shiba, Tokyo.

NIPPON SUGAKU BUTSURI GAKKAI (The Japan Mathematics and Physics Association). Established in 1877; Dr. Sakuhei Fujihara, president; membership 1,500. Publishes reports. Address: The Science Department, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON TOSHOKAN KYOKAI (The Japan Library Association). Established in 1892; Kiichi Matsumoto, president; membership 1,555. Publishes "Toshokan" (Library). Address: the Department of Education, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON YAKUZAISHIKAI (The Japan Pharmacologists' Society). Kametaro Kawai, president; membership 16,879. Address: The Kojunsha Building, 4 Ginza 6-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON ZOEN KYOKAI (The Japan Gardening Society). Established in 1925; Dr. Tsuyoshi Tamura, president; membership 200. Issues "Zoen Geijutsu" (Art of Garden Building). Address: 1 Sakaedori, Shibuya, Tokyo.

NOGYO DOBOKU GAKKAI (The Agricultural Engineering Society). Teiji Tanaka, president. Address: The Agricultural Department, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

NOGYOKEIZAI GAKKAI (The Agricultural Economics Society). Tadaatsu Ishiguro, president; membership 850. Address: The Agricultural Department, the Tokyo Imperial University, Tokyo.

NOJI DENKA GAKKAI (The Agricultural Electrification Society). Dr. Viscount Masatoshi Okochi, president. Address: The Denki Club, Yurakucho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

OHARA SHAKAI MONDAI KENKYUSHO (The Ohara Institute for Research in Social Problems). Established in 1919; Dr. Iwasaburo Takano, president. Issues a journal. Address: Reijinmachi, Tennoji, Osaka.

RIKAGAKU KENKYUSHO (The Institute of Physics and Chemistry). Established in 1917; Dr. Viscount Masatoshi Okochi, president; membership 1,061. Publishes bulletins. Address: Komagomé-Kamifujimayecho, Hongo. Tokyo.

SHAKAI KEIZAI KENKYUSHO (The Social and Economic Problems Institute). Dr. Iwasaburo Takano, president. Address: The Tameiké Building, Akasaka, Tokyo.

SHIGAKKAI (The Historical Research Institute). Established in 1889; Dr. Sanji Mikami, president; membership 1,400. Publishes a magazine. Address: the Office of Historical Materials, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

SHOMEI GAKKAI (The Illumination Research Institute). Established in 1916; Yoshijiro Ishikawa, president; membership 1,700. Publishes "Shomei Gakkai" a periodical. Address: 3Yurakucho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU KYOIKU KAI (The Japanese Educational Association). Established in 1883; Hidejiro Nagata, president. Address: Hitotsubashidori, Kanda, Tokyo.

TEIYU RINRI KAI (The Society for the Study of Ethics). Established in 1897; Genyoshi Kuwaki and Masanori Oshima, directors, membership 50. Address: Care of the Dainippon Tosho Co., 1 Ginza, Tokyo.

TETSUGAKU KAI (The Philosophy Research Society). Dr. Tetsujiro Inouyé, president; membership 800. Address: Care of the Department of Literature, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

TOA DOBUNKAI Established in 1898; Prince Fumimaro Konoye, president; membership 3,000. The purpose is to promote mutual friendship and culture between Japan and China. Address: Sannencho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOKYO TOKEI KYOKAI (The Tokyo Statistics Association). Established in 1877;

Baron Yoshiro Sakatani, president; membership 516. Publishes an organ magazine. Address: 3 Nishi Ginza, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

POLITICAL AND SOCIAL MOVEMENT

DAI NIPPON KOKUSUIKAI SOHONBU (The Headquarters of Japan Nationalistic Association). Keisaburo Moriyama, director. Address: 342, Kitashinagawa 6-chomé, Shiba, Tokyo.

DAI NIPPON SEIGIDAN (The League for the Political Justice of Japan). Eizo Sakai, director. Address: Minamicho, Takanawa, Shiba, Tokyo.

DAI NIPPON SEISANTO Established in 1931; Ekizo Yoshida, president; membership 150,000. The purpose of the party is to build an economically strong foundation for the nation. Address: The Shoko Building, 1 Uchisaiwaicho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DAI NIPPON SHONENDAN RENMEI (The Imperial Headquarters of Boy Scouts of Japan). Isamu Takeshita, president; membership 102,510. Issues "Shonendan Kenkyu" (Study of Boy Scouts). Address: The Department of Education, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KANTO SHOHI KUMIAI RENMEI (The Federation of Eastern Japan Consumers' Trade Unions). Nisaburo Tozawa, director. Address: Oshimamachi, Joto, Tokyo,

KOKURYU KAI Bin Akao, president. The purpose of the organization is to work for the exaltation of Japanese nationality. Address: 75 Nenokami, Mikawajima, Tooky.

KOKURYU KAI Ryohei Uchida, president. The Association has a spirit of nationalism as its principle. Address: 2 Nagatacho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KOKUSUI TAISHU TO (The Nationalistic Democratic Party). Ryoichi Sasagawa, president. Address: 28, Kitahama, 1-chomé, Higashiku, Osaka.

NIPPON KOKUMIN KINSHU DOMEI (The National Temperance League). Ryotaro Hayashi, director; membership 350,000. Issues "Abstinent Japan" and others. Address: 2 Nishikanda 1-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON SHOHI KUMIAI DOMEI (The Japan Consumers' Union). Nisaburo Totsu, director. Address: 2 Oshimamachi, Joto, Tokyo.

NIPPON SUIHEISHA Established in 1922; Umekichi Minami, director. The organization works for the social emancipation of "Eta people" and the general improvement of their status. Address: Takano Kitamachi, Kamikyoku, Kyoto.

SHICHISEI GIDAN Dr. Arata Ninakawa, president. The Society aims at the political justice as well as the exaltation of nationalism. Address: Araijuku, Omori, Tokyo.

ZENKOKU SUIHEI SHA (The Federation of the Suiheisha). Jiichiro Matsumoto, director. Address: 22 Sakaecho 4-chomé, Naniwaku, Osaka.

TRADE UNIONS

KAIGUN RODO KUMIAI RENMEI (The League of the Naval Workers' Unions). Established in 1924. Sukeichi Hayashi, director; membership, 7 unions with 39,810 members. Address: 15 Hondori 12, Kure.

KAIIN KYOKAI (The Seamen's Union). Established in 1910. Hidekichi Koizumi, director; membership 14,000. Address: 8 Shimo Yamatedori, Kobeku, Kobé.

KANGYO RODO SODOMEI (The Federation of the Government Employees Trade Unions). Established in 1924. Ukichi Nishiura, director; membership, 8 unions with 18,783 members. Address: 860 Ecchumachi, Higashiku, Osaka.

NIPPON KAIIN KUMIAI (The Japan Seamen's (lower) Society). Established in 1921. Choei Horiuchi, director; membership 100,460. Address: Kaigandori, Kobé.

NIPPON KOTSU RODO SORENMEI (The League of the Japan Transportation Workers' Unions). Established in 1926. Suematsu Nohira, director; membership 6 unions with 17,370 members. Address: 8 Tsukiji 3-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOWAN JUGYOIN KUMIAI (The Federation of the Japan Port Workers' Unions). Established in 1933. Genki Taguchi, director; membership; 12,195. Address: 3 Kaigandori, Kobeku, Kobé.

NIPPON NOMIN KUMIAI (The Japan Farmers' Union). Established in 1922. Genjiro Sugiyama, director. Address: Tamuracho 1-chomé, Shiba, Tokyo.

NIPPON RODO KUMIAI KAIGI (Japan Trade Union Council). Established in 1932. Komakichi Matsuoka, president; membership 10 unions and 296,682 members. Address: Kaigandori, Kobé.

NIPPON RODO KUMIAI SORENGO (Japan Whole Trade Unions' League). Established in 1926. Kyuzo Takayama, president; membership, 41 unions with 27,126 members. Address: Shikokumachi, Mita, Shiba, Tokyo.

NIPPON RODO SODOMEI (The Federation of the Japan Trade Unions). Established in 1912. Komakichi Matsuoka, director; membership 97 unions with 53,060 members. Address: Shikokumachi, Mita, Shiba, Tokyo.

NIPPON RODO SORENMEI (The Lea-

gue of the Japan Trade Unions). Established in 1922. Shinichi Yagi, director; membership 14 unions with 8,191 members. Address: 73 Aioicho, Kitaku, Osaka.

NIPPON SANGYO RODO CLUB (Japan Industrial Labour Club) Established in 1933. Kumazo Ishii, director; membership 18 unions with 20,282 members. Address: Shintsukuda-nahimachi, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON ZOSEN RODO KUMIAI (The Japan Ship-building Labourers' Union). Kumazo Ishii, director, Address: Tsukiji Shinmachi, Uragamachi, Kanagawa prefecture.

SHIN NIPPON KAIIN KUMIAI (The New Japan Seamen's (lower) Society). Established in 1935. Sotaro Monji, director; membership 4,700. Address: Sakaemachi, Kobé.

ZENKOKU NOMIN KUMIAI (The All-Japan Farmers' Union). Established in 1928. Motojiro Sugiyama, director. Address: 663 Morikoji, Asahiku, Osaka.

ZENKOKU RODO KUMIAI DOMEI (The Federation of All-Japan Labourers' Unions). Established in 1930. Mitsu Kono, director; membership 36 unions with 46,512 members. Address: Higashi Fukudamachi, Kanda, Tokyo.

SOCIAL WORK

ASAHI SHIMBUN SHAKAIJIGYODAN (The Social Work Department of the "Asahi" Newspaper Office). Seiichi Ueno, director. Address: 3 Nakanoshima, Kitaku, Osaka.

CHUO SHAKAI JIGYO KYOKAI (The National Social Works Association). Established in 1908; Count Keigo Kiyoura, president; membership 750. The purpose is to unify all social work institutions in Japan. Issues "Shakai Jigyo" (Social works). Address: Care of the Bureau of Social Affairs, the Department of Home Affairs, Tokyo.

CHUO YUWA JIGYO KYOKAI Established in 1925; Baron Kiichiro Hiranuma, president. The purpose is to work for the harmonization of different classes of people, giving lectures from time to time. Issues "Yuwa Jigyo" (Harmonization Works). Address: Care of the Bureau of Social Affairs, the Department of Home Affairs, Tokyo.

DOJUN KAI (The Mutually Benefitting Society). Established in 1924; Kogoro Miyazawa, president. The purpose is to build and rent house and so on. Issues "Dojun Kai," Address: 2 Uchisaiwaicho 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

FUKUDEN-KAI Established in 1879; Count Hideo Yamada, director; membership 2,000. The society has an end in view to protect children and runs a kindergarten to carry out its purpose. Issues "Fuku Den" (Benevolence). Address: Miyashirocho, Shibuya, Tokyo.

HAKU JUJIKAI (The White-Cross Society). Chuichi Ariyoshi, president. The society aims at the extermination of tuberculosis. Address: 1050 Yoyogi-Oyama, Shibuya, Tokyo.

HOMEN IIN RENMEI (The League of the District Committee). Established in 1932; Count Keigo Kiyoura, president; membership 40,000. The purpose is to keep connection among the District Committees for social relief works. Address: 2 Uchisaiwaicho 2-chomé, Kojimachi Tokyo.

HOSEI KAI (The Central Ex-prisoner's Aid Association of Japan). Established in 1914; Kisaburo Suzuki, president; membership local organizations. The purpose of the society is to aid, propect and culture exprisoners. Issues "Hogo Jiho" (Protection Times). Address: 7 Sanbancho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

JIDO AIGO KAI (The Association for the Love and Protection of Children). Established in 1926; Iwao Yamazaki, president. The purpose is to bring up and protect the children of weak constitution. Address: 2 Uchisaiwaicho 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KAKUSEI KAI Established in 1911; Isoo Abé, president; membership 11,200. The object is to encourage moral and social movements, aiming at the prohibition. Issues a journal "Kakusei" (Purification). Address: Otsuka Nakamachi, Koishikawa, Tokyo.

KYUSEIGUN HONYEI (The Headquarters of the Salvation Army). Established in 1895; Gumpei Yamamuro, commander; membership 34,378. Issues "Toki no Koé" (The Warcry). Address: 17 Jinbocho 2-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON KAIIN EKISAI KAI (The Japan Seamen's Aid Association). Established in 1880; Rentaro Mizuno, president; membership 180,000. The purpose of the Association is to give aid to seamen and protect them. Issues "Umi no Sekai" (World of Seas). Address: 51 Akashimachi, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KEKKAKU YOBO KYOKAI (The Anti-Tuberculosis Association of Japan). Established in 1913; Prince Kuniyuki Tokugawa, president; membership 156. Issues "Jinsei Kofuku" (Human Happiness). Address: 5 Otemachi 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON SEKIJUJI SHA (The Red Cross Society of Japan). Established in 1877;

Prince Iyesato Tokugawa, president; membership 3,000,000. The work of the Society is relief work, prevention of diseases, etc. Issues "Haku Ai" (Universal Love). Address: Shiba Park, Shiba, Tokyo.

KEI FUKU KAI Established in 1924; Count Keigo Kiyoura, president. The purpose of the organization is to give aid to private social work enterprises. Address: 2 Uchisaiwaicho 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

OSAKA MAINICHI SHIMBUN SHAKAIJIGYO DAN (The Social work department of the Mainichi News Paper Office). Address: 2 Dojimauyé, Kitaku, Osaka.

RAIBYO YOBO KYOKAI (The Anti-Leprosy Society). Established in 1931; Viscount Keigo Kiyoura, president; membership 28,560. The purpose of the Association is to prevent and eradicate leprosy. Address: Care of the Bureau of public Health, the Department of Home Affairs, Tokyo,

SAISEI KAI Established 1911; Hisatada Hirose, director; membership 49,332. The purpose of the organization is to treat patients gratis. Issues, "Sai Sei" (Saving Lives). Address: 1 Akabanecho, Shiba, Tokyo.

SAN IKU KAI Established in 1918; Itsuo Fujita, director. The purpose of the organization is to give assistance to mothers in the matter of bringing up children. Issues "San Iku," a journal. Address: 19 Taiheimachi 3-chomé, Honjo, Tokyo.

SHOHEIIN (The Hospital for the wounded soldiers). Takeshi Harada, president; Address: 373 Fusai, Okubomura, Ashikara-Shimogori, Kanagawa Prefecture.

TEIKOKU SUINAN KYUSAI KAI (The Imperial Sea-Disaster Relief Society). Established in 1889; Count Yorinaga Matsudaira, president; membership 169,100. Issues "Umi" (sea). Address: 1 Sagacho 1-chomé, Fukagawa, Tokyo.

TOKYO TEIDAI SETTLEMENT (The Tokyo Imperial University Settlement). Established in 1923; Dr. Shigeto Hozumi, president; membership 400. There are several departments; such as, Legal Advisory, Dispensary, Day Nursery, Night School, and Social Study, etc. The students call their work "University Extension Movement." Address: 7 Yokogawabashi 4-chomé, Honjo, Tokyo.

YOKU FU KAI Established in 1925; Seizaburo Fukuhara, director. The work of the organization is to succour aged people who have no body to depend on. Issues reports. Address: 3 Kami-Takaido, Suginami, Tokyo.

RELIGIOUS

NIPPON KIRISUTOKYO REMMEI (The National Christian Council of Japan). Mitsuru Tomita, president. Address: 5 Nishikicho 1-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON KIRISUTOKYO SEINEN DOMEI (The Japan Christian Young Men's Union). Dr. Tadaoki Yamamoto, president. Address: Omotesarugakucho, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON NICHIYOGAKKO KYOKAI (The National Sunday School Association of Japan). Dr. Tadaoki Yamamoto, president. Address: Nishikicho 1-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

ZENKOKU SHINSHOKU KAI (The all-Japan Shinto Union). Rentaro Mizuno, president. Address: Wakagicho, Shibuya, Tokyo.

ZEN NIPPON BUKKYO SEINENKAI REMMEI (The League of Buddhist Y.M.A. of Japan). Keigan Omura, president. Address: 10 Hitotsubashidori, Kanda, Tokyo.

FINE ARTS

KOKUMIN BIJUTSU KYOKAI (The National Art Association). Established in 1931; Dr. Viscount Masatoshi Okochi, president; membership 189. The object of the Association is to study and promote every style of fine arts. Issues "Kokumin Bijutsu" (National Art). Address: 51 Kiridoshisaka-machi, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIKA KAI. Established in 1914; Tokusaburo Masamuné, director; membership 23. The object is to promote the production of new style fine arts. Address: 17 Banshumachi, Yotsuya, Tokyo.

NIPPON BIJUTSU IN (The Institute of Japanese Art). Established in 1914; Taikan Yokoyama, president; membership 179. The purpose is to study Japanese fine arts and hold general exhibitions for the works prepared by those interested. Issues reports occasionally. Address: Kami-misaki-minamicho, Yanaka, Shitaya, Tokyo.

NIPPON BIJUTSU KYOKAI (The Japanese Institute of Fine Arts). Established in 1883; Count Kentaro Kaneko, president; membership 1,115. The object is to study fine arts and hold art exhibitions for the works prepared by members. Issues reports. Address: Ueno Park, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOGEI BIJUTSU KAI (The Japan Applied Arts Association). Established in 1926; membership 250. The pupose of the Association is to aid the advancement of applied arts in Japan. Issues reports. Address: 16 Yanaka Majimacho, Shitaya, Tokyo.

NIPPON JIYU GADAN (The Free Painting Society of Japan). Established in 1919; secretaries in charge by turn; membership

10. Address: Care of Mr. Hirota, Demizu, Karasumarudori, Kyoto.

NIPPON SOGAKA KYOKAI (The Japan Illustrators' Association). Established in 1928; Seiko Unno, president; membership 73. Issues reports. Address: 180 Kogaicho, Azabu, Tokyo.

NIPPON SUISAIGA KAI (The Water-Colour Painting Society of Japan). Established in 1913; secretaries in charge; membership 135. Issues Mizué (Water-Colour Painting). Address: 2 Yushimatenjincho 3-chomé, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON UKIYOE KYOKAI (The Japan Ukiyoé Association). Established in 1922; Marquis Yorisada Tokugawa, president; membership 300. Issues "Ukiyoé;No Kenkyu" (Study of Ukiyoé). Address: Care of Ochiai, 9 Fujimicho 5-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

SHUNYO KAI Established in 1922; Genichiro Adachi, president; membership 38. Issues reports. Address: c/o Mr. Adachi, 422 Denenchofu, Omori, Tokyo.

SUIKO KAI Established in 1924; secretaries in charge; membership 8. The purpose is to study and protect old art works. Issues "Ezuroku" (Reprints). Address: Care of Mr. Matsuda, Osaki, Chojamaru, Shinagawa, Tokyo.

TAIHEIYO GA KAI (The Pacific Art Society). Established in 1902; secretaries in charge; membership 53. The object is to study the Occidental art sculpture. Address: 1 Yanaka Mashimacho, Shitaya, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU GEIJUTSU IN (The Imperial Art Academy). Established in 1937; Tōru Shimizu, president; membership 72; Object, make study of important matters concerning fine arts, music and literature and answer to the questions put before them by the Education Minister on those subjects. Address: The Ministry of Education, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

TODAI HOGA KAI Established in 1925; Somei Yuki, president; membership 257. This organization exists for the study of Japanese art. Address: Care of Mr. Kano, 68 Kanasugi Hamamachi, Shiba, Tokyo.

MUSIC

BUKKYO ONGAKU KYOKAI (The Buddhistic Music Association). Established in 1928; Marquis Tsuneyasu Nakamikado, president; membership Buddhist Associations. Address: Care of the Bureau of Religion, the Department of Home Affairs, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON SAKKYOKUKA KYOKAI (The Japan Composers' Association). Rentaro Mizuno, president. Address: c/o Mr. Komatsu, 435 Asagaya 3-chomé, Suginami, Tokyo.

DOSEI KAI (The "Dosei-Kai" Music Society). Established in 1894; Kaju Norisugi, president; membership 812. Issues reports. Address: Care of Tokyo Academy of Music, Ueno Park, Shitaya, Tokyo.

HOSHO KAI (The Hosho Association). Established in 1911; Count Yoritoshi Matsudaira, president; membership 1,400. The purpose of the Association is to encourage the Hosho School of "No". Address: 1 Motomachi, Hongo, Tokyo.

KAIGUN GUNGAKU TAI. (The Japanese Navy Band). Established in 1908; Seigo Naito, head; membership 70. Address: Minami-Odawaracho, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

KANZE KAI Established in 1900; Sakon Kanzé, president; membership 800. The purpose of this organization is to study the Kanzé school "No" music. Issues a journal "Kanzé." Address: 10 Shin-Ogawacho 2-chomé, Ushigomé, Tokyo.

KISARAGI SHA (The Kisaragi Society). Established in 1910; Ikko Motoori, head; membership 60. The purpose is to study music in general. Address: The Tsutsumi Building, Shimbashi, Tokyo.

KIYOMOTO KAI Established in 1914; Enju Tayu, head. The object is to study "Kiyomoto-bushi." Address: 48 Takanawa, Shiba, Tokyo.

NAGAUTA FUYOKAI Established in 1912; Sakichi Kineya, head; membership 300. The purpose is to study the music of this school. Address: 9 Hirakawacho, 4 chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOKYO ONGAKU KYOKAI (The Japan Symphony Association). Established in 1920; Kosaku Yamada, leader; membership 50. The purpose is to promote and propagate symphony. Issues "Kokyogaku" (Symphony). Address: 29 Gobancho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KYOIKU ONGAKU KYOKAI (The Educational Music Association of Japan). Established in 1927; Kaju Norisugi, president; membership 4,500. The purpose is to promote educational music. Issues "Kyoiku Ongaku" (Educational Music). Address: care of the Tokyo Academy of Music, Ueno Park, Shitaya, Tokyo.

SHOKYOKU KYOKAI (The Koto Music Association). Established in 1917; Keishō Imai, president; membership 500. The purpose is to study and propagate "koto" music. Issues "Sankyoku" (Three Instruments). Address: care of Mr. Imai, 225 Motomuracho, Azabu, Tokyo.

TOIN KAI Lead by Shizué Fujikagé.

The purpose of the Society is to establish a new school of "Buyo" (Japanese dance) and to promote this school. The Society issues pamphlets. Address: 6 Kasumicho, Azabu, Tokyo.

TOKIWAZU KENKYU KAI (The "Tokiwazu" Performance Association). Matsuo Tayu, president. The purpose is to give recitals. Address: 1013 Nishigahara, Takinogawa, Tokyo.

TOKYO MANDOLIN CLUB. Established in 1914; Shingi Miyata, head; membership 40. The purpose is to study mandolin and guitar. Issues "Ongaku Shimbun" (Music News). Address: 8 Tansumachi, Azabu, Tokyo.

TOKYO ORATORIO KYOKAI (The Tokyo Oratorio Society). Established in 1925; membership 60. The purpose is to promote and propagate religious music. Address: Care of the Sunday School Association, 1 Mitoshirocho 7-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

TOYAMA GAKKO GUNGAKUTAI (The Military Band of the Toyama School). Established in 1896; Kuniichi Okada, 2nd class music officer, leader; membership 120. Address: Toyamacho, Ushigomé, Tokyo.

UTAZAWA KAI Established in 1922; Shibakin Utazawa, president; membership 100. The Association aims at the practice and study of "Utazawa." Address: 3 Kobikicho 6-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

YOKYOKU KENKYU KAI (The "Yokyoku" Study Association). Established in 1913; Shin-ami Nakamura, president; membership 763. The object is to study and propagate the Kanzé School "Utai." Issues Yokyoku Shimpo (Yokyoku News). Address: 24 Daibancho, Yotsuya, Tokyo.

ZEN NIPPON HARMONICA RENMEI (All-Japan Harmonica League). Established 1927; Taiko Mano, head; membership 50,000. The purpose is to study harmonica music. Issues "Harmonica News" Address: 853 Nippori 8-chomé, Arakawa, Tokyo.

SOCIAL FRIENDSHIP

DENKI CLUB (The Electric Enterprisers' Club). Established in 1922; Keijiro Inouyé, president. Address: 3 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

FUKUOKA ROTARY CLUB Saburo Inuzuka, president. membership 44. Address: Ginko Shukaisho, Fukuoka.

KAZOKU KAIKAN (The Peers' Hall). Established in 1874; Prince Nobusuké Takatsukasa, president; membership 1,255. Address: 1 Sannencho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KOBE ROTARY CLUB The aim is to improve civic service and to advance international good-will. Hiroshi Kurose, president. Address: Oriental Hotel, Kaigandori, Kobé.

KOJUNSHA Established in 1879; Dr. Kiroku Hayashi, president; membership 1,780. Address: 4 Ginza 6-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

KYOTO ROTARY CLUB Shotaro Shimomura, president. Address: Kyoto Hotel, Kawaramachi, Kyoto.

MARUNOUCHI CLUB Senichiro Horié, president. Address: The Marunouchi Building, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NAGOYA ROTARY CLUB Risaburo Toyoda, president. Address: The Nagoya Shoko Kaigisho, Nakaku, Nagoya.

NIHON (NIPPON) CLUB Established in 1898; Prince Iyesato Tokugawa, president; membership 930. Address: 12 Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOGYO CLUB (The Industrial Club of Japan). Established in 1917; Shintaro Ohashi, president; membership 1,030. Issues reports. Address: Care of the Nihon Club, 2 Marunouchi 1-chomé, Tokyo.

OSAKA CLUB Hanji Iijima, president. Address: 5 Imabashi, Higashiku, Osaka.

OSAKA ROTARY CLUB Chozaburo Kusumoto, president. Address: 6 Imabashi 4-chomé, Higashiku, Osaka.

TAIWAN CLUB Yukisuké Sakai, president. Address: The Showa Building Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOKYO CLUB Address: Sannencho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOKYO ROTARY CLUB Yoshikiyo Oshima, president. Address: The Marunouchi Building, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

YOKOHAMA ROTARY CLUB Yozo Nomura, president. Address: 1 Hayashicho, Kanagawaku, Yokohama.

SPORTS AND ATHLETICS

DAI NIPPON BUTOKU KAI Established in 1908; General Soroku Suzuki, president; membership 2,500,000. The purpose of this organization is to study and encourage martial arts. Issues a journal. Address: Okazaki Park, Koyto.

DAI NIPPN SUMO KYOKAI (The Wrestling Association of Japan). Established in 1925; Masanori Hirosé, chief director; membership 1,000. Issues "Kaku-do" (Art of Wrestling). Address: 25 Motomachi, Honjo, Tokyo.

DAI NIPPON TAIIKU KYOKAI (The Japan Amateur Athletic Association). Established in 1907; Matahiko Oshima, president; membership 16 organizations. The object is to encourage and guide

athletics and physical culture. Issues a journal. Address: The Marunouchi Building, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KODO KAN Established in 1909; Jigoro Kano, president; membership about 130,000. The purpose is to train body and mind by means of Jujutsu. Issues "Judo" and one more magazine. Address: 1 Koishikawamachi, Koishikawa, Tokyo.

MEIJI JINGU TAIIKU KAI (The Meiji Jingu Physical Culture Association). Established in 1924; Ryokitsu Arima, president: membership, all the organizations of physical culture. The object is to hold general athletic meeting in honour of the Meiji Shrine. Address: Care of the Education Department, Tokyo.

NIPPON JOBA KYOKAI (The Japan Horse-Riding Association). Established in 1922; Count Yorinaga Matsudaira, president; membership 147 organizations and 55 individuals. Issues reports. Address: Yonei Building, 2 Ginza, Tokyo.

NIPPON JOSHI TAIIKU REMMEI (The Japan Women's Sporting League). Established in 1882; Tomosada Kôsa, president. The League has an object in view to take part international female athletic meetings. Address: Care of the Faculty of Medicine of the Osaka Imperial University, Osaka.

NIPPON RUGBY ASSOCIATION Established in 1927; Kikan Takagi, president; membership 305. Issues a journal. Address: The Kogyo Building, 5 Ginza, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON SANGAKU KAI (The Japan Alpine Association). Established in 1906; Ritaro Kogure, president; membership 900. Issues "Sangaku" (Mountains). Address: Care of the Nippon Sangaku Kai, The Fujiya Building, Kotohiracho, Shiba, Tokyo.

NIPPON SUIJOKYOGI REMMEI (The Japan Aquatic Sporting League). Established in 1880; Dr. Itsutaro Suehiro, president; membership 119 organizations. Issues reports. Address: The Marunouchi Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NIPPON TEIKYU KYOKAI (The Japan Tennis Association). Established in 1922; Eikichi Katsuda, president; membership local organizations. Issues reports. Address: The Ando Shippo Building, 4 Ginza 5-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU KEIBA KYOKAI (The Imperial Horse-Race Association). Establishd in 1921; Count Yorinaga Matsudaira, president; membership 11 organizations. Address: 15 Komagome 4-chomé, Toshima, Tokyo.

ZEN NIPPON AMATEUR KENTO REMMEI (The All Japan Amateur Pugilists' League). Established in 1924; Lieut. Bun General Jiro Horiuchi, president; membership 5 organizations. Address: Nippon Building, Uchisaiwaicho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

ZEN NIPPON RIKUJO KYOGI REMMEI (The All Japan Athletic League). Established in 1925; Ryozo Hiranuma, president; membership 26 organizations. Issues a monthly. Address: The 6th Building, Nakadori, Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

ZEN NIPPON SKII REMMEI (The National ski Association of Japan). Established in 1925; Saburo Kojima, president; membership 45,120. Issues Ski Year Book. Address: Care of Mr. Ogawa, 308 Komagomé Shinmeicho, Hongo, Tokyo.

ZEN NIPPON TAIIKU DANSU REMMEI (The All Japan Physical Culture Dance League). Established in 1931; Baron Ken Yamakawa, president. Address: Care of the Department of Education, Tokyo.

ZEN NIPPON TAISO REMMEI (The All Japan Physical Exercise League). Established in 1930; Ryozo Hiranuma, president; membership 1,200. The purpose is to encourage physical exercises and unify physical culture associations in Japan. Issues "Taiso" (Physical Exercises). Address: Care of the Department of Education, Tokyo.

WOMEN

AIKOKU FUJIN KAI (The Patriotic Women's Association). Established in 1901: Hisako Motono, president; membership 2,700,000. The purpose is to succour the bereaved families of disabled soldiers. Issues "Aikoku Fujin" (Patriotic Women). Address: 5 Kudan 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

CHUO FUJIN KAI (The Central Women's Association). Established in 1927; Kanenaga Mashiko, president; membership 20,000. The purpose is to keep connections among various women's associations in Japan. Issues "Eikyu" (Permanence). Address: 1957; Nagasaki Minamimachi, Toshima, Tokyo.

DAI NIPPON RENGO FUJINKAI (The Federation of Women's Associations of Japan). Established in 1930; Nobuko Sanjonishi, president; membership local associations. The purpose is to promote home education. Issues "Katei" (Home). Address: 12 Shiba Park, Shiba, Tokyo.

FUJIN SANSEI DOMEI (The Women Suffrage Union). Established in 1923; Aiko Kawaguchi, president; membership 700. The object of the Union is to carry

out Woman suffrage movements. Issues reports. Address: 6 Uchisaiwaicho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

FUJIN SETTLEMENT (The Women's Settlement). Established in 1931; Mumeo Oku, president, The purpose of the Settlement is to protect children and improve living conditions, Issues reports: 1 Kikugawacho, Honjo, Tokyo.

FUSEN KAKUTOKU DOMEI (The Women's Suffrage League of Japan). Established in 1924; Fusae Ichikawa, president; membership 1,596. Issues "Fusen" (Woman Suffrage). Address: 5 Owaricho, Yotsuya, Tokyo.

KIRISUTOKYO JOSHI SEINENKAI NIPPON DOMEI (The League of Y.W.C.A. of Japan). Established in 1895; Matsuko Tsuji, president; membership 7,000. Issues "Joshi Seinen Kai" (Y.W.C.A.). Address: 13 Nishikicho 1-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON JOI KAI (The Medical-Women's Association of Japan). Established in 1902; Dr. Yayoi Yoshioka, president; membership 3,400. Issues reports: 3 Hongo 2-chomé, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON KIRISUTOKYO FUJIN KYOFU KAI (The Japan Christian Women's Temperance Society). Established in 1886; Chiyo Ozaki, president; membership 9,500. The purpose is to promote abstinence, moral and religious education. Issues "Fujin Shimpo" (Women's News). Address: 360 Hyakuninmachi 3-chomé, Okubo, Yodobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON SEKIJUJI SHA TOKUSHI KANGOFU KAI (The Japanese Red-Cross Volunteer Nurses Association). Established in 1887; Eiko Nabeshima, president; membership 22,400. Issues "Haku Ai" (Universal Love). Address: Shiba Park, Shiba, Tokyo.

RIKUKAIGUN SHOKO FUJINKAI (The Association of Military and Naval Officers' Wives). Momoko Kuroki, president; membership 20,000. The purpose is the discipline of woman's virtues. Issues "Misao" (Chastity). Address: 11 Wakamatsucho, Ushigomé, Tokyo.

SENTO HIRUTA YOKO HOME (St. Hilda's Home). Established in 1891; in care of Sister Superior. The purpose is to help the children of the poor and encourage home industry. Address: 358 Shirokané Sankocho, Shiba, Tokyo.

TRAVELLING, SIGHT-SEEING, AMUSEMENT, ETC.

JAPAN TOURIST BUREAU (Nippon Ryoko Kyokai). Established in 1912. K. Kiyasu, president; membership 185. The purpose is to provide various facilities for foreign travellers. Issues "Tourist," a monthly. Address: The Tokyo Station Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

KOKUSAI KANKO KYOKAI (The Japan Travel Publicity Association). Established in 1931; Chikuhei Nakashima, president; membership 103. The purpose is to invite foreign tourists and propagate abroad fine scenery. Address: Care of the Department of Railways, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NIPPON INU HOZON KAI (The Association for the Preservation of Japanese Dogs). Established in 1928; Hiroshi Saito, president; membership 950. The object is to make researches of Japanese dogs. Issues "Nippon Inu" (Japanese Dogs). Address: 1,321 Setagaya 2-chomé, Setagaya, Tokyo.

NIPPON KIIN (The Japan "Go" Association). Viscount Nobuaki Makino, president. The purpose is to promote interest in "Go" playing. Issues "Kido" (the way of "Go"). Address: 1 Nagatacho 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON ONSEN KYOKAI (The Hot Spring Association). Established in 1930: Prince Sanetaka Ichijo, president; membership 1,480. The purpose is to invite foreign tourists. Issues "Onsen" (Hot Spring). Address: Care of the Japan Tourist Bureau, Tokyo.

NIPPON TORI KENKYU KAI (The Association for the Study of Japanese Birds). The purpose is to study birds. Address: Care of the Bird Co., Kudansakaué, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

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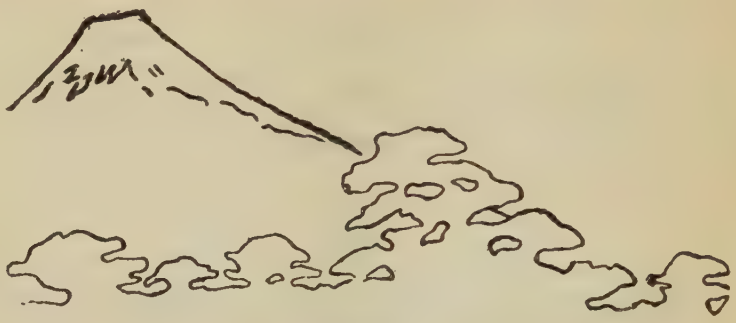

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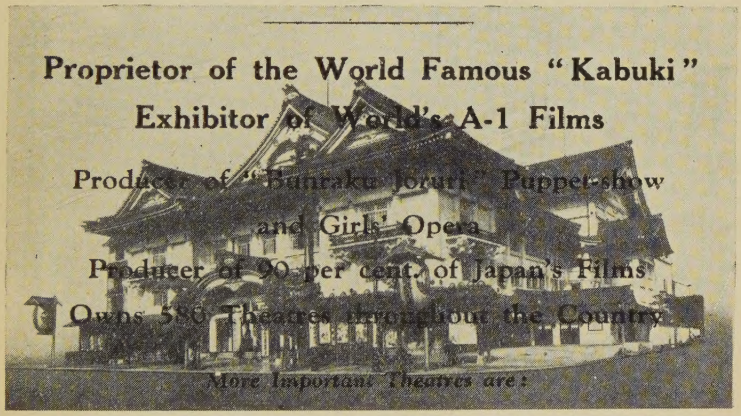

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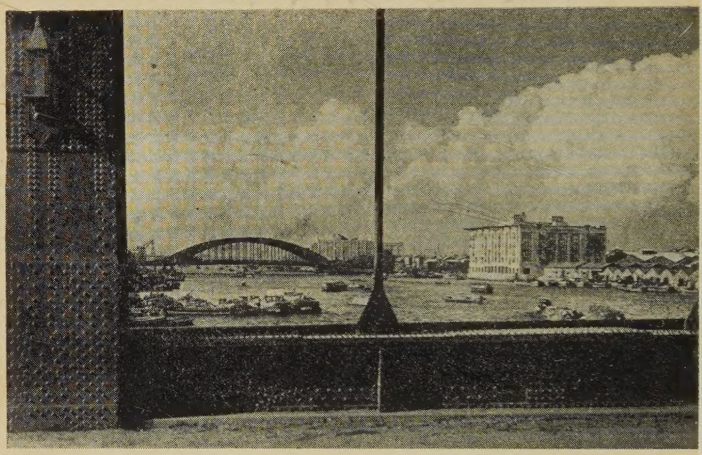

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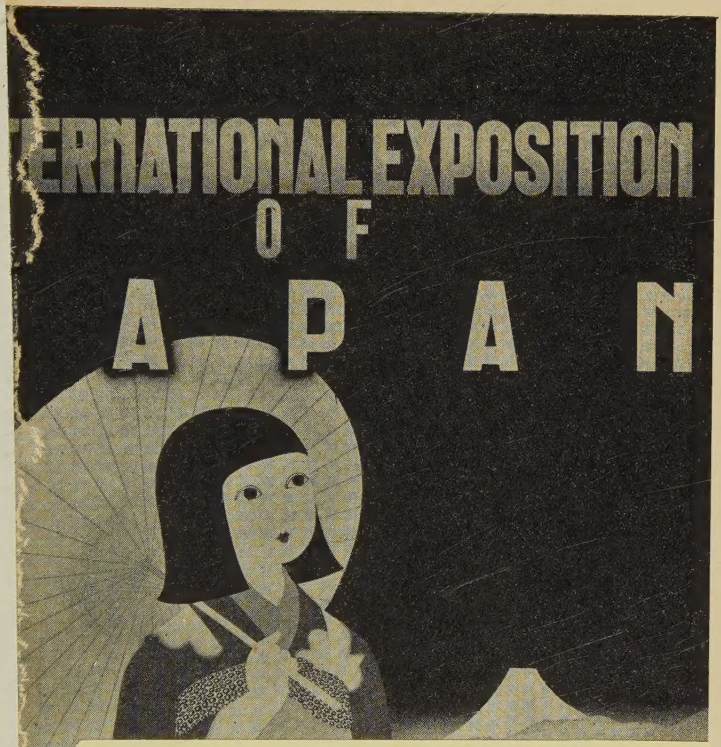

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